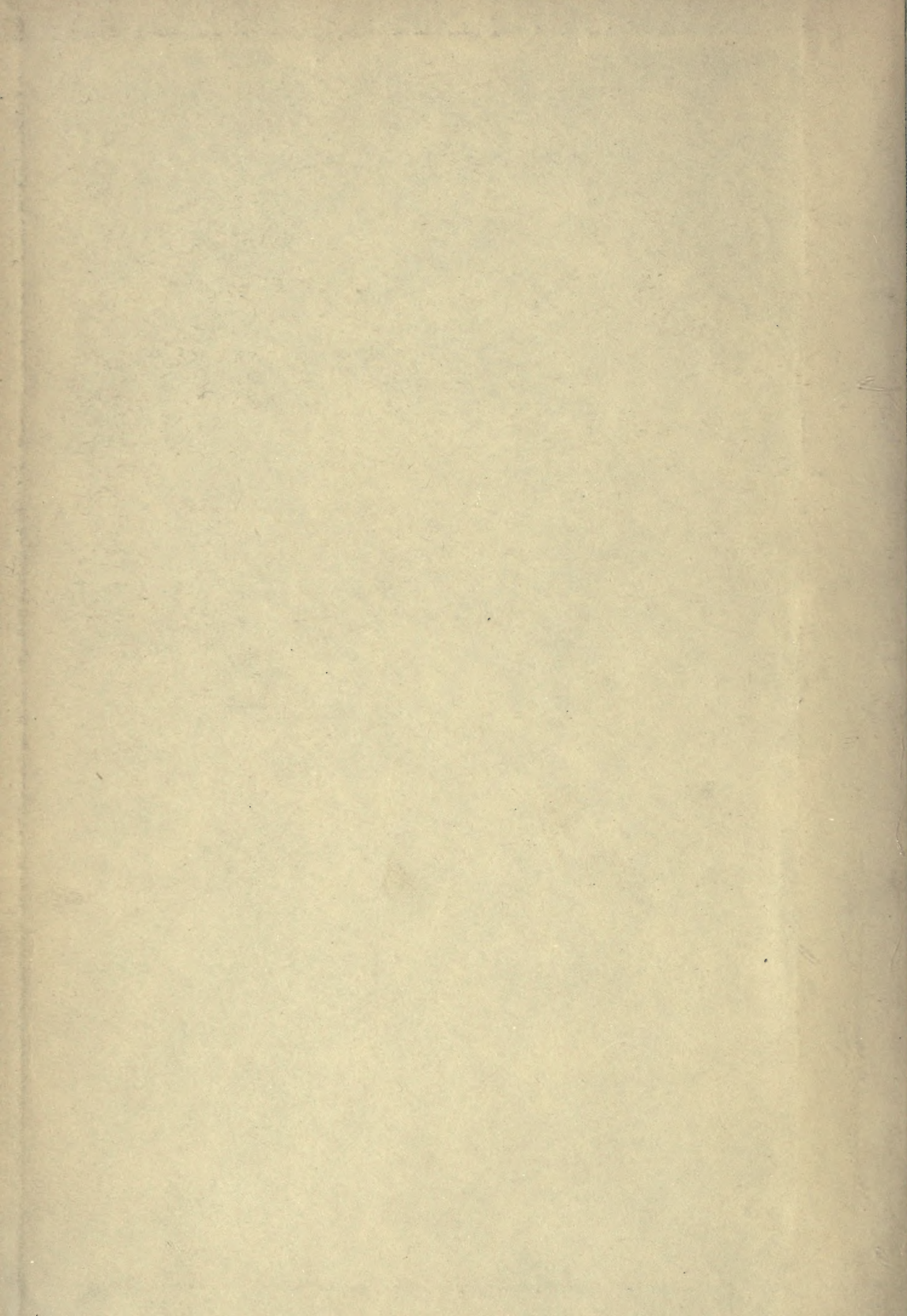


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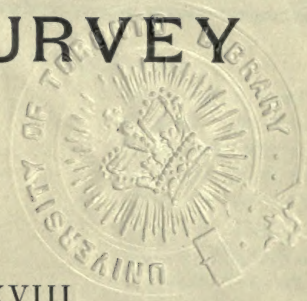
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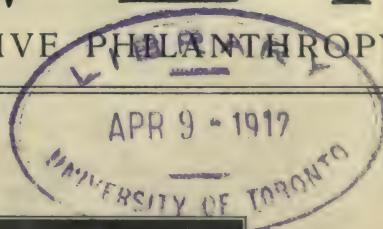
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THE

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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



JANE ADDAMS

*WHO WITH THIS ISSUE BECOMES AN
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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

AFTER THE BATTLE

Let the Lawrence strike pass unchallenged into its appointed and unique place in the industrial history of New England. Let no one seek to keep alive its bitter controversies and to project its tragic incidental blunders into the new era of prosperity, which, we may earnestly hope, will soon smile upon the textile industry. Let the roving sociologists speedily find other laboratories, and the imported strike leaders seek outlet for their unusual gifts where other groups of workers, if such there are, have like grievances. For these mill hands, as we can see plainly after the battle is over, did have their grievances. It is profitable to ask, but not easy to answer, whether the responsibility rests with individual mill owners, who misinterpreted the spirit of the law reducing hours of labor, and underestimated the money worth of the labor of their mill hands; or with the immigration policy of the nation, which invites an exploitable body of laborers to a mill district, and then leaves them without adequate protection; or with ineffective labor organization, which has failed heretofore to weld these groups into a compact body capable of successful collective bargaining; or with some failure in the less tangible influences which operate in the long run on personal efficiency and character, such as religion, education, and neighborliness.

As the incident disappears from newspaper headlines and becomes industrial history, we have our duty, as a journal of constructive philanthropy, to gather up the salient facts, and to interpret them from different points of view. Earlier events at Lawrence and the hearings at Washington on the police interference with the sending of children to other states, have already been described by our staff correspondents and interpreted by Mr. Woods, Judge Rowell, and others. In this number we present valuable information and illuminating comment by a manufacturer, a mill overseer, a militiaman, an expert in the care of neglected children, a college professor, a student of co-operative enterprises, a social worker, a former leader in the old line trade union movement, and the strike committee. These articles, which will be read in cold blood, mainly in an atmosphere far removed from the angry tumult of the labor conflict, are written with the echoes of that conflict resounding in the ears. Their value is that of contemporaneous testimony; their interest like that of the spoken word of actors in a stirring time that tried men's souls.

On all sides people are asking, Is this a new thing in the industrial world, which from now on must be taken into account? Are we to see another serious, perhaps successful, attempt to organize labor by whole industrial groups instead of by trades? Are we to expect that instead of playing the game respectably, or else frankly breaking out into lawless riot which we know well enough how to deal with, the laborers are to listen to a subtle anarchistic philosophy which challenges the fundamental idea of law and order, inculcating such strange doctrines as those of "direct action," "sabotage," "syndicalism," "the general strike," and "violence"? Yes, frankly, we think such an attempt to create "one big

union," rather than many local trade unions, is in progress. We think that our whole current morality as to the sacredness of property and even of life is involved in it. We think that eloquent appeals to the solidarity of "labor" as having nothing whatever in common with the rest of society will be made in the name of this new movement, and that the ideas of this revolutionary socialism are likely to be proclaimed with increasing boldness and vigor. The "violence" which is the corner stone of this doctrine may not take the form of dynamiting. Changing a bill of lading or neglecting to oil a machine or misplacing a switch have been its more favorite forms in Europe, and the "general strike,"—undertaken not to secure the redress of some specific grievance, or an increased share in some increasing product, but rather as one more skirmish which, whether it succeeds or fails, will inevitably bring nearer the decisive battle in which the existing industrial order is to be overthrown—this general strike may be regarded as its most complete expression in action. We shall hear more of the general strike, and of the theory of violence on which it is based.

Nevertheless we prefer not to appeal to the fear of the I. W. W. and its revolutionary ideas as a reason for dealing with such problems as have been revealed by the Lawrence strike. We should put our house in order not for the sake of meeting some dreaded enemy who may take advantage of our confusion but because our house is out of order. Strong and healthy communities and nations establish justice because they prefer justice, not because they are afraid of what some revolutionist will do to them if they allow injustice to stalk abroad. If steel-workers are employed twelve hours for seven days in the week we should put a stop to it, not to head off socialism, but because the twelve-hour day and seven-day week are intolerable. If textile workers are earning less than a living wage we should pay them more, not because they will follow strange doctrines and smash machinery if we do not, but because it is right and decent that they should have a living income. No law should be necessary to secure these things, but if a law is necessary we will do it that way, of course. Paul U. Kellogg's suggestion¹ that immigrants at least must be paid a living wage if they are employed at all, may or may not be administratively practicable. But it must be admitted that if such a plan had been in operation, it would have effectively prevented the conditions which led to the Lawrence strike and which are precipitating other similar conflicts.

In view of the urgent need for clear thinking and frank discussion concerning all aspects of the industrial problem, we cannot refrain from voicing an indignant protest against the demand of a Boston newspaper that Wellesley College should dismiss a professor from its faculty on account of the speech to the Lawrence strikers which we republish in this number. This protest might be put on grounds similar to those which we have already repudiated in another connection, that academic Socialism, as a colleague has said, is the most harmless of safety valves. But our resentment goes deeper. Such discussion as that of Professor Scudder furnishes the very foundation of free institutions in a democracy. The college which stifles it will lose and deserve to lose public confidence and respect. If Columbia University were to dismiss its president because he considers the initiative, referendum, and recall dangerous subversions of our form of government, or Wellesley were to dismiss Professor Scudder because she dares to speak of justice to a mass meeting of strikers and to demand strict observance of law by strikers and public officials alike, we would surely have fallen on evil days. Academic freedom is not merely a harmless safety valve. We may come to a time when it needs defense on that ground. Just now we may defend it rather on the ground that it is essential to the rational treatment of serious public questions.

¹An Immigrant Labor Tariff, by Paul U. Kellogg, THE SURVEY, Jan. 7, 1911. Price 25 cents.

THE COMMON WELFARE

THE BRITISH COAL STRIKE OUTLOOK

As this issue of *THE SURVEY* goes to press, however undecided the underlying issues may be, the outlook is for a settlement of the far-reaching British coal strike. From a legislative standpoint, matters were brought to a head on March 28, after a stormy week during which it looked as if a deadlock had been reached in the three-cornered negotiations between the British coal operators, the miners, and the ministry. The government's Coal Mines Bill, providing machinery for a minimum wage in the mining industry, was introduced on March 19, and ten days later had passed both houses. Its industrial, as distinct from its political, enactment hinged on the referendum among the miners the current week, the outcome of which it was prophesied would be favorable. The coal operators accepted the terms of the bill on March 27.

The bill provides no fixed minimum, but establishes local boards which are to set "reasonable minimums" based upon conditions in the districts. The boards are to go into operation on the cessation of the strike and their awards are to be retroactive, the new rates to begin not with the award of the board, but with the return to work. The minimum set is to be safeguarded for the employer by the setting of a standard of efficiency. No miner fall-

ing below this is to receive the minimum. The bill contains no penal provisions compelling acceptance by either side, and is designed as a temporary measure to last in its present form for three years.

The bill as it stands met no general opposition from the operators, their attack being concentrated on the two amendments urged by the miners' representatives.

On the side of the miners, so far as press dispatches indicate, there was no such willing acceptance of the bill in its present form and the favorable referendum is in great part due to the argument of hunger, and perhaps too to the pressure brought to bear by almost 2,000,000 other workers thrown into idleness by the stoppage in the mines. Considering their great need it is remarkable that only a very few thousand in all are said to have returned to work throughout the month.

Violence has been almost entirely lacking.

Far from the miners' original demands though the Coal Bill is, labor leaders regard it as almost unprecedented for the government under duress from a body of workers to pass a law recognizing a principle which these workers have laid down, and this principle, too, a minimum wage for adult males. On the other hand, it may be said that there is some fear among the unionists that the minimum wage being established by the government will be regarded by the mine operators as an average or even as a maximum limit.



Minor in St. Louis Post-Dispatch.

PROTEST.

THE EFFICIENCY SOCIETY LAUNCHED

The American Society for Promoting Efficiency was launched recently at a series of meetings in New York attended by bankers, accountants, manufacturers, engineers, economists, and government officials. It applied the spirit of the movement to the letter of its own name so effectively that it came out of the organization meetings with a very short title—Efficiency Society—but with a long membership, 1000 or more.

The main sessions were each assigned to the development of some one topic or group of topics connected with industrial efficiency.

John A. Gray, professor of economics in the University of Minnesota, introduced the symposium on organization, taking as his topic the benefit of efficiency to the employer, the employe, and the public. Dr. Gray believed that the movement was of the greatest value to employer and public and that it should be of equal value to the worker. His analysis of the relative increase in profits and wages, however, as estimated by efficiency engineers, the latter running from 30 per cent to 60 per cent, the former from 100 per cent to 300 per cent, illustrated its tendency toward absolutism to an extent which he held to be opposed to the growing democratic spirit in industry. The efficiency engineer proceeded, he felt, upon the principle that the industry belonged to the employer, and the workmen should be thankful for such benefits as were given him and had no right to demand equal benefits with the employer. This is the foundation, in Dr. Gray's opinion, of the trade-union opposition to efficiency, and unless the system can be readjusted to meet this criticism, it will tend to cause still greater inequalities of wealth than now exist, and to drive the labor movement into more and more radical channels.

William S. Kent, formerly professor of engineering at Syracuse University, held that in order to break down the opposition of organized labor the supporters of the efficiency movement must put themselves in a position to be able to disprove the charge of inequality of benefits

suggested by Dr. Gray, and the further charge of increasing unemployment.

LOWER LABOR COST AND HIGHER WAGES

The practical organization of a single manufacturing establishment was described by Henry R. Towne, who showed how the Yale and Towne Lock Company had so specialized, or functionalized, its work as to get the largest possible ratio of results to expenditure of energy, or, in terms of money, the largest profit for the amount spent. He gave numerous practical examples of savings in different departments: such as in one case reducing labor cost fifty per cent with an increase of 81 per cent in wages, and 275 per cent in output; in another reducing the labor cost 75 per cent, in this case decreasing wages 14 per cent because the new method required only unskilled labor and increased output threefold. The essentials to success in establishing an efficiency system were, in Mr. Towne's opinion, a receptive attitude on the part of the manufacturer, a knowledge of the science of the particular industry, the use of an expert, the functionalizing of processes, the segregation of the system until fully perfected from the regular work of the factory, the gradual progression from easy to hard problems and the training of individual workmen as leaders.

T. W. Carpenter, ex-president of the Herring-Marion Safe Company, took efficiency a stage higher and described the saving of time, labor, and money resulting from the organization of an aggregation of manufacturing establishments in the same or allied trades. He believed that co-operation had proved to be cheaper and better than competition. He desired this co-operation to take into its scope the labor force and believed from experience that this could be accomplished by a committee system of management, since this method is democratic and tends to reduce antagonism between employer and workmen.

Under the title, the Organization of a Whole Industry, William T. Schieffelin told of the principle of co-operation between employers, workers, and public, on

which the arbitration and sanitary boards in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry in New York city are carried on. He reported that the sanitary board is now issuing a certificate, or label to be displayed on goods, to shops conforming to twenty-eight sanitary rules which the board lays down. At present 344 shops employing half the workers in the trade have the right to use the certificate. Dr. Schiefelin believed that this sanitary board has already accomplished more than any amount of factory inspection and that the sanitary certificate would be a means of securing the co-operation of the public in this work for raising standards in the garment trades.

A SYMPOSIUM ON MANAGEMENT

The symposium on the second day of the conference was devoted to management. The special topics were Administration by Melville W. Mix, president of the Dodge Manufacturing Company; Sales by W. H. Cottingham, president of the Sherwin-Williams Company; Advertising by W. H. Ingersoll of the Ingersoll Watch Company; Purchasing by Elihu C. Church of the Department of Water Supply, Gas and Electricity of New York city; Production by John Calder of the Remington Typewriter Company; Record and Cost by S. S. Wheeler, president of the Crocker and Wheeler Company.

The final topic under the head of management was of more than trade interest. This was the human element, which was discussed by Luther H. Gulick. Said Dr. Gulick:

No scheme of social or business efficiency can succeed which specializes the man out of the scheme. There are definite limits to the standardization of human life. The fundamental fact of human life is the need of variation. The stimuli must vary in kind, vary in method and vary in intensity. Without varying conditions there seems to be little life.

No scheme of business or industrial activity can be permanent which does not build on hope or anticipation. Human life is not satisfied with attainment; it looks for something beyond mere achievement. Men will strike or lose interest, except where desire has opportunity to go on and on. Human nature must be appealed to in a more direct way than you

have yet appealed to it if you want the highest efficiency.

Dr. Gulick believed that in the shorter work day lies one solution of this problem, that the socializing of recreation and education by the wider use of the school plant may be made to counteract the stultifying effect of mechanical work in the factory. Welfare work is not to his mind a substitute for good wages; nor do shop activities of this sort take the place of the free play of energy and the chance for rational excitement and adventure which the race normally craves. The shortened work day will give outlet for these natural instincts to come into their own, and it should be the responsibility of the community rather than the shop to supply the opportunities for recreation and social life.

METHODS OF EFFICIENCY

A dinner meeting was devoted to efficiency in government methods. Among the speakers were F. A. Cleveland, director of the President's Commission on Efficiency and Economy, Herbert Knox Smith of the Federal Bureau of Commerce and Labor, and George Von L. Meyer, Secretary of the Navy, who described the practical workings of efficiency in the reorganization of the navy department. From his experience as both an executive officer of the government and for sixteen years a judge of the Supreme Court of New York, Mayor Gaynor, who spoke on Efficient Methods in Legal Procedure and Practice, made the statement that "So great has the inefficiency of certain branches of the judiciary become that they have hampered the progress of every other department of government." He went on:

There is so much delay, uncertainty and unreliability that litigation is almost hopeless. In fact, our merchants will hardly go into the courts for litigation at all.

There is no excuse for the delays and aggravations of the present system. In London cases are begun one month and tried the next. Here they drag on and on, often for three years or more; by that time witnesses are lost, main points of the case forgotten and every one discouraged. And when the man gets his judgment there is the endless delay while appeals are being argued. And the criminal



CITY EXHIBIT POSTER

How things look over the chimney pots of the modern city.

courts are even worse; the procedure is wholly inefficient, and the technicalities, most of them relics of dark ages, are appalling.

Why, only recently our Court of Appeals ruled in a case that certain evidence had been admitted erroneously, and while admitting that the evidence in question was trivial, the lower court was reversed, because the Court of Appeals "could not judge what influence it might have had on the court and jury." What a tribute to our civil courts and the intelligence of our jurors!

The ruling of the Court of Appeals on the law forbidding the manufacture of tobacco in tenement houses is a notable example. They quoted the constitution which forbids the restriction of any person's liberty or the confiscation of property as an excuse for allowing a man to fill the lungs of his wife and children with tobacco fumes. It was the same in the case of the underground bakeries, the women night workers and the Employers' Liability Law.

Such silly construction of a principle which dates from Magna Charta will go down like a cob house and go down very soon, simply because the intelligence of an enlightened people won't stand for it.

The legislature, by a simple amendment of the law, recently overturned one of these decisions—I think the fashionable word now is "recall"—but it shows that we do recall decisions now, and those persons who think they are giving us something new along this line

would better go back to school. The constitution of the state provides for a constitutional convention every four years, and at the next constitutional convention every decision of this kind will be "recalled."

TRAVELING EXHIBIT FOR CITY WELFARE

A traveling civic exhibit, available for neighborhood display in all parts of Chicago, has been arranged by the Woman's City Club.¹ The plan was suggested by the success of the Child Welfare Exhibit held in Chicago last spring, and is in some degree an effort to perpetuate the interest then aroused among large numbers of Chicago people in the community's attitude toward its young people. The traveling exhibit is composed of some of the material shown last spring, to which have been added special ex-



AN INSTRUCTION CORNER

hibits prepared by the Woman's City Club and contributed from various de-

The committee of the Woman's City Club in charge of the preparation and management of the exhibit is composed of Mrs. W. I. Thomas, chairman, Mrs. Frederic C. Bartlett and Antoinette Rowe, Mrs. J. Paul Goode, Mrs. Orville T. Bright, Mrs. W. H. Buhlig, with two advisory members, Mrs. William F. Dummer and E. L. Burchard, director of social museum and exhibits in the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy.

of the people are to be used for the exhibit, which in its complete form started on its travels early in January. A preliminary display had first been held in the Chicago Normal School, where, for three days, there was an average attendance of 700 people a day, a large proportion of the visitors being teachers and pupils from near-by schools. In connection with the maps, charts, and pictures, stereopticon lectures are to be provided as well as "live demonstra-

South Chicago, with an attendance of 3,500; and at Mark White Square, with an attendance of 6,000.

A NEW EXHIBIT OF HOME WORK

The Exhibit of the National Child Labor Committee at the Women's Industrial Exhibition, given last month, under the auspices of ten New York organizations, presented the resultant situation in New York after more than a



A TENEMENT FAMILY MAKING DOLLS' CLOTHES.

Photo by Hine.

The doll industry, say the commercial journals, is being transplanted into America from Germany. This photograph gives the reason.

tions." One of the latter will be on the care of babies.

The exhibit has already been displayed in the John Fiske School with a total attendance of 4,000; in the Burnside School, where it was made a special feature by the graduating class of 1912, an attendance of 5,000 being registered; in Palmer Park, as the center of five industrial communities, with an attendance of 6,500; in the Bowen High School,

decade of ineffective sanitary legislation to regulate tenement house work. The exhibit contained new and first hand material collected by the investigators of the committee under the direction of Elizabeth Watson for the New York State Factory Investigating Committee since December 1, 1911. It reflected contemporary conditions in tenement industry in New York. It showed that with the progress and improvement of

factory inspection and compulsory education legislation enforced with respect to factories, manufactures which thrive on the very cheapest labor have come to be carried on more and more by practically unregulated home work. Sixteen screens representing facts gathered in 1,037 visits told the story of this relation between factory regulation and tenement immunity. They showed how little the present sanitary law amounts to, at best, how hard it is to enforce, and

without any regulation as to the age of these household workers or the hours they worked. The state thus legalizes the work of the little nut-pickers of four, five and eight years, and the night work of the little children whose photographs appeared on one screen, at work on dolls until 10 or 11 o'clock at night. This screen showed a Christmas scene of a sort, for these dolls were being made for the Christmas sales. In the words of another screen, "Some chil-



HOW THE FASHIONS AFFECT HOME WORK.

Photo by Hine.

Making the arms and legs of the Campbell Kid, the newest thing in dolls.

how home work done under perfectly legal conditions is able to break down all child labor laws.

Under the New York labor laws, a tenement-house owner must take out a license for his building before home work in any of forty specified industries can be carried on in it.

The first screens showed a tenement exterior and interior where such home work was done, under conditions which met the legal sanitary standards, but

dren play with dolls, some don't." The "don'ts" make them, working for long hours in their tenement homes. Other screens showed classes of children whom school and factory laws are devised to keep from work—little ones below school age and foreign-speaking children too illiterate to secure working papers. The scheme of the law is that they must go to school long enough to get the rudiments of education, but they almost unconsciously become truants as the home

work makes their time profitable to their parents. They do not readily come under the notice of either factory inspectors or attendance officers. Thirty-six per cent of the workers found on the visits of inspection were children under fourteen years and the case of these children was well summed up on a screen headed "Home under any other name would be a factory, and subject to factory regulation." "All these children," said another screen, "can work at night; numbers of them do work at night; many of them were found working at night."

Numerous charts and photographs showed the unenforcibility of the sanitary provisions with respect to home work designed to safeguard the consumer against disease. Several showed a tubercular woman at work, a tubercular boy in the room with home workers, and other families of workers in which children were sick with mumps and measles. Numerous other industries have grown up since the list of forty was drawn up in the sanitary law. These are unlicensed and unregulated; goods found in these tenements cannot even be tagged as unsanitary where a contagious disease exists.

BRITISH MINERS AND THE MINIMUM WAGE

JOHN A. RYAN¹
St. Paul Seminary

The full significance of the minimum wage bill now before the British House of Commons seems to have escaped the majority of our newspapers. As the first great step in a new legislative policy, this bill deserves a place beside the famous Lloyd-George Budget of 1909. This, in brief, is the situation: Something like a million coal miners went out on a strike March 31, causing immense injury to many other industries besides the one directly involved. If a settlement were not reached quickly it was felt that millions of the people of Great Britain would be on the brink of starvation.

¹Father Ryan writes as perhaps the foremost advocate of minimum wage legislation in the United States. He stated the problem in his book, *The Living Wage*, proposed a statute in Minnesota, and has supported the movement in Massachusetts.—Ed.

It became clear that no settlement could come save through some form of government compulsion. What form should the compulsion take? Neither of the two obvious and direct forms, answered the government. Not compulsory arbitration, nor seizure and operation of the mines by the state, but the legal establishment of minimum wage boards. The rates of wages fixed by these boards will be legally binding minimum rates if coal mining goes on, but either of the two contending parties may refuse to accept the award of the boards, and discontinue production.

From this action by the British government we are warranted in drawing two important inferences. First, the Liberal ministry believed that this method of fixing wages would seem so fair to both parties that work would be resumed immediately, before a single board could be set up; and it believed that the rates actually fixed by the boards would prove so satisfactory that coal mining would continue uninterrupted for the three years during which the rates will be legally obligatory. Now, this belief and confidence on the part of the government must evidently have rested upon something more practical than an act of blind faith or of pious hope. It was undoubtedly based on the success of minimum wage boards in Australia, and in the home working industries where they have already been established in England. Experience seemed to warrant their extension to the entire coal mining industry.¹

The second inference that we would set down is absolutely certain. It is that this action of the British government marks the final step in the rejection of the non-interference policy which has in some measure characterized the attitude of the English state toward industrial relations for more than a century. Unlimited freedom of wage contracts is the last stronghold of the old policy, and now even this is abandoned. Every friend of humanity and every lover of justice ought to hope that the new policy will prove successful in the English coal min-

¹See the very encouraging article on the English boards in the *American Economic Review*, March, 1912.

ing industry, that it will be extended as rapidly as practicable to other fields, and that the example thereof will be followed by all other industrial nations.

Christianity, morality, and political wisdom unite in assuring us that it is as much the business of the state to protect a man's livelihood against degradation, as to protect his life against the murderer, or his pocket-book against the thief.

As I write these lines, I am reminded that the joint committee of the Massachusetts legislature has made a favorable report on the minimum wage bill in that state. This is an auspicious beginning for America.

MEN AND RELIGION IN THE SOUTH

CHARLES STELZLE

Team No. 1

The fact that Governor Hooper of Tennessee has called a Southern Sociological Conference to be held in Nashville during the first week of May, 1912, to discuss social conditions and remedies peculiar to the South, and the splendid response of the sixteen Southern states, is indicative of the awakened social consciousness of the South. The program as outlined covers in substance the subjects presented during the Men and Religion campaigns held by Team No. 1 in Baltimore, Birmingham, Ala., Charleston, S. C., Jacksonville, Fla., Atlanta, Chattanooga, and Memphis since the holidays.

The six-fold message of the Men and Religion Movement was presented by a team which has been working together since October 1. Evangelism naturally appealed to the South, likewise some of the older forms of Christian service; but boys' work and social service were comparatively new. It is interesting to note, however, that the institutes and platform meetings conducted by the men who presented the latter messages were most largely attended in nearly all of the southern cities. Just as the writer was about to address 150 of Atlanta's most prominent business men, including the mayor and commissioners of the city, a well-known judge quietly

remarked: "If you say that Atlanta is all right, I am going to tell you that you are a liar." He was not given a chance to carry out his threat.

It would be foolish to state that social conditions in the South are ideal. Unfortunately in many sections the municipalities are suffering on account of an inefficient conservatism on the one side and a criminal radicalism on the other. In some of the cities gambling is wide open; the social evil is flaunted in one's face; the saloon laws are flagrantly violated; housing conditions are most deplorable; and the treatment of criminals is almost beyond belief. For example, in one of the county work-houses, which was built originally to accommodate twenty persons, there are now eighty-five. The prisoners wear the same suits continuously for two weeks. Once a week they are compelled to take a bath. On Saturday night an ordinary bath-tub is hauled into a room occupied by twenty-two prisoners and every man bathes in the same water. The prisoners are shackled from the moment they enter the work-house and it was stated that the shackles were never taken off.

The conditions in each of the cities had been previously studied by a local social service or survey committee, so that most of the information which was used in the discussions concerning local conditions was obtained from local authorities. The social service recommendations were usually made under the heads of: the municipality, the county, the state, the social workers, and the churches. In every case practical suggestions were given which were immediately applicable.

The remarkable development of the cities of the South, and the importance of making the right start suggested the recommendation that a Bureau of Municipal Research and Efficiency be appointed in each of the cities. Several of the cities adopted the recommendation that a vice commission be appointed for the study of the social evil. The ownership of property used for immoral purposes was frankly discussed and the recommendation was made that the name

of the owner be placed along side that of the madame running the house.

Industrial and vocational training in the public schools was another general recommendation for the southern cities. The standards of education were found to be extremely unsatisfactory as in very few states in the South is there a compulsory education law. The suggestion that the public schools be used more widely as neighborhood centers was eagerly accepted.

The South should have the benefit of modern studies with regard to the treatment of criminals. In some cases the methods employed were decidedly archaic. There was practically nothing of a constructive or educational nature in the treatment of the criminal class. Legislation regarding sanitary and housing conditions was urged and a frank facing of the facts regarding the Negro. The scientific study of the problem of recreation, with a presentation of a city-wide plan for the recreational life of the people was recommended. Inasmuch as the streets and yards are the playgrounds for the children of the poor the conditions of paving and sanitation obviously need the most careful attention; and the public schools in the working-people's communities should have adequate playgrounds with bathing facilities. The general attitude of the South toward the problem of recreation has been largely a negative one. Attempts have been made to close the saloon, the motion picture show, and the Sunday baseball game. Without argument for or against such legislation, the importance of a constructive policy with regard to the recreational life of the people was pointed out, as well as the distinct opportunity for moral and ethical teaching in recreational life. Objection was made to the commercialization of recreation.

The social workers in each city were urged to adopt a standardized social service program in so far as this was possible, particularly with reference to the larger problems which concern them all. Greater co-operation between the social workers and the church workers of the city was also advocated, the church helping the social workers

through its powerful machinery and its ability to mould public opinion and the social workers helping the church through their scientific study of local social conditions. It was recommended that the church use to the fullest extent the local organizations for social service. The cost of living, the problems of organized labor, and the economic study of the liquor problem with reference to the attitude of the workingman toward the saloon, were other subjects considered and concerning which recommendations were made. To the churches it was generally suggested that they make a thorough survey of their local fields, following up the investigations made during the preparatory period of the Men and Religion campaign, various groups of men in these churches becoming responsible for certain subjects, the point being that it was important to bring these men into personal contact with the conditions surrounding their churches. Definite methods of service were discussed. Growing out of the survey of the local field but coming also as the result of a wider knowledge of the city's social needs the pastors and workers in the churches were urged to make a canvass of the men in the churches with a view of discovering those who should be linked up with definite social service work. The necessity for united action by the men in the churches was made plain. The men who had volunteered as individuals were to be organized so as to bring them together frequently for a discussion of social questions, upon which they might take such action as might seem wise and expedient. These social service groups in the various churches should be organized into one compact group so that it may become possible to exert swift and powerful influence which may effectively bring things to pass.

With reference to the relation of the ministers to organized labor it was suggested that fraternal delegates be exchanged between the ministers associations and the central labor unions, this plan being already in operation in over 100 cities throughout the United States. More frequent discussions among the

ministers of the social problems of the municipalities was recommended as well as the wider use of church buildings for social purposes; also open forums in which churches might freely and frankly talk out with the workingmen those questions in which the workingman is most vitally interested.

In order to make these and other plans effective, it was recommended that the cities employ a social service expert who would direct the churches in their social service tasks. It is necessary that this expert not only take the initiative in social service matters but he must be sympathetic toward the evangelistic work of the church, so that there may be hearty co-operation and united action in all work for the welfare of the people.

THE SOCIAL SERVICE CAMPAIGN

J. L. LANSING

Team No. 2

The social service section of the Men and Religion Forward Movement has been generally popular. Earnest preachers here and there feared it would not be vitally Christian, but when they faced it as it actually appeared, they were amazed that they had not known that it is and must be vitally Christian.

Our general plan has been very simple. In each place we have a social service committee as a part of the local Committee of One Hundred. This committee includes representatives of the Associated Charities, the Children's Aid Society, the Juvenile Court, the district nurses and other social agencies. We are thus put in intimate and sympathetic relations with these bodies, and we seek to interpret their work and needs to the churches, gaining them recruits from the large number of men in the churches who are not in harness.

In every city we have one conference of all the social workers. Frequently a hundred attend—in larger cities, twice that number, and even in smaller places never less than eighty. A representative of each tells briefly of his work. We follow with encouragement and suggestions.

One of the most interesting matters constantly before us has been the co-ordinating of work in the United or Associated Charities. Where, as in Rochester, N. Y., the plan has been carefully worked out, we tell less developed cities about it and urge them to write to that city for information.

In Boise, Idaho, we found that Judge Dunbar of the juvenile court had been investigating shocking cases of immorality among children. He had brought his facts to the attention of the Committee of One Hundred and they arranged that he should repeat them to a mass meeting of eleven hundred parents. Judge Dunbar's statement made a powerful and tragic impression. He was followed by our suggestions of a new order of home supervision and public care, protection from ignorance of sex hygiene by teaching, and from harm by supervision. A similar condition existed in Walla Walla, Wash. These cities were no worse than many others, but were honest and courageous in facing their condition. Indianapolis and Toledo, on a larger scale, present a similar problem and a worse condition.

The men of the country have shown a profound interest in the conditions, causes and perils of prostitution. The report of the Vice Commission of Minneapolis, the stunning findings of the Chicago Vice Commission, the hearty effort in these cities, and in Des Moines, Kansas City, and Rochester, to get the facts and enforce the laws, have been features of a very widespread awakening. Rochester, since our visit, has eliminated its "red light" district.

Of course, the saloon has everywhere been found to be a prime cause of all kinds of social evils. We have invariably urged the indirect attack upon it by such substitutes as school centers, comfort stations and recreation centers.

It would be impossible to tell here the numerous lines of work suggested. We have forgotten no question and evaded no issue of humanity and public concern. And through it all we have declared that it is in spirit and purpose precisely what the Saviour of the world taught and wrought.



THE HUMANITARIAN VALUE OF CIVIL SERVICE



JANE ADDAMS

In spite of the enormous headway civil service has made in America during the last forty years, the system of examination for entrance and promotion in public office has never really captured the popular imagination. It has always been associated with a cold and correct morality versus open-hearted kindness, and it has never quite rid itself of the obnoxious association with "silk stockings." Perhaps its propagandists have overemphasized its usefulness in keeping the rascals out and thus allowing it to become stranded in the shallow waters of negative virtue, have failed to launch it upon the deep sea of popular affection.

Although it is in connection with humanitarian institutions that civil service has registered its most telling successes, and could most easily demonstrate its value, recent events in Chicago have shown that the safeguards which a decade of the merit system have thrown about the public care of the sick, the insane, the aged poor, and dependent children, may be scattered to the winds in a spirit of Rabelaisian gaiety with scarcely a protest from the community as a whole.

Only its oldest and most partisan friends were heard from during the long months of its spectacular destruction, and they could but be impressed with the fact that as the merit system was being broken down through a dramatic appeal to the sympathy of the people, so a new campaign must be promptly instituted in order to establish it in popular affection, through the very same effective methods. The mere fact that civil service has secured a more efficient administration of public affairs is not, of itself, a sufficient guarantee that it will endure.

A review, therefore, of the methods of triumphal destruction pursued by the president of the Board of County Commissioners, to whom the care of Chicago's humanitarian institutions is com-

mitted, may prove an instructive study. One of his earliest official acts was to walk portentously into the wards of the public hospital and to eat of the food which was being served to the patients. When the eggs proved to be "bad 'uns" he was in a state of righteous indignation and dramatically called upon heaven to witness that never again so long as he held office would the sick poor of the county suffer such indignity, which noble sentiments were promptly spread abroad by the crowd of minor officials and newspaper men who were part of his expedition. That very large public to whom the compassionate and big-hearted man always appeals, at once concluded that the new president understood the poor and was serving them with unselfish devotion. The fact that the newly appointed food inspector was "Fish Murray," a hungry office-holder out of a job who had become famous through his venal lack of discrimination in foods, did not apparently reach the public mind, nor did the fact that a new position was illegally made for him with a salary of three thousand dollars a year. The eggs were bad, something had to be done at once, and the new thorough-going president had done it, was what finally did register itself in the public consciousness.

The president of the county board gave further evidences of his devotion to the poor. He dismissed the medical head of the County Hospital for the Insane, scattered the trained nurses who had been in charge of the patients, and ruthlessly "fired" the corps of civil service employees. Of course, incidentally, many partisans were given positions, but, again, the fact that they were unfitted, that a huge hospital of twenty-seven hundred patients was left with only one trained nurse, did not interest the public, only the fact that a kind-hearted man had appointed new people to make things better.

The president of the county board next

turned his attention to the Juvenile Court, which had been far too long under the influence of reformers. The court offered the best possible field for the operations of a friend of the people, for did it not constantly deal with neglected children, with the widow and the fatherless, whose defense has ever been the chief glory of the cheap politician? Beginning therefore with the industrial homes to which the Juvenile Court sent its wards, he began a campaign which cleverly combined a villification of the chief probation officer, whom he held responsible for the institutions, and a pathetic appeal on behalf of dependent children. In this he had the support of a Hearst daily with its great advantage of supreme indifference to accuracy. With the help of its reporters and his own investigators, the president was able to unearth much appealing material, some of it founded upon facts, for what in the history of the world has ever been more touching than a little child deprived of parental care? Upon this natural human foundation was reared a superstructure of clever suggestion and hypnotic appeal, and for weeks the emotions and sensibilities of the public were literally ploughed up by the most harrowing tales of children beaten, starved and outraged, until the stage was at last made ready for the civil service trial of the chief probation officer, upon whom the odium was placed. This trial was prolonged throughout three months, at least affording an impressive lesson to other public servants against the folly of standing on their rights.

Many things transpired, however, to dim the final triumph, and in the end it seemed as if the actors had not played up to the opportunities offered by the stage setting. Perhaps the play was too long, or the blackness of the villain too unrelieved. At any rate, the leading men in the center of the stage, the civil service commissioners themselves, whose resignations the president held in his pocket in case they should thwart him, grew tired of the part assigned them and quarreled with the stage managers. One of the latter, who should have been carefully concealed in the wings, the very

man who had been promised the place of chief probation officer at a substantial increase of salary, suddenly found himself in full view of the audience without a make-up, and although he hastily retreated, after an incoherent apology, the audience could not forget the contretemps. The spotlight, awkwardly managed, unexpectedly threw into bold relief two dependent girls who, although they had been dramatically abducted by night from an industrial school, ostentatiously wine and dined and carefully coached as to their parts, forgot their lines at the crucial moment, as did other prepared witnesses, even to the insignificant "supes." Before the end of the third month it was clear that the emotional audience had become restless, the ruder ones occasionally guyed the actors and called for the "hook," and even the claque in the gallery became a trifle critical. At any rate, an unexpected impression finally got over the foot-lights that perhaps, after all, people who had been trained to care for children could do it better than the hastily selected appointees of a kind-hearted politician.

Nevertheless, the president of the county board has utilized for his own advantage that instinctive desire to protect the weak and defenceless which all good men feel. The ward politician who buys new shoes that children may attend their father's funeral, or pays the rent of a sick constituent to keep "a roof over the kids," is literally not in it, for such a politician in spite of his magnificence deals with units only, and pays out of his own pocket. The president of the county board dealt with a multitude of forlorn children gathered from a community of two and a half million people, and impressively paid for their care from a public purse of thirteen million dollars. Nero's famous wish that the people had but one huge neck which he might decapitate, was reversed: it was as if all the neglected children of the people had but one defender, who was able to protect them.

The lesson which the friends of civil service might long since have learned from the petty politician, was thus writ large for all to read; that in some wise or

another the beneficent aspects of the merit system must be made clear, stated dramatically, if possible, that the system may become endeared to the public as the safeguard for the oppressed and defenceless, which it really is. It would be clearly impossible to destroy the institutions of the people under the guise of befriending the poor, did the public in the least understand its beneficence. To have opened a huge public hospital to the ablest graduates of the medical schools; to have replaced the ward heelers, who formerly stood guard over the intimidated insane, by trained nurses; to have put the delicate task of caring for dependent children under the supervision of probation officers carefully prepared for such work, are results which might well claim the gratitude of an admiring public on the popular basis, which is after all the soundest one possible, that the aged poor, the sick, the insane, and helpless children, shall be tenderly cared for. Yet, curiously enough, such achievements, which are the result of devotion and enthusiasm on the part of public-spirited citizens, in the end appear colorless, quite as drab and uninteresting as righteousness is proverbially supposed to be, although they require ability and understanding and demand subtleties of sympathy, of recognition, of adaptation.

On the whole the humanitarian institutions of the state offer careers as honorable and absorbing as professorships in a great university or as worthy and solid as officialdom in a great business house.

At present, however, promising young people are barred from the service of the state unless they accidentally become interested in its humanitarian institutions. The fact that civil service examinations are to be held is, of course, made public, but the date is given with an announcement as drily official as possible. Could young people be reached through a campaign, with speeches and flying literature, with transparencies and a brass band if enthusiasm rose so high, stating the opportunity to which such an examination was an opening, the career of which it was the mere starting point, one can imagine securing for the service of the state the flower of youth. An appeal could be made, on one hand, to those equipped with the high curiosities of science, through the criminalistic institutes and psychopathic clinics which offer wide fields of research; on the other hand, to that trained devotion and tenderness for the lowly, without which no institution is justifiable. Gifted youth at the present moment is not systematically allured to the service of the state except through the one old path of political ambition. The finer sentiments and emotions are still left to be made sport of, by self-seeking men, because the so-called reformer is afraid to assert that efficiency is tenderness and that untrained service results in cruelty. The state will continue to be deprived of the service of the best, until the humanitarian values of civil service are made so clear that he who runs may read.

CHILD LABORERS

HORTENSE FLEXNER

"Let them not droop within the house of toil,
The little children! Make them to go free,
Give them their heritage of sun and soil,
Kinship with racing wind and cloud and sea!
They are too frail, too glad, to learn of pain,
Their eyes have not forgot, for all the gray
Of leaden hours, the sky's star-blossomed plain,
Give them again the wealth of idle day!"

So do we speak, wise in our years, yet slow
As they, to lift the age-worn, bitter weight
We toil beneath in heart and body throe,
Ourselves but children with a task too great.
Help us, then, Father, shape the work aright,
Child laborers, we, blind in the dawnless night.



THE HUMAN SIDE OF LARGE OUTPUTS

STEEL AND STEEL WORKERS IN SIX AMERICAN STATES

VI

THE LABOR POLICIES OF UNRESTRICTED CAPITAL

JOHN A. FITCH

MEMBER STAFF (1907-8) PITTSBURGH SURVEY

I have been telling about conditions as I saw them in the mill towns of six different states, but I have not yet told the real story of the steel workers. This is a story that never can be told in full, because it is a story of men—living, red-blooded men, who have ambitions and sorrows and loves and hates and who feel just as bankers feel, and writers, and farmers, and poets, and railroad engineers, just as all human beings feel—because they are human. That is a story that can never be told. It can only be lived.

So I cannot tell all the story, but I can come a great deal nearer to telling it than I have before. And I am going to tell more of it now than I have told in any previous article in this series.

I do not need to depend upon my own observation with regard to some of the conditions in the steel industry. I estimated in 1907-1908 that 20 per cent of the steel workers in the Pittsburgh district were employed seven days a week. Now I have before me a part of the report of the United States Bureau of Labor on Labor Conditions in the Steel Industry. On page xiv of the intro-

ductory chapter of Volume I, the situation is briefly summarized for the industry:

The fact that stands out most strikingly in any study of the labor conditions in the iron and steel industry in the United States is the unusually long schedule of working hours to which the larger number of the employees in this industry are subject.

During May, 1910, the period covered by this investigation, 50,000, or 29 per cent, of the 173,000 employees of blast furnaces and steel works and rolling mills covered by this report customarily worked 7 days per week, and 20 per cent of them worked 84 hours or more per week, which, in effect, means a 12-hour working day every day in the week, including Sunday. The evil of 7-day work was particularly accentuated by the fact developed in the investigation that the 7-day working week was not confined to the blast furnace department where there is a metallurgical necessity for continuous operation, and in which department 88 per cent of the employees worked 7 days a week; but it was also found that, to a considerable extent, in other departments where no such metallurgical necessity can be claimed, productive work was carried on on Sunday just as on other days of the week. For example, in some establishments the Bessemer converters, the open-hearth furnaces, and the blooming, rail, and structural mills were found operating 7 days a week for commercial reasons only.

I have been within the last eighteen months at Johnstown, Steelton and Bethlehem, Pa.; at Lackawanna, N. Y.; at Youngstown, Ohio; at Gary, Ind.; Chicago, Ill.; Pueblo, Colo.; and Birmingham, Ala.; and at all of those places I found seven-day work. Jones and Laughlin, the Cambria Steel Co., The Pennsylvania, the Bethlehem, the Lackawanna Companies, and the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company were all operating their open-hearth steel furnaces 7 days a week. At Youngstown, Ohio, in November, 1910, I saw the Bessemer converters in the plant of the Republic Iron and Steel Company spouting flames at 2 o'clock on a Sunday afternoon.

To no small extent this situation has been improved by the voluntary action of the steel companies. In 1910 the American Iron and Steel Institute, an organization of the leading steel men of the country, appointed a committee to consider whether a plan could be devised whereby even in the processes necessarily continuous, a weekly day of rest could be allowed to each man. The committee made a favorable report, and its plan, with some modifications was adopted during 1911 by the United States Steel Corporation, the Lackawanna Steel Company, the Youngstown Sheet and Tube Company, and probably others.

Yet this does not mean that the plan is now in full swing throughout the steel industry. Its working-out is hampered because it conflicts with uninterrupted plant operation. It will never be a complete success, I think, as long as the enforcement of it is left to the men who are at the same time responsible for output.

Steel making is a continuous industry. By voluntary action American steel makers have endeavored to set the standard enforced by France and a dozen other industrial nations through their statute law—a compulsory one day of rest in seven for the men in the crews. Thousands of men who two years ago worked 7 days a week are now working 6, and the shortened schedule is in complete operation in a number of plants. But not all. There is consequent need in America for laws which will compel

backward employers to adopt this humane regulation and thus keep them from penalizing the progressive employers who have adopted it.

The placing of the 7-day week under the ban is a step forward. But another evil, equally serious, that has not been materially abated or modified by either the Steel Corporation or the independents, is the 12-hour day. On this, the Bureau of Labor says:

Nothing has been done by the manufacturers, nor have any proposals been made, to lessen the proportion of men working 72 hours or more per week. It was found in this investigation that nearly 43 per cent of the 173,000 employes in the iron and steel industry were working at least 72 hours per week, or 12 hours per day for 6 days a week. This proportion remains unchanged, being unaffected by the plan to give the men who were working 84 hours per week one day of rest in seven.

It ought not to be necessary to discuss this question further. It seems strange that there could be any argument over the necessity or the decency of a 12-hour day in a steel mill!¹ But there are some attempts at argument over it.

The steel manufacturers evidently tried the same argument on the agents of the Bureau of Labor that has always been their favorite in talking with me, for the report says:

During the investigation those in charge of the plants have in their discussions with representatives of the bureau frequently emphasized the fact that the men working these very long hours are not kept busy all the time. To a considerable extent this is perfectly true; but the employes in question are on duty and subject to orders during the entire period, and they are not, except in rare

¹An added significance attaches to the conditions of labor here described as characteristic of the iron and steel industry when we consider that the general tendency in other industries for years past has been toward a shorter working day. Years ago the 10-hour day became almost a standard; since that time further reductions have brought the working-day to 9, and in many cases to 8 hours, and this reduction has been accompanied by a part holiday on Saturday. It is therefore in striking contrast to this general tendency in other industries to find in a great basic industry, such as that part of the iron and steel industry covered in this report, that approximately only 14 per cent of the 173,000 employes work less than 80 hours per week and almost 43 per cent work 72 hours or over per week. REPORT ON CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY IN THE UNITED STATES, Volume 1, pp. XV, XVI; Senate Document No. 110, 62nd Congress, 1st Session.

instances, allowed to leave the plant. It should not be overlooked that it is not simply the character or the continuity of the work, but the fact that in the case of the 12-hour a day man, something over one-half of each 24 hours—more than three-fourths of his waking hours—is spent on duty in the mills, which is of significance to the worker and his family.

The 12-hour day in the steel industry will never be settled until we have an 8-hour, 3-shift law for continuous industries. It doesn't make good citizens to keep men cooped up in a steel plant 12 hours a day, even if they don't have to work all the time. There is now such a law, passed by Congress, for railroad telegraph offices that are continuously operated.

The answer that the men do not work all of the time they are in the mills indicates that the social aspects of the situation are ignored; but there is another answer that is even worse than that. Recently an important steel man, in a statement given to the press, said that the men preferred to work 12 hours a day so that they could make more money. It didn't seem to occur to this man that he was making a revelation of the shockingly low range of wages prevailing in the industry.¹

More than 50 per cent—in many cases 60 per cent—of the employes of steel companies are common laborers. They work either 10 or 12 hours a day and are paid by the hour. In Bethlehem and Steelton, Pa., common laborers get 13 and 14 cents an hour. In Birmingham, Ala., 12 and 13 cents. In Johnstown, Pa., and in Lackawanna, N. Y., the rate is 15 cents an hour. It is 17 cents in Pueblo and Chicago, and in the Steel Corporation mills in Pittsburgh it is 17½ cents an hour, the top notch of the common labor rate in the industry.²

What does this mean?

¹Out of the fifteen industries for which the annual earnings of immigrant laborers were secured by the Immigration Commission, in only one were they as low as in iron and steel. This was the manufacture of woolen and worsted, another beneficiary of a high tariff. The other industries were as follows: Slaughtering and meat packing; bituminous coal mining; glass; silk goods; cotton goods; clothing; boots and shoes; furniture; collars, cuffs and shirts; leather tanning, currying and finishing; gloves; oil refining, and sugar refining.

²Of the total of 172,706 employes, 13,868, or

The Associated Charities of three different cities where steel making is a great industry, have, within the last two years, made a study of the cost of living and have arrived at rough conclusions as to the income necessary in their respective localities to provide a minimum subsistence to a workingman's family, including husband, wife and three children. They put the figure at \$560 in Buffalo; \$630 in Chicago, and in Pittsburgh, \$768. Let us take the rates per hour given above and see how it works out.

If a common laborer works 12 hours per day, 365 days in the year, in the Buffalo or Chicago mills, he will earn about \$100 more than he needs for a bare subsistence—a little more than \$100 in Chicago, and a little less in Buffalo. If he takes his Sundays off and works 12 hours a day for 313 days, he will just about make it in both cities; but if the period of employment drops to 300 days, which is better than the steel companies have been doing for some time, the income will not reach the minimum, even if he works 12 hours a day. In neither Buffalo nor Chicago will a 10-hour man reach this minimum, even if he works 365 days in the year.

In Pittsburgh the figure determined upon by the Associated Charities was \$768. A common laborer employed in the Steel Corporation mills will just fall short of that figure if he works 12 hours a day every day in the year.

Under present conditions, common laborers are obliged to live amid unsanitary conditions and congestion of the worst sort. Common laborers in the steel industry are largely single men, or married men whose wives have been left in Europe. The men whose wives are with them in the mill towns generally take in boarders, and these single men are packed away in rooms with as many beds

8.03 per cent earned less than 14 cents per hour; 20,527, or 11.89 per cent earned 14 cents and under 16 cents; and 51,417, or 29.77 per cent earned 16 and under 18 cents. Thus: 85,812, or 49.69 per cent of all the employes received less than 18 cents per hour. Those earning 18 and under 25 cents per hour numbered 46,132 or 26.71 per cent; while 40,762 or 23.61 per cent earned 25 cents and over. A few very highly skilled employes received \$1.25 per hour; and those receiving 50 cents an hour per hour numbered 4,403, or 2.55 per cent of all employes. BUREAU OF LABOR REPORT, p. XVI.

as the space will accommodate. The beds, like the men, are often worked double shift; the night workers sleeping in them during the day, and the day workers getting into the same beds at night.

Such conditions are not in accordance with American standards of decency. It is a farce to put a high tariff on steel to "protect American labor" and provide no machinery to insure that the benefit sifts through to the workmen themselves. If the tariff system is to be maintained and defended on these grounds, we must either curtail immigration or provide for minimum wages, by federal and state legislation; possibly we must do both.

Sweeping as is the indictment of fact against the steel industry in these counts, it should be said that the managers and presidents are generally men who are showing concern for the welfare of their employes. Nearly every steel company in America has done something in recent years to further the comfort or well-being of their workmen in one way or another. Two independent companies, Lackawanna and Colorado Fuel and Iron, have sociological departments. The department at Lackawanna is of recent origin and has for its aim social betterment of the town in many ways. The Colorado enterprise has been in operation more than a decade. It provides amusement and instruction for the dwellers in the coal camps and has contributed much toward the development of schools and the improvement of sanitary conditions.

It is seldom that one encounters a hospital so finely equipped and managed as the new one at Gary, Ind., or that of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company at Pueblo. But the necessity of adequate hospital service is more and more making itself felt. The Carnegie Steel Company has, within the last three years, standardized the emergency hospitals at its plants, has arranged for highly equipped wards in the new West Penn Hospital in Pittsburgh, and has reorganized its staff of surgeons. The Tennessee Coal and Iron Company is planning a new hospital near Birmingham.

There are many other similar movements in the steel industry, some of

which there is not space to mention, and others, doubtless, of which I have not even heard. But I can say this with some assurance. In it all, the United States Steel Corporation is leader. In the eighteen months ending with June, 1911, the United States Steel Corporation spent \$1,366,000 in the installation of safety devices in its various plants. For more than two years it has maintained a system of voluntary compensation whereby, regardless of contributory negligence, workmen receive definite compensation in case of accident. It provides a liberal old age pension, to which the employes are not asked to contribute, and it has more recently established a sanitary committee, which is to look into questions of shop-hygiene and sanitation in the same thorough way that safety is engineered.

In the accident relief plan the United States Steel Corporation has provided a definite and fixed compensation, in case of accident, regardless of common law defenses, in advance of any similar legislation by the states. And today Ohio is the only state in which the Steel Corporation plants exist that protects injured workmen by statute as well as they are protected under the relief plan of the corporation.

To bring the protection of all workers in all mills in this hazardous trade up to the standards thus crystallizing into practice in the foremost companies there is need of better laws for safety in factories in every state in the union. There is need of better inspection and enforcement of these laws, and finally, there is need of compensation laws that will put the financial burden of accidents on the industry instead of on the individual.

It would be exceedingly unfair to discuss conditions in the steel industry without mentioning these progressive measures. Because of their operation, there is growing up in the steel companies, and especially in the United States Steel Corporation, a group of men to whom safety, or health, or some other form of human conservation is a matter of more importance than output or dividends.

But these things must be considered in

their proper relations, and it would be even more unfair to stop at this point and leave the rest of the story untold. The steel companies of the United States have come to be immensely powerful. Everyone would admit that, so far as the United States Steel Corporation is concerned; but it is true also, in less degree, of the independents.

It may be no crime to be possessed of great power. But great power carries with it great responsibility as to the use that is made of it. I wish merely to point out here that the steel companies do have great power, and then to cite some instances of the manner in which they exercise it.

I never encountered a more striking illustration of the effect of industrial power than was revealed to me in a conversation with a Y. M. C. A. secretary in one of the steel towns of Pennsylvania. He told me that the Association there had about 150 members. The steel mill employed more than 5,000 men; so I asked him why he did not have a larger membership.

"O," he said, "The Association caters to a better class than the ordinary workmen; we have the clerks from the offices mainly. Then, the working schedule of the mills is such as to make it very hard for the workmen to use the Y. M. C. A. facilities; they would be too tired, you know, to use the baths and the bowling alleys, even if they were members."

"That is on account of the 12-hour day, is it?" I asked.

"Yes," he said, "The 12-hour day and the 7-day week."

"Well, then," I suggested, "the working schedule is a barrier between you and your real work; in order to reach the men at all, your first job, apparently, will be to break down that barrier."

"O, no," said the secretary, "we could not do that. In the first place, the association is the child, you might say, of the steel company. They are the heaviest contributors, and it would break it up for me to go into anything like that; anyway, I would be sure to lose my job. It might possibly be taken up by the State Association, but probably they couldn't touch it either. You see, we

are backed up everywhere by the substantial business men of the various localities; they would not stand for any such movement. Now, take it in this neighborhood. The steel company has done more for the schools here than any other agency. They gave the borough its high school building. Our president is the chairman of the school board. It would hardly do, you know, under the circumstances, for the association of which he is president to oppose the policies of the steel company. At least, he would look at it that way. This thing has come up before. Last winter we wanted to get Charles Stelzle here to talk to the men. Now, you know, this is a non-union mill—the company would not tolerate unionism. Stelzle always talks to workingmen about bettering their conditions and usually mentions unionism. Of course, no sane man can deny that there is need here of any agency that will better the conditions of the men, but you see how Stelzle's talk might create unrest, and it would not do. We had to decide against it. So I consider it best to keep pretty quiet and be careful. It may be that the churches could take up the movement that you suggest, yet if they were to request the company to cut out Sunday work, I am sure they would get a very polite, diplomatic request to mind their own business. Things are rotten here all right; but the work of the Y. M. C. A. is not one of social reform. We aim to get good, clean young men, and to help them to stay clean. That is our work. I believe in these reform movements, all right, but they are outside of our line of activity."

The recent report of the Immigration Commission contains some interesting information in this connection. In its report of steel communities it refers to them by letter, and says this of the leading company in "Community A":

Company I exerts a strong influence over the affairs of the city, politically, socially and industrially. It owns the largest department store, the largest hotel and cafe, supervises the public library, owns a large and flourishing American residential suburb, which is situated on a mountain that rises directly from the city; owns and operates the railroad which carries all of the passenger and



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freight traffic between the city proper and this suburb; and owns the ground and a majority of the houses in two residential districts for its employes, and considerable land on which houses owned by its employes have been built.

Such a company is in position to wield great influence. It is evident to anyone at all familiar with the district that Community A is Johnstown, Pa.; that Company I is the Cambria Steel Company, which is controlled by the Pennsylvania Railroad.

Equally interesting is what the Immigration Report has to say in this connection about Community C; and it is equally evident that Community C is Steelton, Pa., where the Pennsylvania Steel Company (also controlled by the Pennsylvania Railroad) has its big plant. I take the following from the report:

The location of a large steel plant in Community C gives character to the entire town, influencing and controlling its life, not only in an industrial and business way, but also in its social and political aspects. . . . In normal times, the steel company employs about 8,000 men, most of whom are residents of the town, whose total population probably never exceeded 18,000. It is apparent from these figures that the company has always been in a position to influence to a very large degree the affairs of the town. At the present time, the vice-president of the company is president of the council, and this office has

frequently, if not usually, been filled by someone high in authority at the works. The favorable or unfavorable attitude of the company toward candidates for office seems to be communicated to those with whom it may have weight, and to constitute the most important influence in local politics.

I do not think I ever was in a steel town where I found so much actual fear of the steel company on the part of the citizens of the town, as I found in Steelton, which is about a twenty-minute car ride from Pennsylvania's capital. I called at the home of some people there who had been mentioned to me as interested in social advance. I talked with them about parks, playgrounds, municipal sanitation, and district nursing. All went well until I casually mentioned the steel company. They had told me of certain quarters of the city where there was great congestion, and I asked them if the low wages paid by the steel company had anything to do with it. Instantly, the husband and wife with whom I was talking drew back and seemed to be afraid to say anything more, although they had said nothing, even remotely, relating to the steel company, and they urged me not to quote them in any way, because they said they did not want to offend the company. As I got up to leave, the husband, a business man, fol-



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lowed me to the door and out on to the porch, imploring me not to mention his name, although I had already told him that I would not. "For heaven's sake," he said, "don't mix me up in this. I've got to do business in this town, and I can't afford to offend the company."

Not at all dissimilar was the condition in Bethlehem, Pa., when, during the strike of 1910, the merchants who feared that the plant would shut down or be moved, took the side of the company and against the men who were striking for a day of rest, and adopted resolutions, expressing their "appreciation to Charles M. Schwab for the great things he has already accomplished for this community," and trusting that "he will not be diverted by the unfortunate industrial dissensions from continuing to carry out his great plans."

The power of the steel companies over the towns in which they operate is a civic problem, and it is perhaps the most important aspect of the situation. Political control over a community is in the long run a very inclusive sort of control. But it is on the industrial side that the power of the steel companies is most evident. It was brought out in the hearings before the Stanley Committee, some time ago, that the Steel Corpora-

tion, as early as 1901, in a resolution adopted by its executive committee, went on record as "unalterably opposed to the extension of organized labor" and advised its subsidiary companies not to recognize unionism. Since that time, a consistent fight has been made by the Steel Corporation against all the unions to which any of their employes belonged with the possible exception of the railroad unions. In 1901 they loosened the grip of an already weak union among the steel workers (the Amalgamated Association); in 1909 they completed the work by eliminating that union completely. In 1908 the Pittsburgh Steamship Company, the most important member of the Lake Carriers' Association, and operating the ore boats of the Steel Corporation, refused to deal longer with the Lake Seamen's Union and apparently brought the Lake Carriers' Association into line in the same policy. During the strike on the Great Lakes, which followed, the Lake Carriers' Association officers refused to accept an invitation from the Boards of Arbitration of the five states surrounding the Great Lakes to state their case before them. In the strike of 1909, in which the Steel Corporation finally eliminated the Amalgamated Association, the attempt of the

State Board of Arbitration of Indiana to bring about conciliation was refused. The officers of the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company, a subsidiary of the Steel Corporation, even refused an audience to those state officials.

The opposition of the steel companies to labor organizations is natural enough. The unions themselves have been to blame for much of the bitterness that has been engendered. No employer can look with pleasure upon a union that acts repeatedly with headstrong arrogance; and that was the way in which the Amalgamated Association acted, quite customarily, years back when it was powerful. The steel companies are able to cite instances of aggression in times of peace and violence during strikes to support their contention that the unions should be thrown out.

During the strike of 1909, which was the last stand of the Amalgamated Association against elimination from the plants of the Steel Corporation, and in which it was finally eliminated, there were some very discreditable things done by union men. At Bridgeport and Martins Ferry, Ohio, tactics were employed by the strikers that I should condemn in the strongest of terms. In the first place strikers interfered with men who remained at work, assaulting them, destroying their dinner pails and committing other depredations. Then the company secured guards for the plant. It was as a red flag to a bull when they brought professional guards into Ohio from Pittsburgh and surrounded the plant the night the guards arrived. As always, there are conflicting reports about who started it, but there was an exchange of bullets, and for several hours that night, the plant was fired upon intermittently, and the fire was returned. The thing, however, that most offended against ordinary standards of civilization was when an attempt was made by company surgeons to bring two wounded guards out of the plant in order to remove them to a hospital. They were fired upon by the strikers and driven back into the plant. This was the day of most violence in the strike. After that the outcroppings of

lawlessness were spasmodic; but still of a sort that was utterly discreditable. And a grave feature in connection with the whole affair is that many of the union leaders appeared to condone this violence. They said to me "But look at what we were up against. See what the Steel Corporation did to us at Vandergrift and Apollo." I am going to tell about Vandergrift and Apollo for the same reason that I am telling about Martins Ferry, because the story is significant; but I do not regard one as an offset to the other. Nor did I later on, when I protested to an official of the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company against the Apollo outrage, and he said to me, "Yes, but look at what the union did to us at Martins Ferry."

That, however, is anticipating the story. At Martins Ferry a union man who was on strike waylaid a Negro on his way to work and began to beat him up. When the Negro was on his back on the ground, where he had been thrown, he drew a revolver and shot his assailant, who died next day. The nature of the case is pretty well indicated by the fact that after the Negro had been given a preliminary hearing in a white man's court he was not held for trial. But the union men made a martyr and a hero of the man he shot. They made his funeral the occasion for a labor demonstration, and then they raised funds to build a monument over his grave by selling his picture with his name and the words "Our Martyr," on a button. On the monument, which they unveiled last October with eulogistic speeches by union leaders, are the words "Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends."

Martins Ferry is but an incident in a conflict ages long. And so is any single fact that I may put down in this account. But Martins Ferry is also only an incident in a shorter, sharper, struggle, that between the United States Steel Corporation and labor. It was long before the midnight fusillade of December 3, 1909, that the United States Steel Corporation adopted its anti-union policies. In fact those policies date from

a time long prior to the formation of the corporation.

The Carnegie Steel Company maintains a Secret Service Department of which George K. Preston is head. It is an effective system, swift and certain in action, and is undoubtedly as effective as any of the various similar organizations maintained by the other companies. No one on the outside can tell just how it works, but workmen and union officials know well that it exists. No move can be made by workmen in the direction of collective activity without the officials knowing of it. No meeting can be held to discuss conditions of employment and ways of bettering them, without the Steel Corporation being furnished with a list of names of those who attended. It is this secret service that makes so effective the efforts of the Corporation to prevent the entrance of labor organizations.

Last fall Llewellen Lewis, a former vice-president of the Amalgamated Association, told me something that gave me some indication of this.

Lewis lives in Martins Ferry, Ohio. Across the river, in Wheeling, W. Va., the district manager for the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company used to have his home. Lewis said that the manager used to "kid" him because he always knew what the union was doing before Lewis did. A few years ago a wage convention was held at New Castle, Pa. Delegates from various locals were sent there to discuss the scale that the union was going to ask for. Lewis remained in Martins Ferry, but he had an understanding with a lieutenant that he was to be called up on the long distance telephone and told the result of the deliberations. Along in the afternoon, Lewis says he was called to the telephone by the tin plate manager, across the river in Wheeling and was told, not only what the wage scale was that had been agreed upon, but what the vote had been by locals. A few minutes afterwards, he was called up by his man in New Castle and was informed as to the result, which proved to be identical with the information that he had already received from the company manager.

It should be noted that the labor pol-

icy which gives motive to such surveillance is more than a non-union policy. It is more than an objection on the part of the company to that sort of activity which tends to hamper business; it is a denial of the right of an employe to any voice regarding the conditions of his employment. It is not so much unionism that is under the ban as it is freedom of action. Men have repeatedly been discharged at Homestead not for making unjust demands but for attempting to promote an organization whose possible demands could not have been known at the time the leaders were discharged. Within two years at Gary men have been discharged in large numbers, not for making unjust demands, not for trying to interfere in the business of the Illinois Steel Company, but because they attempted to form some sort of organization. So far as the company had information, and so far as any expression from the men was concerned, the organization that the men were attempting might have been for social purposes only. But the company took no chances, it discharged the men.

During the Pittsburgh Survey, I ran across cases where petitions gotten up by the men had been suppressed by local officials. In reviewing these instances in a conference at the headquarters of the United States Steel Corporation in New York, the chief officials expressed a willingness to receive such petitions sent directly to New York. An associate of mine thereupon wrote a department superintendent in a Pittsburgh mill suggesting that he draw up a petition asking for one day of rest in seven, and get his men to sign it and send it to the New York office. He was known to be opposed to seven-day labor and eager to see it abolished. This man was an important official drawing a large enough salary to have enabled him to accumulate property. His reply was that he did not want to be discharged and was not ready to resign, and that therefore he thought he would not circulate the petition. Since that time I have in a number of cases suggested in personal conversation with highly skilled and well-paid employes of the Steel Corporation who seemed to be dissatisfied with certain conditions of their employ-

ment, that they write to headquarters in New York. Their replies have invariably been similar to that of the Pittsburgh superintendent. Not one of them believed in the power of the New York office to protect him from his own immediate superiors.

These were cases during the ordinary "peaceful" operation of the industry. During the strike of 1909 in the sheet and tin mills, there was demonstrated at Apollo, Pa., the lengths to which the power of the Steel Corporation makes itself felt in a time of conflict. Apollo is just across the Kiskiminetas river from Vandergrift, where the largest plant of the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company is located. This was and is a non-union mill. Organizers of the Amalgamated Association went into the district and registered at a little hotel in Apollo called Park's Hotel. What followed was summed up in a local paper, the *Apollo Sentinel* on Friday, July 30, 1909, as follows:

Recently a number of men representing the Iron-workers Union were run out of Vandergrift and Vandergrift Heights. Failing to find shelter in either of those towns, they came to Apollo and have been endeavoring to organize the men, with headquarters at Apollo. The sentiment is strong against them among the business men of the community, and a large majority of the mill men are opposed to them, although they have a following among a few of the younger men. The organizers have been endeavoring to hold a mass meeting, but have been unable to secure a suitable place.

After failing to secure a building, they made an effort to hold an open air meeting, but have been unsuccessful in securing a lot. Thursday evening a citizens' meeting, including merchants and mill men, was held with the organizers and with Burgess Steele, and they were warned to leave the community.

I spent a few hours in Apollo in September, 1911, and talked with a number of business men, including Burgess Steele. The testimony was universal that the organizers behaved themselves and kept within the law, and yet the business men had held a meeting presided over by the Burgess (Mayor), for the purpose of warning these citizens to leave town. The organizers attempted to secure a building in which to hold meetings but no one would let them have a building. Finally they secured a vacant lot upon which to meet. Before

the time set the owner of the lot came and tried to give back the money that had been paid him for the lot, saying that he could not continue doing business in Apollo if a union meeting were held on his property.

Nevertheless, the meeting was held late in the afternoon. After it was over some strange things happened. Citizens of Apollo told me that a department superintendent in the Vandergrift mill came across the river at the head of a mob of men and ordered the organizers to leave town. T. J. Parks, proprietor of the little hotel where the men were stopping, told me that this man threatened to tear his hotel down if he did not force the organizers to leave. Exactly what happened after that I do not wish to attempt to say because there are conflicting reports, but Burgess Steele's statement is that he came down to the hotel and acted as intermediary between the superintendent and the organizers, and that he, Steele, got the organizers to agree to leave early the next morning. He carried this message back, to the steel mill superintendent he says, and then the latter went away. Steele also said that he went down to the hotel the next morning in company with a representative of the Steel Company to see to it that the men kept their promise. The superintendent in question who was last September still in the employ of the Steel Corporation, denies the whole story. There are, however, numerous affidavits in connection with the matter, making these and similar charges. Since the affair in 1909 Mr. Parks tells me that he has been unable to secure any steel workers as boarders at his hotel. About half a dozen who were boarding there at the time were obliged to leave.

Pennsylvania did not stand alone in the spectacle of the mayor of an American town lending the power of his office to drive out law abiding citizens who were offensive to the Steel Corporation. During the same strike that filled Apollo with excitement, Emmet Flood, an organizer of the American Federation of Labor who was assisting the Amalgamated Association men, was warned by the mayor of Morgantown W. Va. According to a Morgantown paper the mayor sent word to Flood

that "in view of his mission he was not wanted here and that his room was infinitely more desirable than his presence." He was further "warned that the feeling of hostility against union agitators was strong and that he would be safer out of Morgantown."

Nor did the Apollo conflict end with the incident I have related. It is reported by members of the Amalgamated Association that workmen at Vandergrift, Pa., across the river from Apollo, were threatened with discharge if they attended meetings addressed by union organizers. It is claimed that men were discharged because their wives attended such meetings. In the Journal of Proceedings of the Amalgamated Association for the year 1910, there is a statement signed by D. P. Boyer, which is in the form of an affidavit, sworn to by Boyer, who claimed to have worked for the American Sheet and Tin Plate Company for ten years previous. The statement follows:

When the A. F. of L. opened its meetings in Apollo, the men of the mills were forbidden to go to those meetings, but, however, my wife and my sister-in-law went, and because of this me and my brother-in-law were discharged. We were reported by a man that works for the steel company. This man is my neighbor. He and his wife watched the meetings of the federation, and then he would carry the report to the mills. If there are any evidence or figures wanted to back this up, I can furnish them. When I was discharged on September 16, 1909, there was no fault to find, only that I would not promise to keep my family away from the meetings of the Federation of Labor. This I would not do, and so I got my time.

These things indicate the attitude of the United States Steel Corporation toward labor. It is more than a spirit of protest against reckless and irresponsible unionism. It is more than a desire to keep the management of the business in the hands of responsible agents of the corporation. I could offer no reasonable criticism of a determined stand on those two points. But the Steel Corporation goes much farther than that. It fixes the labor contract without reference to the wishes of the other parties to it. Instead of a discussion and a "higgling" over the terms, the bargain is determined on in the offices of the party of the first part alone; and the

parties of the second part, if they are interested may find what it is they have agreed to by looking on a bulletin board. In its determination to manage "its own business" the Steel Corporation effectually denies to the workmen any right to look after their business. And having become immensely powerful through organization, the corporation makes it a crime, punishable by instant discharge, to make any move toward a counter organization of employees; although it is only by such an organization that the unfair advantage of the corporation can be balanced off.

In this respect the Steel Corporation does not differ a whit from the independents. In spite of welfare work, pensions, sociological departments and Sunday Schools, the real spirit of the steel companies of America is one of arrogance and contempt for the rights both of their employees and of the public insofar as the two are bound together. It indicates a desire to provide such working conditions as will keep the bodies of their workmen whole and such as will not subject them to disease. It indicates a desire to provide physical conditions that approach excellence; but it indicates on the other hand, a determination to rule at any cost. It is a policy that begins in a spirit of apparent benevolence and ends in a spirit that is in sinister opposition to democracy. It is a policy which, carried to its logical conclusion, means feudalism, and the denial to workmen of rights that must be regarded in America as fundamental.

It will not forever be safe to deny justice to American workmen. It will not forever be safe to deny it to immigrant workmen or to the children of immigrants. Nor does it avail meanwhile to cite instances of violence in labor disputes as a reason for repression. However unjustifiable an individual instance of violence may be, in the long run the inciters to violence are not the unscrupulous labor leaders. The only dangerous agitators are those who attempt to build an industry on a foundation of wages too low to admit of decent standards of family life, of hours too long to admit of proper rest or relaxation, and of silence and acquiescence as the price of a job.

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

VII

THE FAMILY: FIELD, FUNCTION, AND TRIBUTARY AGENCIES

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Nothing human is so identified with all that is divine as is the family. Like the sacrament itself, it is the visible sign of all the invisible sanctities of religion; the type of its relationships, Godward and manward; the mold in which both the form and spirit of the church were divinely purposed to be cast. Historically the family is the single source to which all the synagogues and temples of Judaism and all the churches of Christendom are to be traced. Wherever, like the sun's rays, their "lines have gone out throughout the earth and their words to the end of the world," they all converge in Abraham's household, and in "the church that was in their house" who first accepted the Christian evangel. The temple on Mount Zion strengthened the stakes and lengthened the cords of the patriarch's tent and of the tabernacle within which the nomad tribes shared with Jehovah, their God, "his rest." The portal through which Christianity found entrance to Europe was the open-hearted households of Lydia and the manly Roman jailer, who "believing in God with all his house," "was baptized, he and all his, straightway."

From so natural and ordinary and human a thing as the family, such a supernatural and extraordinary and divine a thing as religion sprang, and ever springs. It is difficult, if not impossible, to conceive of religion apart from the family. It is less difficult to think of reconstituting the human race, and the relations which make the race human, if it had to begin over again, without the church rather than without the home. Indeed, religion could more readily be reproduced from the family, if the church were lost, than it could be maintained by the church if the family were lost. Prior to, and the norm of, the church, the family is, therefore, the birthplace of religion. The parent is the first priest. The children

and household are the first congregation. The Holy Family is the great seal of Christianity. The mother and the child are its sign manual. The church was cradled in the manger at Bethlehem. The incarnation, for which that birth stands, is the all-inclusive, fundamental doctrine and experience of Christianity, allying it with the Old Testament tenet of the creation by one Creator.

Biologically, the family is the primary cell of the whole social organism. Church and state therefore exist more for the family than the family for either. In its very first function—the reproduction of life, the perpetuation of the race—the family shares the creative prerogative of the life-giver. It fulfills his fiat, "let us make man in our image." Through the family, as through no other human relationship, God continues to create male and female after his likeness to share his dominion. So the first act of religion is, or should be, to safeguard and promote the family in the fulfillment of its primary functions for the individual and social life.

The first of these is birth—the reproduction of the race. It is declared to be such both by nature and revelation. Strong as the sex impulse is, the parental instinct is shown to be deeper. Ethnologists since Westermarck¹ see this in the fact that the pairing of birds and the higher animals survives longer than the sex impulse lasts, and until offspring are born and come to self-support. In all normal beings, parentage roots deeper than passion. The religious emphasis upon reproduction is impressed and re-impressed, from the story of the creation, through the genealogies and heredities of Scriptures, to the prophetic vision of the heavenly city, "full of boys and girls playing in the streets thereof."

¹Westermarck, HISTORY OF HUMAN MARRIAGE.

Here upon the very threshold of the family and within its holy of holies we are met by the hard facts with which our modern civilization faces the fulfillment of this primary family function. The cost of living in relation to the reproduction of life, the restriction of the birth-rate and excessive infant mortality over against the divine blessing upon birth, the over-work of women nullifying motherhood, child labor stealing from the race its play-time and its years for growth, bad housing and inhuman city administration making good homes impossible, sex perversions and exploitations substituting sacrilege for the sanctity of marriage and parentage—these are as essentially the problems of religion and the church as of the economic and political sciences, as of legislation and statesmanship. For generation conditions regeneration. The first birth very certainly limits the promise and the effect of the "second birth." Religion can serve its own ends no more surely or highly than to assure every child a better chance to be born aright the first time so that it may be reborn more surely and to higher purpose.

It was a clergyman of the church of England, the Rev. Thomas Robert Malthus, who, in 1798, made the first thorough attempt to relate the birth-rate to ough attempt to relate the birth-rate to the food-supply.¹ His motive was the causes which impede the progress of mankind toward happiness, the chief is the constant tendency in all animated life to increase beyond the nourishment prepared for it."

Although his statistics by which he sought to establish mathematically the ratio between the increase of the birth-rate and that of the food supply were abandoned by the author himself as untrustworthy, and although some of his arguments have been superseded by the criticisms of other economists,² this fundamental "Malthusian" relation between birth and food is so vital that it persists, not only in the discussions of the economists, but among the most serious practical problems involving marriage and family life.

The initiative thus given to scientific inquiry into the propagation of the race is now proceeding from a negative to a positive basis and aim. Daunted by what seemed at first to be a fixed limit to the sustenance of life, Malthus over-emphasized the dependence for progress upon the checks on the increase of population—famine, war, disease, vice, and the restraints of intelligence and the moral sense. It remained for Annie Besant, nearly a century later, publicly to justify and advocate personally applied artificial checks upon the increase of the family. The little volume in which she did this bore the title, *The Law of Population, Its Consequences, and Its Bearing upon Human Conduct and Morals*, and was circulated in many cheap editions among all classes of British people, especially the poor of East London, with such unexpectedly evil results that the authoress herself withdrew the booklet from circulation.

From this negative attitude of despair, inquiries at last are turning toward a positive attitude and a constructive purpose. But even yet the very consciousness and recognition of the human right to be born aright is being evolved through the pressure of the burden imposed by the deficient upon the efficient.³

The new science of eugenics wisely places its first and greatest emphasis upon the necessity and practicability of preventing parentage among the unfit. It claims that the segregation of the feeble-minded and epileptic under proper public care will prevent the reproduction of nine-tenths of the unfit. It further asserts that defects and inefficiency due to social conditions might well-nigh be eliminated by effective protection from race poisons due to vice-diseases, alcohol, and some occupational infections. If "the groundwork of a real science of heredity" is confessed to be as yet "not sufficient to justify any active measures to guide the parenthood of the worthy," the possibilities of positive measures are nevertheless the hope of these pioneers who are pa-

¹Malthus, *ESSAY ON THE PRINCIPLE OF POPULATION*.

²Hadley, *ECONOMICS*, pp. 41-51.

April 6, 1912.

³NEW TRACTS FOR THE TIMES: *Newsholme, DECLINING BIRTHRATE*; *Salisbury, METHOD OF RACE-REGENERATION*; *Ellis, PROBLEM OF RACE-REGENERATION*; *THE SURVEY*, March 2, 1912, Symposium, *RIGHT TO BE WELL-BORN*.

tiently investigating the way toward this new human advance.¹

Some noteworthy practical recognitions have already been given this movement of scientists from unexpected quarters. The American stock breeders' faith in the success of their own efforts to improve the breed of animals is sufficient to inspire them to add a department of eugenics to the investigational work of their effective association. The first legislative recognition of a eugenic public policy was given by the British parliamentary measures of 1909, providing for a "maternity benefit" in the industrial insurance act, and the remission of 7s. 6d. for every child from the income tax upon the head of each family.

The first ecclesiastical body to act with practical effect to this end is the Episcopal Cathedral at Chicago. With the approval of Bishop Charles P. Anderson, Dean Walter T. Sumner announces that no persons will be married there who do not present to the clergy a certificate from a reputable physician certifying that they are physically and mentally normal and have neither incurable nor communicable disease. In answering this decision Dean Sumner well says: "Surely one has only to make a survey of conditions as they exist today to be aroused to do something that there shall not be left in the wake of married life sterility, insanity, paralysis, blinded eyes of little babes, the twisted limbs of deformed children, physical rot and mental decay."

The combined efforts of religion, education, and economics are nowhere seen to be so necessary to the safety of the individual, the protection and promotion of the family, and the progress of the race as in the regulation of sex relationships and the control of the birth-rate.² Economic statistics of the cost of living and of the ratio of births to it avail little without the sex education of the individual and the religious motive power behind that. Indeed, economic conditions ad-

verse to family life always increase the temptations of men to gratify sex impulse outside of family relations, multiply illegitimate births, and result in desertions of wives and children and ever more divorces. Educational efforts have only begun to be made through literature and school instruction on sex hygiene. As yet a very small proportion of youth are thus informed and safeguarded. Even such attempts as are made are due principally to philanthropic and religious impulses and agencies. How to introduce this delicate, difficult, and dangerous subject in our schools safely and effectively is a question that is still doubtfully and hesitatingly considered. It can and should be done. But however well it may be attempted in the schools, or through literature, it will be more than offset by adverse conditions in the home life of pupils and can effect little without parental co-operation with teachers. So the school and the printed page, however helpful, are not adequate of themselves. Only the family is closely and constantly enough in contact with the adolescent girl and boy to assure their training for self-control. But as a matter of fact, any direct and effective family effort to this end is sadly exceptional, and such as is attempted is almost always made under the stress of religious duty. If therefore either the home or the school do their duty in this respect, it will be due mainly to the initiative and impulse of religion. But religion must seek other than ecclesiastical agencies to do this most personal and yet vitally public work. Through its Sunday schools and parochial schools, through its pastors and father confessors, the church may do much. But it requires the best efforts of statesmanship, education, industry, and religion to do the much more that needs to be done, in order to train not only every child, but adults as well; to influence parents and home conditions; to repress vice, and protect youth and the family from it; to maintain and develop economic conditions favorable to early marriage, and working conditions at least compatible with and not destructive of family life; and to secure such local and rational administration of government as

¹Saleeby. PARENTHOOD AND RACE CULTURE; Hobhouse. SOCIAL EVOLUTION AND POLITICAL THEORY, pp. 13-79 on "Progress and the Struggle for Existence" and "Value and Limitations of Eugenics."

²The American Federation for Sex Hygiene is the central agency for promoting and correlating all these efforts: Dr. Charles W. Elliot, president, and Charles W. Birtwell, secretary, 29 West 42d street, New York city.

will make every neighborhood, town, city, state, and nation a federation of families.¹

In such fellowships, families thus federated will bring into closest co-operation the voluntary and official agencies of each local community; of infant welfare work, with departments of health; of juvenile courts and their probation officers with juvenile protective associations;² of child-helping and home finding societies with the legal supervision of all dependent and delinquent children by state boards of charities, county courts, public guardians, police departments, and judges of juvenile courts.

To fulfill its function in the nurture of child life and in the development of the adult through the fellowships, rest, and recuperation of home life, the family needs the most intimate and active co-operation of school and neighborhood, local government and church. The child is not fully born until it comes to years of discretion. The law does not regard the minor as a full-fledged individual. It holds the parent responsible for the child and appoints a guardian to take the parents' place when it is vacated, perverted, or abandoned. The child's breach of the law is considered "delinquency" and is no longer classified as "criminal," like that of the adult. Dr. Horace Bushnell³ well describes the child as held in the "parental matrix" of the home during the years of its minority. So vital and inevitable is the "law of the organic unity of the family" which he profoundly interprets and practically applies that he is justified by human experience in claiming the most potent influence over character to be that of the family life, which is unconsciously exerted and involuntarily received, especially during the first seven years of a child's life. Then the child becomes more like what the home life is than like what we tell the growing boy or girl to be. This fact either furthers or hinders the work of both school and

church, teacher and pastor, accordingly as the family either promotes or hinders the efforts of these. On the other hand, the family needs the help of both school and church, teacher and pastor, law and government, in protecting and promoting the development of the child and of the home life which shapes it. The sanctity of marriage and the restriction of divorce, upon which the existence of the home depends, can be assured only as marriage is hallowed by religion and as it is defended by the law from wanton divorce and desertion. Teachers and pastors, legislators and public officials should consider themselves as assistants to parents in the defense and upbuilding of the home and should be selected, recognized, and used by them as such. Public health officers and sanitary inspectors should be considered as more constantly serving every family than the family physician. The school, with its provisions for instruction and play, is the public annex added to every private house. The public park, playground, and recreation center are extensions of every family's backyard or walled-in inner court. The juvenile court and its probation officers, the parental school for truants and the reform school for delinquents are the state-appointed helpers to parents, to aid them in the discipline of their children, or to take the parents' place when they fail.

If the nurture of child life therefore is the prerogative of religion as truly as it is that of the family, then the church as surely as the home has the most vital interest and imperative duty in securing such public funds and officials as will make school and park systems, health and police departments, laws and courts tributary to and not subversive of the normal nurture of the child. Pastor and Sunday school teacher should exercise watch and care over these public provisions for fostering the health, intelligence, recreation, and morals of the children as vigilantly as they do their work within the church.

The kind and degree of influence exerted by the home are conditioned by the house. For the house not only shelters but shapes the family life for better or for worse. Better or worse housing makes all the difference between

¹The Chicago Vice Commission's Report on THE SOCIAL EVIL IN CHICAGO, presents facts and recommendations on the economic, family and parental, educational and recreative, sanitary, legislative, and police aspects of vice, based on the most thorough investigation of conditions that has ever been made by any municipality. As this report is out of print, copies cannot be obtained.

²See reports of the Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago (800 South Halsted St.).

³Bushnell, CHRISTIAN NURTURE.

normal, abnormal, or sub-normal lives; between decency and modesty, where space enough is allowed, and indecency and immodesty, where overcrowding crowds out self-respect. Wherever shop work is taken into the house, normal family life is crowded out of it. When wives and mothers work away from home, housekeeping and the children pay the penalty.¹ Transient rental of furnished rooms strips the family of the last vestige of home equipment. Taking boarders into overcrowded family apartments destroys family unity and privacy, interferes with marital and parental confidences, almost always imperils virtue and very often destroys it.

What therefore can be more domestic or religious than to secure the proper housing of families such as will make homes possible and successful? Should the sanctuary of the church be more sacred to its worshippers than their duty to secure right building ordinances and efficient building departments, garden cities, industrial villages, and decent lodging houses for family-less men and women? Should not every church, or local group of churches, be considered by their members as housing reform associations and play-ground promoters, just as legitimately as associations of commerce are regarding this to be their function? Was there ever a more monumental attestation of the religious quality of a public service than characterizes the framing and enactment of the new tenement house law of New York, which let no less than a million people out of dark

and unventilated apartments into the light and air guaranteed them by the "new law tenements"?²

If, as we have seen,³ the family furnishes the terms and types by which are revealed our relations to God and each other, then the preservation and development of the family is our primary religious duty. For how can religion itself be preserved and developed if the earthly type of it is lowered or lost? How can we even pray "Our Father which art in heaven," if earthly fatherhood lacks all human suggestion of the divine? If we become so evil that we know not how to give good gifts unto our children, can we measure up "how much more" our Father which is in heaven gives good things to them that ask him? "My father's house" can mean little more than is homelike in another world than it does in this world. "The whole family in heaven" cannot fail to mean less to one who has suffered from a divided home on earth.

So the family is not more dependent upon religion than religion is upon the family. The hope of the one is identified with that of the other. Therefore all that pertains to family life and promotes it is as religious as religion itself.

²de Forest and Veller, *THE TENEMENT HOUSE PROBLEM*.

³*THE SURVEY*, March 2, 1912, p. 1833. Religion of Human Relationships.

[THIS IS THE SEVENTH OF PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH ARE RUNNING IN *THE SURVEY* THROUGHOUT THE MEN AND RELIGION CAMPAIGN. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I. LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II. THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16; III. PERSONALITY A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE, JANUARY 6; IV. THE CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE, JANUARY 20; V. CHANGING CONDITIONS OF A WORKING FAITH, FEBRUARY 3; VI. THE RELIGION OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS, MARCH 2.]

¹Breckenridge and Abbott, *FAMILIES IN FURNISHED ROOMS*. Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy study.

THE "FORWARD MOVEMENT"

FRED. B. SMITH

MEN AND RELIGION CAMPAIGN LEADER

As the closing weeks of the eventful campaign of the Men and Religion Movement approaches, the era of the philosopher will begin with his scientific investigation into the "why" of it.

Taken in its entirety it has surpassed the expectations of its greatest friends. The *ideal* has been exploited and cannot be rubbed out. Years may be necessary before the religious organizations will be prepared to adopt fully the curriculum, but it will be a sad hour for any that stolidly refuse to reconstruct.

The *method* was unique for the movement based its primary effort upon educational functions rather than inspirational or converting ones. From the very beginning the "institutes" were made the central feature and at least 58,000 men have been in attendance at these sessions as students of better methods.

It was also different in that it proposed, by its auxiliary town plan, to make the whole continent feel the awaking of the central cities. Here again marked success has been reported. From the seventy-five convention cities, deputations have gone out to adjacent towns till about 1,500 local campaigns have been held.

There has also been compelling power in the direct insistent attack upon the peculiar man-and-boy-problem—the lack of which has been the point of criticism in a good many such efforts heretofore. With 3,000,000 more women and girls in churches of the country than men and boys, the whole movement voiced this specific masculine call.

Crediting every other element duly, that which has attracted most attention has been the breadth and scope of the message. Religious education has been fully exemplified in the tremendous place given to work for Boys and Bible study. "Missions" as a principle has been set forth with no geographical lines pitting "Home" against "Foreign." The necessity of individual regeneration has never been neglected or omitted, but with equal power the possibilities of community regeneration have been preached as that doctrine was never before declared to any people. The variety of these themes opened at once channels of interest which could not have been possible if any of them had been taken alone.

There has followed ever increasingly the growing sense that after all these are not competing ideas which for convenience the advocates had agreed should be presented from one platform for a while, but rather that they are *one*.

Prophecy as to the religious program of the coming years may surely forecast that the gospel which contemplates bringing the individual to a confession of religion will not be based upon a back-handed attack upon the social forces, and likewise the social worker will have less to say of the out-of-date individualists. The home missionary preacher will be less tempted to say there are "heathen enough at home" and therefore we need not take part in tasks in the non-Christian world. In the same measure the apostle of the romance of a world conquest will seem less inclined to belittle the prosaic home tasks as not being big enough to command the attention of strong men. That which the Men and Religion Forward Movement will have perfected, and perhaps that realm in which it will serve, in the greatest way, the coming of the Kingdom is that it has enlarged the curriculum of actual Christian service in which men can engage. Some things are now called Christian work that were hitherto branded as secular. No better summary has been heard throughout the whole year concerning the significance of the movement than one given by a pastor in a southern city when he said that the result of the Men and Religion Forward Movement was that the church now has a definite responsibility for anything that takes place in the town from what is to be found in the tin cans in the alley to the kind of chimes in the tower.



RAYMOND ROBINS

More than twenty cities will have been visited by Mr. Robins and the other members of Men and Religion Team No. 3 when he opens the New York campaign at 4 o'clock the afternoon of Sunday, April 14, in the Hippodrome, which has a seating capacity of 5,600. Two hundred and fifty Protestant churches in New York are co-operating.

SERMONS ON SOCIAL SERVICE

RAYMOND ROBINS

BEING STENOGRAPHIC REPORTS OF PARTS OF THE ADDRESSES DELIVERED
EACH WEEK FOR TWENTY-SIX WEEKS BY MR. ROBINS AS SOCIAL
SERVICE MEMBER OF TEAM NO. 3 OF THE MEN
AND RELIGION FORWARD MOVEMENT

The Men and Religion campaign was based on the belief that Christ came to save not only man but men—society.

Mr. Robins's message of service was strongest in its clear-cut statement of the paramount importance to-day of the industrial problem.

He believes that the church is the natural and the greatest agency for approaching this problem in a spirit of understanding and of working it out democratically after the manner of the Carpenter of Nazareth who came "not to tear down but to fulfil."

SOCIAL SERVICE AND THE GOSPEL: TO 1,500 MEN SUNDAY AFTERNOON IN A THEATRE

Has social service any place in the gospel of Christ? Did he care anything about redeeming society? Did he extend his gospel out beyond the personal appeal? Why, the most social thing in all the world is the gospel of Jesus Christ. It is the most humanly social thing, as well as the most divinely true thing. You remember how he began, don't you? He began with folk. He entrusted the message to the common, ordinary, garden variety of men. Did you ever think about those apostles and disciples and that gathering that followed him? You remember one of them was a lawyer. Think of starting out to save the world with a lawyer! And yet, my brothers, you will never save this world without the lawyers. You will never bring in the kingdom of God, or the community commonwealth, or any other vision that is in your mind, without the lawyers. I know a lawyer who has taken the time out of his great practice, for months at a time, to argue in the Supreme Courts of other states of this country, to limit the hours of working women so that those women might not be forced to surrender their right share to a decent hu-

man life while they earn their bread, and I bear testimony that Louis D. Brandeis is helping to bring in the kingdom of God.

But Jesus went that lawyer one better. He started to save the world with a politician. Matthew was sitting in the receipt of custom, and he would never have held that political job if he had not been able to bring in the delegates. It was a meaner political job than any you have got in Buffalo, for he was taking tribute from his own people to pay to foreign masters. Yet Jesus called him. And then he had two other men, two of the best of them, who wanted to know which seat they were going to have before they went on the Committee of One Hundred. In other words, they wanted to know what was "in it" for them, what seat they were going to get at the pie counter. Got any folk like that in Hartford? One of those men was so cowardly that, in the hour of the Master's greatest need, he denied Him three times. One of them was a liar, a thief, a traitor.

Why, you can get twelve as good men as that in any church in any city, and start out to save the city, without wait-

ing a minute. Go right on and begin your work. You don't have to wait for better men to be born. All we have to do is to work with the men at our side, and to believe a little bit in the generous good-will that underlies all our human life more or less and directs the thought and purpose of mankind.

Did Jesus care about bread? There are a good many folk that quote that line of Scripture of the Word, "Man does not live by bread alone," as if Jesus did not care about bread. Now, man does *not* live by bread *alone*, but he lives *by* bread, and Jesus knew it. You don't get cant and humbug and sham out of Jesus Christ. There never has been a priest, layman, bishop, cardinal, or pope, in 1900 years, who thought he could preach a better sermon than the Master preached. And yet, you may remember that one time, after Jesus had preached to a big crowd of folk, out on a hillside, a long way from town, a long way from the kitchen, the disciples were afraid they would be hungry and make trouble. So they came back to him and said, "Lord, there is a big bunch out here, and the first thing you know we will have trouble. May they depart? Don't keep them here till they get too hungry." Then was the time, if any, in the whole history of the human race, that the people should have been spiritually fed, so that their bellies did not make them hungry. If ever man was to get out of spiritual food something that would answer instead of bread and beef, that was the time. But you get no single line of humbug out of Jesus. Did he say: "They have just heard one of the great sermons of history, let them be filled with spiritual food and not think about anything to eat"? No. He used that divine power that came down out of heaven, to make bread and fish in sufficient quantity to feed the multitude.

Did He care about common, simple, human, social joy in the world? Let us see. Any of you people who worry about miracles, put your worry under the seat. Forget it. I want you to get the spirit here. I am not after the letter that kills. I am after the spirit that gives life. Jesus was one day in Cana of Galilee, an immortal little place be-

cause He was there. There was a wedding feast, a group of poor peasants, I imagine, because the wine gave out. Probably a good many more folk had come than they had expected. Jesus was there and there was a desire to fulfil the joy and promise of the little feast, and He turns water into wine. The Master fulfilled the perfect joy of the wedding feast. You will search in vain to find a single trite phrase, a single moral pointed—not one. He dared to believe that the deed and the doing of it savors of worth, that the fact has a value apart from the fame.

What happened there? He had only three years in which to change the thought of the world—and he did it. Go back, if you will, through those nineteen hundred years and walk through those Galilean hills with Him. You will find infanticide in the capitals of the world; you will find old men murdered when they were through being serviceable to other people; you will find women chattels; and you will find labor in chains. Since that time, behind every movement for human liberty, behind every movement for human service, you will find men working in the spirit of the Galilean Peasant. Some of them deny his name and yet work with the formula that He alone brought into the world. He had only three years to perform that tremendous task. Was He wasting His time that day in Cana of Galilee? Jesus knew that that man and that woman would have the common burdens of married life, would meet the strife and strain. Down along the road there would come a time when the thorns and rocks were many, and the woman might wonder whether it was worth while, and the man might wonder whether those vows really amounted to much; and in that hour they would be held to the old faith because of the perfect joy at Cana in Galilee, when the Lord fulfilled the simple beauty of a marriage feast, and they took high pledge to God, to each other, and to their fellow-men. That high pledge will hold them when the strain comes.

Did Jesus preach a social gospel? Oh, I covet that great power of the imagination that will lift you up and carry you



A SHOP MEETING AT NOON.

Workingmen in large numbers have formed some of the most interested audiences in every city visited.

back nineteen hundred years into the old Temple. I want you to hear—can you hear it?—that old cry, the rising and the falling of it? Have you ever heard a mob? I have. There it is, that shout, that long cadence. And there, before the portal of the old Temple, the mass gathers, and before them they press into the Temple the shrinking form of a woman. There are high men of Jerusalem, leaders of society, masters of the game, and behind them the rabble, hungry for blood as of old. The Master turns, as the record runs, and looks on the temple floor and writes in the sand. I do not know why he looked at the floor; I do not know why he wrote in the sand. But I know a great many of the helpless women of the underworld. I know them in their bitterness, and I know them in their heartbreak. I know them in their vicious relationships to life, and I know them in their hungering moments after the old vision that is gone forever. And I have sometimes thought that the Master felt at that moment the conscious sense of shame, the shame for you and me, shame for all of His sex who, through all the ages, have had a share in

the downward going of every woman that has ever lost her way.

He writes upon the sand. Some strong, proud man, sure of his own personal rectitude, steps forth and says: "The woman is guilty. The evidence is ample. The law of Moses is that such should be stoned to death. What say you?" Ah, my friends! what a trial! what a tribunal! what a cause! what a judge! And over nineteen hundred years of time rings the most tremendous social judgment ever handed down by the greatest judge that ever spoke among men: "Let the man that is without sin among you cast the first stone." And you know how the record runs: "They went out, from the greatest even unto the least, leaving no one remaining." And then: "Woman, doth no man condemn thee?" "No man, Lord." "Neither do I condemn thee. Go thou and sin no more."

Was that judgment for Jerusalem alone, or does it run with vital power and convicting truth to-day in New York and in Chicago? Aye, in any city where an anti-social and an unfair wage is paid to the daughters of the poor and they cannot divorce themselves from vice and

crime because of want and need, as their stumbling steps pass on through the hard day's toil, long hours, and little pay. Answer on your conscience. I want your thoughts, I want your hearts, if I am worthy of them.

Did Jesus care about food and clothes and shelter, the fundamental needs of all life everywhere; on which the temple of the mind is built, on which the glorious power of the spiritual purpose rests finally, back on this plain foundation of the common things? That scene of the judgment day gives you the thought of the Master upon the common things of life. Here we are, a lot of us together, not in the Star Theater, but in the final round-up, if you please, speaking in the language of the plains. We are all there, and the old imagery of the East among pastoral folk is used by the Master. He always spoke simply, in language that all men could understand. They are gathered before Him, and they are divided into the sheep and the goats. The sheep are over here on the right hand. Do you know why they are sheep? "I was sick and ye visited me; I was hungry and ye fed me; I was thirsty and ye gave me to drink; I was in prison and ye came unto me; I was a stranger and ye took me in; I was naked and ye clothed me." And I can imagine over here in the group of sheep an old Italian peasant woman, a Christian of the old land, a woman who has been at more births, at more deaths, at more rejoicings and festivals and weddings, than any other soul in all the Seventeenth Ward of Chicago—old Aunt Lena. And I imagine Aunt Lena sitting there very uncomfortably because she is honest; she did not want to be with the sheep even under false pretenses, and she finally gets the Lord's eye, and she stands up, and tears are streaming down her old wrinkled face as she says: "Master, I would like to be with the sheep, but prophets never came where I lived. I lived down in the Seventeenth Ward. My little rear tenement opened on an alley and only garlick-smelling Italians lived around there. I never had a chance to do anything for you." And then, through nineteen hundred years, those searching words of Jesus: "Inasmuch as

you did it unto the least of these you did it unto me."

Then, brothers, lest nineteen hundred years afterward you and I should take the word for the deed, should take the letter that kills for the spirit that lives, lest we should take the name for the reality and the symbol and the form for the actual achievement, Jesus puts it into the simple negative form.

Over here, among the goats, is the president of the 'steenth National Bank of Chicago, Mr. Bill Smith. Bill is very much worried because he has always been called "the Honorable William Smith," and he is a very important person, and whenever prophets came to town, if he knew they were prophets and if they had enough money, he got an automobile and took them around. They had something in his line he would like to have. Here are the goats. And he knows the Lord has made a terrible mistake when the Lord did not recognize him. He wants to set the Lord right, and he finally gets up, and he says: "Master, I am William Smith, of the 'steenth National Bank of Chicago, and I have entertained eleven prophets in my home, and I have given banquets for them everywhere, and here you have got me with the goats." Awful, isn't it? And through nineteen hundred years, you that have got ears to hear can hear the judgment of Jesus Christ: "Bill Smith, of the 'steenth National Bank, inasmuch as you thought only of the strong and powerful, inasmuch as you cared only for the credit of prophets, inasmuch as ye did it not to these least, ye did it not to me."

Now there you are. Not a word about prayer, not a word about doctrine, not a word about going to church. The whole issue of final life or death rests in the eternal relationships of men, upon the way you deal with your fellow man, and upon the way that you treat the least of us in terms of our simplest human needs.

Do you people believe in democracy? Do you believe in the fundamental growth of the life and hope of the people? Do you believe in the virtue and power packed in the great common life—that group of toil, that disinherited host,



WITHOUT A FLASHLIGHT.

At the opening meeting of the Pittsburgh campaign, Mr. Robins held an audience of 3,500 men so quiet that Frank E. Bingaman, photographer for the *Gazette-Times*, was able to take a time exposure. Mr. Bingaman put his camera on the edge of the stage—the Sunday mass meetings are held almost invariably in theaters—opened the shutter for 60 seconds, and took his picture by the light from the electric bulbs. So far as he knows, a time exposure of so large an indoor audience has never been taken before.

who, through all the ages, have fed and housed and clothed the world and have not ever gotten too much for doing it? Do you believe in that? Jesus was crucified on the cross. His own people, part of the great common life of Jerusalem, clamored for His crucifixion. He was the fulfillment of five hundred years of Messianic prophesy. He had borne witness, a great leader and teacher, and now His own people repudiate Him, and He is dying there on the tree, the life is passing, and this final testimony He gives: "Father, forgive them, they know not what they do." Oh, my brothers, are you doubtful of the common life? Have you served it so nobly and so unselfishly that when it repudiates you you have a better record than Jesus had? Can you say that the people who are ignorant and have bad leaders do not want what is right? No, not if you believe in Christianity. The last words of Jesus on the cross, or among those last words, are the great vindication, the sign manual of democracy, of the final purpose toward righteousness, that there is in the great common life all the way through—

misled by leaders, yes, betrayed by those in high responsibility. Yes, time and again, through the everlasting centuries, that has been true, but the great common life seeks righteousness, hungers after the more excellent way.

This is the great hour in our nation's life. There is more strain in our social, political, and industrial order than ever before—a great breaking in the old groups, the very pillars bent with the strain. Can I have you see it for a moment? Can I have you feel that, unless the reality of Christ's gospel is sounded forth, men are to suffer a division that means defeat and failure, a division that will seek to group them into two classes, each looking into the other's eyes with bitter hatred, with old animosities, unwilling to approach each other, unwilling to believe well of even the best of each? Out of that condition comes no progress anywhere. Out of that condition neither the kingdom of God nor the community commonwealth can ever dawn. It is not given to men to make progress through hate. It is not given in the life of the world that there should

be all just men on any side. It has never been so. It doubtless will not be. But now there is power enough left in the life of men, fairminded, of every group, to work out the problems of our national life in terms of the great Galilean who said He "came not to destroy but to fulfil." The overcoming evil with good is the everlasting method of true human progress. May we dare hope for it yet? May just men of every group and place and name yet stand together, seeking to meet the issues of our great national life?

May I say as one who came out from the group of toil, as one who has dared to believe in that group and yet believes in it as the final basis of hope in this republic—may I say that not to any one group is the destiny of the republic committed? Historically that is true. There was a time in the beginning of our national life when there was a leader that we will all admit was worthy among men. We do not idealize him, as some foolish folk do, but George Washington was a real man. He was the richest man in Virginia. He had the most acres. He had the largest resources. He gave it all into the life of America for human liberty, for human justice. That is the story of the morning of the Republic's life. But there is another hour, when a great strain came again, when the final question, might the Republic endure, was before men. Who this time? Why out from the common life, out from those ranks where all the burdens of poverty and toil rest heavily, there came that great commoner, that plain, rugged-visaged son of the soil and of labor, Lincoln; and he stood, my brothers, I believe, as the noblest and highest expression of incarnate democracy, of the common life, glorified by a great social mission, a man who has always seemed to me, after the Galilean Peasant, to hold in his life and to witness forth the noblest spirit that has ever lived among men. And those two lives, one out of privilege, one out of labor, but each a free man, made the great contribution to our national life. May we not yet hope that America will move on in the spirit of the best in all our life? That we

may dare to believe that you cannot save America without the working man and that you cannot save America without the employer, that both have got to share in the reconstructive forces of our modern life?

And finally, the hour is *now*. I know of what I speak. I have known the strain of laboring twelve hours a day for a dollar a day in the mines in the old South. I know what it is to walk from town to town, ready to work and no chance to labor. You can make more enemies of society in six months of unemployment like that than you can make in a hundred years of argument. I know this strain. I know that time when God is far away and Christianity is a name and it seems as if the whole thing was a sham and a lie.

In the spring of 1898, I stood on a cliff looking out over Behring Sea. Icebergs had come down from the Arctic Ocean and piled in on the shore, the sea itself was frozen for three miles out. They have a great cold up there in the far North, doing the same magic that great heat does down in the desert. As we looked across those icebergs in the frozen sea we saw on the low horizon, lifted up there, as it were, by a mirage, the cliffs of Siberia, that old East from which our fathers came, going forth on that pilgrimage to the western frontier, across western Asia, thence to eastern Europe, thence to the western edge of Europe, and thence across the Atlantic to the seaboard, and then pushing west through the Alleghenies, the Mississippi, the wide prairies, the Rocky Mountains, until finally the feet of the pioneers met the waves of the Pacific. Then that great western movement to escape the old religious, political and industrial oppressions stops for awhile. But in 1897 we took up that line of march again and threw it over the great Rockies in the far North until we looked into Behring Sea on the west and the Arctic Ocean on the north.

It is over, it is done, to-night. As you sit here in your seats, population is turning back upon itself. The eager-hearted boy in the village, on the farm, and the eager-hearted girl, full of ambition and



RAYMOND ROBINS'S FIRST PULPIT.

While a gold miner in Alaska, Mr. Robins was converted. He helped organize and build the St. Bernard's Congregational Church at Nome, and the miners unanimously elected him their first minister. The picture shows the pulpit, the rough wooden walls, the camp chairs and the kerosene lamps which made up this first house of worship in Nome.

the old quest that sent our fathers west, is thinking of the great cities of San Francisco, New York, Buffalo, the mill towns of the nation. And they are coming, thousands strong—not only they, but the immigrants, speaking all languages, with all the old habits of thought of all the old nations of the world. As they meet the end of the frontier line where it stops, there the strain is greatest, there the pressure is most intense. There we find hours and wages, the American working standard, breaking down—the men and boys and girls breaking down under the strain of a pitiless and materialistic attitude toward life; the church receding from the place where the strain is greatest; and all the power that breaks human life centering there as though it were master over man.

Brothers, you can meet the test with the whole Gospel that dares to know all life and to call nothing common or unclean that concerns a human soul. That

was the Gospel the Galilean preached. He believed in redeemed men, in a redeemed society, and you cannot keep men redeemed any other way. He meant that that great host perishing in the city districts, lodging houses, in the crowded areas, in the tenement districts, should not perish—and whether they do or not rests upon you. You can go forward with that Gospel of power that will serve all life until every little disinherited child in every city of the land is a call to every man who names the name of Jesus Christ, a call to use the whole power of church and state and industry to guarantee to every little child an opportunity, at least, for a decent physical life, for a reasonable education, and for such surroundings in its youth as will leave it with the right to a free moral choice when it is grown. God help us to be worthy of the hour, worthy of the faith, worthy of the possibilities of life.

DEMOCRACY IN INDUSTRY THE PROBLEM OF OUR DAY: TO ALL WHO WORK

The third great problem in western civilization, the problem of industrial relationships, has now come to the front of affairs for settlement. This is not because it is of first consequence, because it is not. But because the other problems of religious liberty and civil liberty are settled substantially, we must now engage in the industrial struggle throughout western civilization. It bulks large in Germany under the empire today; it is of significance in republican France; it is the first problem in the democratic monarchy of England; it is engaging the consideration of the Czar; in the United States, in Canada, all over western civilization, it has invaded platform and press, pulpit and rostrum, wherever men are gathered together. We need not discuss it on the side of production, for the modern organization of society has practically solved that. The problem of distribution is the form that the industrial problem takes of moment to you and to me.

The first great cause of the industrial struggle, in my judgment, is that for the first time in the history of western civilization production is practically entirely for profit. We used to produce for use. Now we practically produce for profit. That makes, of course, the wage situation, the relation of employer and worker; the whole modern industrial problem grows up, as it were, from production for profit rather than production for use. I do not mean to say that production for profit is for that reason undesirable; in fact, I regard the truth of the matter to be the other way; but it is a reason for the problem.

Take another cause that is more apparent. We have reached the close of the frontier in this generation. Today population is turning back upon itself. Not only are our own children coming up from the small villages and the farms into the great cities and mill towns, pressing against standards of hours and wages, the opportunities for employment; but also the foreigners are coming

from the Old World into this country and filling up the cities and mill towns. Now, that frontier line, as long as it existed, was a point of escape from social pressure—industrial, religious, political; a man had a way of escape so that conditions in mill towns and cities could not become too intolerable. There was a continual lightening of the social pressure, and the pressure on hours and wages and working conditions.

Another reason is that within this generation in which we are living there has been a practical transformation from personal ownership of employing capital into corporate ownership of employing capital. In the old days in the mill town the master and man lived in what might be said to be a homogeneous community. The children of the employer and the children of the workers went to the same public school; attended the same church; their wives knew each other; the employer knew his men by their first names; there was a personal relationship; and our human nature is such that no man, no matter what his disposition is, can be quite as indifferent to the reasonable demands of men whom he knows and of men whose wives and children know his wife and children. So there was a constant interplay of the personal and moral relations between the employer and his workmen. Today the tendency is to change personal ownership into a corporate form for employing capital, and to divorce the personal, the moral, relations of your employer from effective relation to the labor conditions. You say you know men who live under the old conditions, who have the same relationship with their men that men used to have fifty years ago. So do I. But that exception simply proves the rule. The individual ownership of employing capital today simply marks a left-over in the general tide of industries; each year there is more and more transformation, and more and



TEAM NO. 3.

The Men and Religion Forward Movement is organized in four teams, each holding a campaign a week. Team No. 3, has been through the whole Middle West, parts of New York and New England, the Pacific Coast and the Southwest. When it finishes its work in April it will have visited twenty cities and traveled about 14,225 miles.

The members of the team, left to right, are:

Front row, Warren L. Bunger, of the United Brethren Brotherhood, whose subject is conservation; David Russell, of South Africa, evangelism; Clarence A. Barbour, of the International Committee of the Y. M. C. A., team leader; Raymond Robins, social service.

Second row, A. J. Elliot, student secretary of the International Y. M. C. A., who was with the team in Pittsburgh when this picture was taken; W. A. Brown, secretary of the International Sunday School Association, bible study; John M. Dean, "the boy evangelist" of Kalamazoo and Los Angeles, community extension.

Top row, H. W. Sanderson, of the Laymen's Missionary Movement, with the team in Pittsburgh; John Alexander, of the Boy Scouts of America, boys' work.

more divorce between the relationship in an intimate and personal way of employer and worker. They live in different parts of the city; they have different social standards; they attend different churches; their children go to different schools; there is moving through the social order a division that is of significance.

There is another matter of concern. Within this generation 2,600,000 women have gone into factories, workshops, mills, and stores. Those people who talk about woman's invasion of industry of course are talking very superficially. Women never invaded anything. They are simply following the old industries that have been taken from the home and put in the factory. But social complications of the greatest moment are involved for the mothers and sisters of the working world in the change from home industry to factory industry. In the old days, women worked long hours

for small pay, but they controlled the industrial strain absolutely; they could stop work when they wanted to; they could lighten the strain when their physical condition demanded it. Under the old condition women exercised the domestic control and discipline that has been the special domain of women from the beginning of the world. Now the mother is at work in the factory, and frequently the older sister. So the domestic burdens fall upon the little fathers and mothers of the tenements. And the result is that there have grown up in our community great numbers of homes that have ceased to have the "home quality," where parental care has been largely lost.

Woman has gone to the factory with her old traditional life. She is an individualist. All her past history has made her an individualist. In the main she expects to make and have a home of her own; she has no idea of collective

action or of permanent relationship in industry. She may be an industrial worker through long years, but that is not her expectation. She goes into industry with her traditional attitude toward hours and wages, working long hours for small pay. She is the victim of her virtues in industry; she is more economical, more willing, more surely sober than man. And the result is that for a great deal of labor she is not only as satisfactory as, but more satisfactory than, men. The result is that many women, not themselves heads of families, have displaced in the industrial world heads of families, men who were charged with the responsibility of the home; and the great social fact is that women as a rule work for from one-fourth to nearly one-half less than men at the same labor. Now this has had a great effect upon the industrial strain, a great effect in forcing the industrial problem more and more keenly to the front, and forcing the men who labor to fall back upon one device after another to protect their industrial opportunities and their standard of living.

There is another matter to which I invite your attention. Ours is the only country in western civilization that has developed to any high degree a casual labor class, a great army of homeless men and boys divorced from all social responsibilities, from any real local obligation, casual laborers cast out in the great drift of our social and industrial life.

And in this country have grown up certain degenerate trades. Let me instance one. One of the most ancient and honorable trades in history is that trade of the woodsman, the man who fells the forest, who prepares the timber for the lumber mill. The Galilean Peasant was a carpenter. Those of us that know the conditions of that craft at that period know that the duty of a carpenter involved that he go out on the mountain-side and fell the tree and then with three or four of his companions bring it down to the little village of Nazareth, and there whipsaw it into lumber, and then in his shop work up the planks into whatever he wanted to fashion. This simple, wholesome life produced Abraham Lincoln and some

of the strongest of those men who have helped to make this nation great. What is the story tonight? Why, the woodsman's craft has gone. The lumber industry is a degenerate trade at that point of which I am speaking. The casual laborers of the great city, the human drift, are gathered together in groups and sent up to the logging camps, there to live for three or four months in a more or less anti-social condition, sleeping and eating, all men, in great bunk-house-tents.

There are some seventeen crafts in this country that are degenerate trades in the sense that they have lost their standard; that the men engaged in them cease to be craftsmen and are mere tenders of machines for periods during the year, or take this casual labor for uncertain seasons—men without a home, drifting from one casual labor job to another, the human waste of our great social order; men who come into the cities after three or four months out on work of that sort, money in their pockets, living an anti-social life, passion in their blood, the economic basis of the red-light district. We found in a careful investigation in Chicago that some six million dollars a year comes into our town in the pockets of casual laborers, from a few dollars up to about as high as sixty. They are men who come in as my partner did with me from the logging camp. I said to him: "What are you going to do?"

"Oh," he said, "a little time in Chi (meaning Chicago), "whiskey, women, and a gambler's chance, and then a new job for yours truly."

Those men become the great force in lodging house districts of your cities; they are voted in blocks; they control primary elections; they become part of the political power in the hands of bosses and in the hands of those men who would corrupt the government for private gain. They are a distinct social menace; but they are part of our present industrial order and part of the problem.

But not any one of these things constitutes the chief reason for this problem, in my judgment. The chief reason for the industrial problem in the modern world is that there has emerged in indus-

try the democratic idea. The greatest contribution that western civilization has made is the contribution of the democratic idea.

The democratic idea first emerged in western civilization in the religious realm. It emerged under great strain. It was in the form of a monk with bare hands and feet. Against it were the armies and the navies of the world, the autocratic power of the ancient church, the great blind superstition of thousands, all the forces that were then ruling the world. And yet western civilization has practically admitted the right of religious freedom.

That idea emerged again, and this time it was in the political world. They can mark the time in Anglo-Saxon freedom when it came forth in the realm of that race. It was there in a little back room in London town. There arose a rough-visaged farmer from Ives, Oliver Cromwell. He said: "I will raise a body of men with the fear of God in their hearts and they will not be beaten." And he raised his body of men. They were the laughing-stock of the drawing-rooms of London. Then they met Rupert's cavalry at Marston Moor and Naseby. Rupert's cavalry came down upon the left wing of the Parliamentary army and scattered it like leaves before the blast, and turned. And then there came from that other slope a group of men singing psalms, and there was a sneer on the faces of the masters of Rupert's cavalry. They turned to charge that line, and that body of men met that charge with these words: "God is with us. God is with us"—and

they hurled them back and they went over the plumes and the golden curls of privilege of a thousand years, and the democratic idea had emerged in politics to take eternal dominion both in England and in the world. It has met reverses, but that idea moves forward with ever increasing certainty to final dominion in the western world.

Today that democratic idea has emerged in the industrial world; and the men and women of labor, working in mill and factory and mine and shop, sometimes unconscious of the movement itself,

are impelled to seek to organize, impelled to try to keep the democratic trade agreement in the workshop, or compelled by forces that they do not themselves wholly appreciate to break old long-standing fellowships and go out on a strike. Sometimes they are not able to explain why; moved to the purpose of organization, moved to the purpose of having that result in every democratic situation, as it were; a committee, and have that committee meet with

the employers' committee, and the two sit down at a table and draft an agreement in which both sides have shared, determining the hours and wages and working conditions under which they shall give their lives a day at a time.

Now, there are many other forms in this movement; there is much that is not defensible, much that is wrong. But the fact is that for thirty years in western civilization there has been a steady advance each year in the actual number of men and women who are under the democratic trade agreement.

The employers everywhere are organ-



THE SOCIAL SERVICE EXPERTS

Raymond Robins, Charles Stelzle and J. L. Lansing (left to right) are finishing a campaign which began in October and has called for thirty addresses a week from each.

izing; capital everywhere is organizing; how natural that the working world should also organize. How natural that the men of labor, the women of labor, should seek to have the power of the group in dealing with the problems of their daily life.

Most of us go to church on Sunday and once in the middle of the week. Some of us not at all. Some of us go to church every day for a little while. Not many of us go to the ballot box more than four or five times a year at the most. But every one of us that is a working man goes down to our labor six days in seven, with a possible two weeks' vacation during the year. Shall we find in the historic movement of civilization that this idea, which emerged without any support at all in the other realms and finally won almost universal recognition, should fail in the realm of industry? Shall we expect finally the survival of the feudal work-shop side by side with a free state and a free church?

What is the reasonable expectation from the historic movement? You say: "I know a man who pays as good wages and has as good conditions, in fact, better, than in union shops." So do I. I know a number of those men. "I know a man who cares more for his labor than they care for themselves." I know such men. But the fact is that benevolent feudalism will never finally satisfy the democratic demand. Any condition that I put in the shop I can take away. I may die; I may change my mind; I may organize my shop into a big corporation and then not have any control over it. But if my shop has the trade agreement, and my workers are organized and have the bond of organization among them, then they share in the conditions and can hope to help maintain them. A great mill, a great mine, a great factory—what is one person in such a situation?

I worked in a mine when I was nineteen years old, in the old South, twelve hours a day, for a dollar a day, in an unorganized mine. I found in one of the drifts a place where the shoring was weak. I said to my mine foreman: "I think that is dangerous."

He said: "If you don't want to work you can get out."

I went in and risked my life. When the day's work was done I used to go to my little cabin, eat, get in my bunk, and sleep until the whistle blew in the morning at six-thirty. Then I went to the pit's mouth and down into the shaft and I picked—day after day, most of the time on my knees because the drift was narrow. Along about Friday I, a young, eager-hearted boy, would begin to be so tired, to feel the weariness of that labor so, that I wanted a chance of escape. How was I going to get away from it? It was a little common dirty mining town; just one place where there was even light and music, and that was in the crowded saloon. I had never drunk before I came into this mining camp; been raised on a farm; didn't even know the taste of liquor. I went down into that saloon; I listened to the music. I threw two or three beers under my belt and I thought I was happy, but I was not. The next morning I had a head that told me I hadn't been happy, and still I would go the next week and do the same thing, not because I was bad, but under the condition of things it took possession of me. Now, I found myself going back physically, became heavy and logy. There was no sort of opportunity.

Then a man came into that mine who talked about organized labor. I was interested. I sat at my little table in my bunk house with my bare feet in a tin pan of water, to keep me awake while that man talked. I started in to organize that mine. I couldn't, because a lot of working people were colored folk and as soon as they got their money they went away and spent it. Finally the boss said to me if I was foolish about this matter of unionizing the mine I better get out of there, and I got. I went on a brake beam to Colorado and got a job in a union mine. I worked eight hours a day, got four dollars a day, and worked only six days in the week.

Life changed for me. I had leisure. I had opportunity. I began to study at night. I bought books. Then the whole world changed for me because of the change in my industrial conditions. Now

why? Just because I had a little piece of pasteboard in my pocket that said I was a member of the miner's union.

Now, when I found a bit of bad shoring in that mine, I went to my mine steward and told him, and he went to the superintendent, and the superintendent took us away from the drift until it was fixed. If he didn't, we all laid down our tools. In other words, we had the power of the group to protect the life of each, and it was a tremendous power.

You say that if you give leisure and better wages to some men they will spend it in saloons and in loafing around. Doubtless that is true. And if you give more dividends to some men, their sons will buy automobiles and give them to chorus girls. But I am not going to judge either class by the vicious members of that class. In other words, honor and truth and well-meaning are not special privileges of any group. The average working-man who gets more money has more things he needs in his home and a better chance for his family, and the average business man who gets more interest on his money re-invests his money and employs more labor. That is the thing and the only proper thing to judge each class by—the better and average elements in it.

This movement toward industrial democracy is possibly the most vital movement of the age. It is marked, it is true, at times by violence and by crime and by wrong and by bad leadership. One of the greatest problems of the industrial struggle lies just there, but it is not a

peculiarity of this struggle. If you will go back and read what the ancient fathers of the church said against the men who led the revolt for religious liberty, you will find they charged them with every crime in the calendar. You will find those men whom you delight to honor denounced as guilty of murder, of arson, of treason, and of blasphemy of God.

Go back again and read what those men who were defenders of the Stuarts said in regard to Cromwell and the Covenanters; find that those men who led

the cause of democratic freedom in the world were charged with all the crimes. Every great movement in the history of men has come, as it were, eating and drinking, has come out of the common life, more moved by the power of the idea itself than by the conventions of men. It has always been marked by more or less violence and strain. I do not regard violence as any the less violent because of that. Every particle of violence, every particle of force, every particle of wrong is at the cost of the movement every-

where and at all times; but I only want you to get the historic sense, I want you to see that these conditions are not new in the history of human progress.

What are the conditions involved in industrial democracy that concern the rest of the community? First, the education of the working world into the forms of democracy. Just as the free church has carried the democratic method into religion, just so organization of the workers carries the democratic method in its teaching. It may be policy in this par-



Y. MINAKUCHI.

For its speakers on missions, Team No. 3 called over Minakuchi, a brilliant young Japanese orator, and David Russell, a Scotchman, who has spent many years as a missionary to the natives of South Africa.

ticular organization or the other, but the fact is that the democratic education of the working world is more needed in industry than any other line. The strongest influence that moves men steadily against the sweatshop is the organization of workers of the craft. The enforcement of sanitary laws, enforcement of proper machinery safe-guards—practically the whole category of social and labor legislation is enforced through the organization of the workers and the protecting arm of the state. Why is that so? Because it is in common with the great democratic fact that it is much better to give individuals the power to protect themselves than to try to protect them yourself. That is the reason why you want your boy to grow up to be a man, to know how to take care of himself; because you know that in the conscious power of the individual to protect himself there is more protection than can ever be given by the kindest father or the best-disposed mother. The freedom and right of the individual to protect his own conditions is a fundamental necessity in the movement of democracy.

May I give evidence of the moral quality in the democratic control over industry? In a certain town on the Atlantic seaboard were two hat factories about a block apart. One was a non-union factory, the other was organized. In the unorganized factory about three years ago, on the trimming floor, the foreman insulted one of the working girls. This little girl protested vigorously, and there was a scene and she was dismissed for insubordination. The man did it to protect himself. She was a little foreign girl. She went to the lodging house where she lived, and the woman that ran that house wrote a letter to the owner of the factory, who lived in the nearby town, and sent it by registered mail. I hold the return registry receipt in my vault in Chicago. It purports to have been signed by the owner. The little girl never heard anything from the letter. She was out of work for three weeks before she got a job in a shirtwaist factory. Now how will she feel the next time that she is approached by some one in authority over her? Will she be so ready to protect her honor at the danger of three

weeks of idleness? Answer for yourselves.

In the union factory, about six months after this, a similar incident occurred. This child, instead of being violent, went back to her machine and was sitting there working when the little shop steward came along and saw her crying, and the child told her what the trouble was. This little girl walked down to where this person was, this man, and said to him:

"Now, Bill, you cut that out. That don't go here at all. We will take your orders all right, but that don't go."

And he said: "What have you got to do about it? Nobody said anything to you."

She said: "I have got a lot to do about it. Now that you are so heady about this, you better go up there and apologize to Mary."

He said he would see her in a warmer place first. At that the little woman walked down the aisle of that shop and clapped her hands and a hundred and seventy-two girls laid down their tools, formed in line, and went down on the street. This little girl appeared and told them what the facts were, and she said:

"I want you to agree that you won't do a bit of work until Bill apologizes to Mary."

And they passed a vote. About that time the superintendent of that factory got in the game and he called the foreman and the shop steward and the little girl into his office. Let it be said—and it could be said of many and many a man in this country—that the foreman was discharged on the spot.

But that is not the thing I am interested in. There were two great universities and splendid churches in that town. Yet from neither university nor church was there any influence that reached out far enough to protect those little foreign girls against these conditions. But the United Hatters of North America, an organization of their craft, was there with power not only to protect their hours and wages, not only to see that they did not suffer sweatshop conditions, but with power to protect the virtue of that little girl, to insure to her the protection of the whole group in the shop—mighty as a moral force as well as an industrial force.

And I do not know any other organization in society that is strong enough to do certain things for working women but the organization of working women.

I want to read you the words of a man that in my judgment point the line of development of the future in this great problem:

Labor is prior to and independent of capital. Capital is only the fruit of labor and could never have existed if labor had not first existed. Labor is the superior of capital and deserves much the more consideration.

Those words were written in his first message to his first Congress by Abraham Lincoln.

Why did he write them? What were the conditions under which they were written? He had just been elected president. He was not in need of votes for at least three and a half long years. There never was a responsible ruler in the history of the world that was more in need of support, of capital, than was Lincoln at that very moment. He saw in the offing the shadow, the cloud, of that great civil struggle. He knew he would need millions of money to fight those battles for the Union; and yet Lincoln, true, invincible, simple as the stars, wrote those words because they are the everlasting truth. And because Lincoln wrote those words, I believe that Lincoln will grow in the coming years, that he will tower above all the men that came forth out of this nation's life—the man who not only solved the great problem of his generation, but laid down the principles on which the problem of later generations is also to be solved.

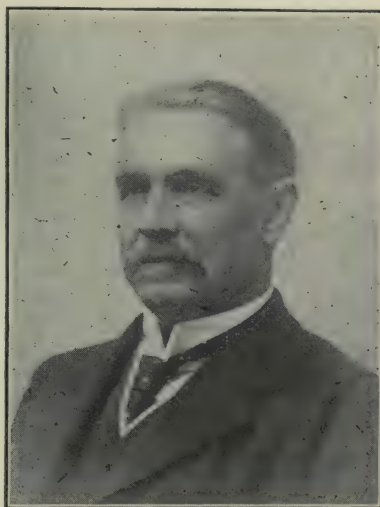
Was Lincoln attacking the just rights of property? I do not believe it. My money may be invested so that little children are being disinherited; so that women are losing their womanhood or sacrificing their maternity to the industrial demands of the speed of machinery; where men are working twelve hours a day and seven days in the week and giving up their rights of citizenship and their rights of fatherhood to the inveterate demands of industry—and I will not be implicated a particle. My family is not concerned, my body is

not concerned, my brain and heart and liberty are not concerned. The only thing that follows my investment is a certain property right that brings me dividends. In other words, the rights of capital are the rights of property. All right.

What about labor? Did you ever see labor when you didn't have the living human soul, the man or woman with head and hands and heart, on the job, living out a day of his life at a time? Aye, the fatherhood,

brotherhood, citizenship, the whole divine human life of man is involved whenever you talk about labor. You cannot divorce it from humanity, and for that reason the rights of labor are the rights of man, and the rights of man are superior to the rights of property.

Property has its just rights, and unless you protect the rights of property, you finally won't protect any rights. But whenever the rights of investors, myself included, come into conflict with the just rights of living men and women, then property rights have got to give way.



DAVID RUSSELL

Called "The Moody of South Africa," Dr. Russell has brought to the Men and Religion movement an evangelistic message as forceful as the great sweep of waters over the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi near his home.

THE SOCIAL PURPOSE IN THE CHURCH'S MESSAGE: TO MINISTERS

I suppose there is no man who stands in your presence who is more genuinely converted, if you please, or more personally the beneficiary of the individual gospel than I am. I am here this morning because of the evangelistic appeal and the individual call to the human heart. I trust that the hour will never come when I disregard the means by which I am the manner of man I am today.

I go back once in a while to my old home in the South. It is little changed from what it was twenty-five years ago. There are still the great pine barrens, still the simple individual life—little homes scattered half a mile apart, a few cows, a few pigs, a little garden patch. All the strain of life is the old individual strain. The whole question there is of personal character, the inner heart of the man, the individual question of truthfulness and falsity, of covetousness or generosity, of purity or impurity, of honesty or dishonesty, the question of all of the old simple things in life—it is all back on the old basis just as it was about a thousand years ago.

The question of the social gospel would not be of great concern to those people in that scene. But let us change the scene.

On the west side of Chicago where I live there are 65,000 people within less than a square mile. There are 18,000 children growing up in tenements where the very physical conditions of their daily life, the amount of air they breathe, the amount of sunlight which comes into the rooms in which they sleep—whether there be any sunlight at all—is a matter first of legislation, of community law, and second of enforcement through the City Hall. It is a purely social proposition. We have taken away the individual control and have put in social control, and then have not always enforced the social control. While we acknowledge the necessity for it, we fail in enforcing the law, and therefore we disinherit thousands of the least of these, our brethren, in the forms of little children, who grow up gray-blooded, narrow-chested, and in-

competent, just because of the physical conditions under which they must live. By the same token, the question of food, which is a matter of personal control down in any one of those homes in the old South, is a matter of social control in the tenement district. If you have not pure food laws, or do not enforce those laws, your children will drink milk with formaline in it, your babies will be disinherited by the food they eat, which is due to our failure to enforce social control. And again by the same token, the question of whether the child shall have the opportunity to eat enough food, of any kind, is a question in many instances of the wage paid to the breadwinner in the home; after that it is a question of thrift and character in the person in the home. In other words, our gospel is social and individual. It is individual and it is social by reason of the circumstances and conditions of our modern life. Whether the child gets any education, has any right share in the heritage of a great free people, is a question of whether we enforce our laws, whether we really make our factory legislation efficient, whether we allow that child to go into the factory, or whether we allow that child to get its fair chance at its heritage in the public schools.

In the same way, the morals of the community where I live are not controlled by the individual father and mother. The very physical relations, the very way in which they live and sleep and satisfy the normal human needs, breaks down in many instances some of the finer modesties, if you please, that you and I love in our own children. Those children may not have them on account of the very physical conditions under which they live. We know that the moral life of boys and girls is made in those growing years in leisure time. But where do the boy and girl of the crowded, congested district spend their leisure time? They spend it on the streets and they must. You cannot keep those children in a three-room tenement. It is fundamental for their physical life that they



A LIGHT TO LIGHTEN BROADWAY.

An electric sign high above Madison Square is one of the methods for letting New York know of the Men and Religion Forward Movement. It has been criticised, of course, but it is part of a carefully worked-out plan to reach the city's big non-churchgoing population, many of whom would not hear of it in any other way.

This is part of the preliminary work for the New York (Manhattan and Bronx) campaign, April 14-18, which will be followed by the Christian Conservation Congress, April 19-24, to wind up the year's campaign with a national gathering of delegates from all of the 76 cities in which there have been campaigns.

get out into the open, and "out in the open" is the street, and the morals of the street are more under the control of the City Hall than of father and mother or minister. As a matter of fact, the morals of the street are held up by the police, and the control, or lack of it, depends on the character of the police, the relation of the dance hall, the habit of the street, and

that habit is a matter of social control. I have seen peasant parents who love their children as devotedly as you and I find themselves helpless in exercising that moral control over their children that they used to be able to exercise in a simple village. In many of our industrial cities where the father works all day, and the mother works away from home, it has

practically gone, and the social control is the only control that exists at all.

We simply see new facts and we make application of the new forces. We live in a complex social age and we must meet that complex social age by a united social purpose that has the power of God behind it; that sees in an anti-social wage a menace to morality and that sees in a decent wage the basis of a tolerable home life; that sees in dishonest and crooked politics and police departments a menace to the very moral life of growing children and sees in an honest police administration a moral and spiritual purpose of the community working for them in conditions that make tolerable the life and hope and opportunity of little children.

So this is not a vagary, this is not an illusion, this is not because we repudiate the past. It is because we recognize the present, it is because we use the past experience in building into the new present the purpose of our Lord.

May I say in passing that the most social thing in all the world is that prayer that you and I have known better than any other prayer in all the world, the Lord's Prayer? I once asked a group of some seventeen different nationalities sitting in a room to say the one passage of Scripture in their own tongue that they loved the best. In those seventeen different tongues there came forth: "Our Father which art in heaven, hallowed be Thy name." It is the great universal word of the Christian life. Do you remember that prayer—"Our Father?" It is not my father, nor yours but "*Our* Father, give us this day our daily bread." Think of it for a moment: "Our Father Who art in heaven, hallowed be Thy name, Thy kingdom come, Thy will be done" in Seattle "as in Heaven". Do you mean that? Do we really mean it? Of course Seattle is on earth. When we pray, "Thy will be done, Thy kingdom come, on earth as it is in Heaven," do we really mean it? Do we really mean that the whole of our human life, political, industrial, and social, shall be led to God? If we do, then we have the most tremendous social gospel believed among men and the oldest and deepest authority from Jesus Christ himself.

After that first petition, that recognition of Our Father which is forever first, and after the plea for the coming of the kingdom, which is the great social program of Jesus, what is next? It is so simple and so true: "Give us this day our daily bread". I have not had to worry about my daily bread for some time past. I have worried about it, I have been hungry many, many times, in strange cities, but for now these twelve years I have had ample. But I pray that prayer and I try to think that I mean it—I want to mean it. I am perfectly sure that if I sit at my table this morning, well filled with wholesome and sufficient food, and look into the eyes of my family and pray "Give us this day our daily bread", and see them satisfied and do not do what I can in all the relations of my life, politically and industrially and in my religious functions, to see to it that every child in this republic has its daily bread—then I believe that I crucify my Lord afresh. And I believe that is true of anyone of us who can stand and see our own children well fed and not feel the obligation; for it was "Give *us* this day *our* daily bread"—not give *you* or *me* or *mine*, but *us*.

The old prayer runs on, each great line of it social, as it were: "Lead us not into temptation." What does that mean? It means not only my boy and girl, but your boy and girl, aye, and it means all boys and all girls. How easily their little feet are led into temptation in the many complex conditions of our modern city life! How many pitfalls have we left for those little feet! You can take it in its larger relationship. You and I sometimes elect men to office and then forget that we are citizens, forget that we ought to stand by these men who are just human. We leave them the prey of special interests; we leave them alone until they have betrayed their trust. I want to know whether that is not leading men into temptation? If you leave your city council under the dominion of certain interests alone and they never hear from you year in and year out, and you don't know and you don't take enough interest in public affairs, in the social interests of your community, to know—don't you



know that you are leading them into temptation, because those who want to betray the city's life, those who want to profit by the misuse of public power, those who want to get for themselves privileges that apply to all, will be saying to public officials day after day: "The people don't care, they don't know, they are indifferent; do this thing and we will stand by you; the people forget, but our crowd always remains, we always go to the primaries, are always on deck, we always control nominations." Many a man who has started in public life believing he was going to serve the community has found himself, after a few years, a cheap gangster with a betrayed human life. It was not wholly because that man was more wicked than others. The Master said: "Do you think that those people upon whom the Tower of Siloam fell were sinners above all in Jerusalem?" How true is it that through all this complex life of ours there is this call for the larger function of the gospel of Jesus, the gospel of the kingdom, which was the gospel of a redeemed humanity, the gospel of redeemed men in a redeemed society.

I do not claim any special wisdom, but

I have been actively on the firing line for eleven years and I want to say to you that the whole question in my thought today is this: Shall the kingdom of God come inside the church or outside the church? The kingdom of God is going to come. From that great moment down there in the old East when the Master on the tree spoke that final word, "It is finished," there has been a force in the world that has been making for the coming of the kingdom of God. With all the disappointments, with all the betrayals, with all the failures and all the losses, personal and social, inside of the church and outside, none the less that great faith has not lived in vain, and the kingdom is coming. I sometimes wonder where it will come. I do hope and pray and I do yet believe that it will come inside the church. There is where it belongs to come; and of course it will come inside the invisible church of God, of those that love Him and wait for His appearing. That is where it must come. But I am talking of the formal organized church. I believe that institution is part of God's great purpose in the world. I think sometimes it is too restricted to contain His great message. But I do not

believe it is because of the character of the church itself. I think it is only because of local situations.

I maintain that this great advance of social justice, this great quickening that is in the heart of the world today, should find its full expression inside the church. I have watched my brother social workers working in the spirit of the Lord, whose name they did not know. I have worked with them day by day and found them doing good work and sometimes speaking sneeringly of the church which was the very source of the enthusiasm that they had manifested among men. And I have watched the churches, sometimes indifferent to the social workers and to the splendid service they were rendering because it did not have a certain brand upon it or because it did not speak a certain word. Oh, I hunger for the social worker to have the power of a recognized religious sanction in his life, and I hunger for the church to have the great power of a social purpose in its message. I never get in the presence of ministers of the gospel without a sense of solemnity that I am privileged to be there. I have gone out from a day's work this last ten years hungering for that fellowship that the church alone could give, hungering for the strength inside the church that social work alone could give, and I have sometimes returned sad at heart. I think I know something in a little way of those great words of Wesley's:

I was invited by the canon of a certain cathedral to speak down there, and I went, and there was a great congregation there present, and the canon introduced me guardedly. The Lord was with me. I will not be invited again.

I take it that possibly the highest value of this Men and Religion Forward Movement is that it is going to mark the time when that may not be said any more, when those men who have an ear to the whole social message will be working out in their daily lives that glorious ministry of the incarnate God upon earth 1900 years ago.

May I bear this testimony to its need: This is the great hour in our nation's life. The strain now in this nation is more

than at any time throughout the story of the Republic's life. It is greater now than it was in '61; it is a deeper and more menacing strain. May I say to you that old institutions, that the question of the very church itself, is in wide debate among many hundreds of the great group of toil. They are not worse than the rest of us; they are misguided and misled, but they have high enthusiasms, they have great hopes, they have the purpose of the kingdom in their eyes, although they do not know the name by which that kingdom can come, nor its method. I envy for the church of God that zeal that goes out in all kinds of weather, that perseveres in all kinds of taunting circumstances, that dares to proclaim its faith in the great co-operative commonwealth. I have no sympathy with its dogmas; they are to me alien to the purpose that we preach. I believe they will break down that purpose. No man stands in your presence with a clearer knowledge of the purity of their purpose, who at the same time is more absolute in his repudiation of their proposals so far as its scientific basis is concerned. But the enthusiasm of those men who are stirred by common human needs into a great indictment of the social order of things, many times too broad and inclusive, but none the less a fearless indictment of what some of us passed by all too carelessly considering the cost of the cure—their enthusiasm is praiseworthy.

I was called some years ago, nearly five, to supply for a minister in one of the cities in New York state. There had been there that old trouble, the betrayal of the daughters of the poor. There was a great institution that was paying to girls who came from the country districts wages which could not be defended. The girls could not live honestly on that wage. It was a betrayal of human life. That company was paying great dividends. This minister was stirred by one or two instances which came to his knowledge. I traced one New York country girl from her home in the fields of western New York to this city, to a job in this enterprise, to her little room with its four bare walls, through the day's work for several months, and then finally through the hunger for some little joy, the love of color

and music and form, to get away from the deadly monotony of the days—now a dance hall, a little recreation apparently only desired. There was no other kind of recreation for such a girl. Finally a wine supper, then a house of assignation, then finally the red-light district of New York, and then a little white stone out on Blackwell's Island. That is all.

There I found this man, standing before a well-dressed, comfortable congregation, preaching, in the silken robe that is the habit of his church, the simple gospel sermon. Afterwards I talked in a basement room, upon some of these deeper things in which I felt the church was involved. Some of those brethren were rather angry that I should charge upon them in their upright and separate life, as it were, their obligations for this defeated and lost life. But I charged it home, and I felt I was doing God's duty and service there under the power of the Galilean's own testimony of the harlot who wiped his feet with her tears and her hair.

I spent that evening with the minister and he said to me:

"I am going to have to give up this church. They won't stand for what is necessary to conserve human life."

I said:

"Brother, I don't believe it. There may be three or four men who won't do it, but the majority of your church will stand with you. I hope you will stay and try to work out patiently and faithfully this problem."

He said:

"I don't believe I can do it."

I told him a story that may be old to you. I said: "There is a principle in dynamics that a gun must be a hundred times heavier than the shot it fires. This social message is a pretty big shot, and if a real light person shoots it, it will kick him out of the pulpit. But if he is a hundred times heavier than the shot, if he does not get one-sided, if he does not

think that the social message is the only message, if he realizes that the message of God is bigger than that, if he realizes that that is only part of the message, if he keeps bible study, evangelism, and the other portions of that teaching of the Lord also strong; in other words, if he is a hundred times heavier than the shot, he can shoot it and stay at his work."

Do you get the thought? This great purpose after righteousness, this great purpose after the kingdom for which Christ died, is bigger than any man or set of men. It is bigger than any narrow view even of that message and that kingdom itself. You

know that old word about how those people took the kingdom of Heaven by violence?

Sometimes it has to come that way. Oh, I pray you, my brothers, that it may be in your power, in your judgment, and in your leading and ministry, that you may bring this whole gospel of Jesus into vital power inside the old church walls, and let it reach out in healing power to all the life around about, until the



churches of God believe that great testimony that the Galilean sought to leave upon men.

As to the means for doing it: I should like to see in every one of the local churches in this city a social service committee composed of those men in your churches who know the most about and have the largest interest in social reconstruction. I should like to see that committee make for every local church a carefully worked-out survey of the community for, say, eight blocks around that church. Then I should like there to be a member from each one of those social service committees who would be a member of the inter-church and local church committee of the various churches of this city; and I should like that committee to co-operate with all other agencies doing social work.

I should like to see an inquiry made, to determine for this town what is a proper minimum-wage standard and I should like all the churches to make an effort to create public opinion upon that question. I should like to see an investigation made of Sunday labor here. I should like to know how many men have to work on Sunday in Buffalo; I should like to know how many men are working that need not work in the sense that it is not a social necessity. In other words, I should like to know how many men cannot function in the religious life of the community because of the conditions of their industrial work.

Then I should like to have an investigation that would indicate the social price of the saloon. I should like to find out in this town how many families are taken care of by the Charity Organization Society, where you could honestly trace the break-down in those homes to the liquor traffic. I should like to know how many of the total arrests are the result of intoxication. I should like to know what proportion of the cost of criminal procedure, is directly and honestly, not foolishly, traceable to the liquor traffic. I should like to know the number of delinquent, defective and dependent children in broken homes whose lives failed through the waste of the liquor traffic. Then I should like to have a program that would put public comfort stations

in your city, so that men would not have to go into saloons. I should like to have social centers in each one of your public schools, so that that great plant could be used for recreation and enjoyment by the people, and the social function of the saloon be diminished by just that much.

I should like to see, if possible, a place for every homeless man and boy to go—a municipal lodging house where he could get a meal, a chance to sleep, and employment, so that the present situation would not continue to support the saloon. I have been a miner. I have gone to a strange town with two or three weeks' growth of beard and poor clothes. Did I go to a minister to look for a job? Of course I did not. He would have been perfectly willing to see me and help me, but he would not have known anything about me and he could not have helped me. I went to the saloon, where I would find other people, where there was a sort of exchange of ideas covering the line in which I was interested and the information which I needed. I have lived in cities on 15 cents—cheaper through the use of the saloon than through any other means that had been provided through the social conditions of that city, for I got three beers and three free lunches, and I lived off that 15 cents and had fellowship with other men I could not have got as cheaply otherwise; and I could not have taken care of myself as well under any other circumstances. It is a vicious social administration that puts a man to that strain and does not provide the common human things that are necessary.

I would work out my social plan step by step, taking up the matter that is possible in the situation and then, by reason of its need, the next thing, resting on the co-operation of the men who want to do the right thing without regard to the petty divisions sometimes besetting us, not allowing superheated ignorance to carry us along. We need facts. Then we can make use of publicity, of the great power of the modern world, the public press.

There is an immense lot we can do that we do not know. I believe that this group of men in this room are ignorant of a great deal of their power. I say this in no sense as a reproach, because

it is true of every group anywhere in the world. Let me take a certain situation as an illustration.

In a great city that is supposed to be very materialistic is a great department-store building, representing an immense investment, and in some aspects, one of the finest in the world. Yet in that building was a bargain department, two floors below the surface, with a low ceiling having, in rush hours, the worst air imaginable. I thought the air was bad because I smelled it. Samples of air were taken to a laboratory and analyzed, and a report made which showed it carried more germs than air from the crowded tenements and sweatshops. I said to the proprietor: "Now, what will you do about it? Can you get ventilation put into that department?" It could be done, but at considerable cost, because it was not done when the building was constructed. He said: "We can't do it. Other stores are as bad." I said: "Well, I am perfectly frank with you. I am going to see that that is done and I will tell you how. The first thing, I am going to try to get some public action through the press, with my facts as a basis."

And he laughed.

"All right," I said, "You laugh because you are the head of the downtown advertising association, and you regard that as absolutely controlling the daily press. To a degree what you say is so, although it is not always true, and there are papers which break through it.

Maybe I can't do that, but I am going to work this thing up and get some true cases and get doctors' certificates covering the girls who have come out of this condition, and I am going to work upon this thing. I will put this before the Citizen's Club, and there will be three or four hundred people there, and it will get out and we will publish it and distribute it to every trade union in the city, and through every church I can, and through all the channels of public information

I can; and it will carry the implication that your store is so unsanitary that to buy bargains there you take the chance of sickness and illness, and I believe I can make you come across."

He did not think I could; I took my next step just as I had promised him—took the facts up with three owners of three papers. These three looked the facts over and made us prove every step of the way.

Then they said, when it was made good: "We will authorize you to say that there will appear simultaneously in our three papers an editorial

statement of the condition of the air, with special relation to this place."

I went back and I said: "This is going to appear in three papers simultaneously; what have you got to say? Will you put in the ventilation?"

He said: "I have considered the matter, and we are going to put in the ventilation."

There were no head lines, no excitement, no sensation, there was nobody specially damned, nobody taken out and

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Men and Religion

The churches are not perfect,
but their faces are turned that
way.

If you are better than they,
why not help lift them up?

If you are not better, perhaps
they can help you.

Let us get together for man's
good and God's glory.

If you want to know more about the Men and Religion
Forward Movement, ask the editor or the nearest clergyman.

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RELIGIOUS ADVERTISING: NEW YORK.

The Men and Religion teams have received liberal publicity in every city. In New York, where it is difficult to catch the attention of five million people reading scores of daily papers, paid advertising and electric signs were used. The advertisement shown here was used on the sporting pages of the leading dailies.

pilloried as though he was a greater sinner than others, and yet the thing necessary to be done was done. And, I tell you, through the power of the men in this room, and through the intelligent

leadership in this room, using the resources you have, you will be able to change many conditions that make difficult the lives of the least of these our brethren in your city.

THE WAR ON POVERTY AND DISEASE: TO MEN AT AN EVENING MEETING

For the first century of the life of our gospel in the world the great question was the question of individual salvation. There was a dying civilization. Men were perishing all over the world from the corruption and vice and crime and warring spirit of men. Was there anything that could save man out of it? Jesus and the disciples gave a victorious affirmative to that question, and for nineteen hundred years there has never ceased to be the witness to the power of God to salvation through Jesus Christ in individual human hearts, and evangelism has been with us and will be with us until the end of the world.

But the great question of this time, the question that is quickening the hearts of men all over the world, is this question: Is there a power in our God, a power through our Christ, that will save a community, that will save society, that will save the whole group life and make tolerable the conditions for every child born among us? And the hunger of the world is to realize that kingdom of God for which Christ died. It is the answer to that question that is before the Christian church today throughout the world.

Is there any power in our gospel that will reach out to that woman working for an anti-social wage, living in a small room with four bare walls, and that will pledge to her the strength and purpose of a whole community to see that she has a fair chance in the world? Is there any power in our gospel that will go down to those flaming furnaces where sixty thousand men are working twelve hours a day, and seven days in the week, and twenty-four hours on the double shift, and give to them a chance to be human beings as well as steel workers in the world? Is there any power in our gospel

that will reach to the disinherited quarters, the city wildernesses of the great cities, in the mill towns, and say to the little disinherited child there: "You shall have a chance to a decent human life. We guarantee to you that you shall live in a room where there is decent air and sunlight. That you shall get decent food. That you shall have an education that will make you worthy as the child of a great free people, as a future citizen in a great free commonwealth. That you shall have the right because we enforce the law and protect you from the degrading conditions round about your tenement. That you shall have the right to choose good rather than evil when you come to manhood or womanhood?"

Social service believes that the gospel of Jesus Christ will answer every one of these questions in a victorious affirmative, that will save human life in every condition and everywhere.

I believe that we are to war on poverty, that we are to war on disease, that the new war in the world and the new moral substitute for war is to have the splendid courage and purpose of men addressing themselves to the social problems in the spirit of Jesus Christ, coming not to destroy but to fulfil, and yet fearlessly and faithfully determining that we shall have a decent human life in the midst of every city and every hamlet in the land, and that that new expression of God in earth not only a redeemed man but a redeemed community, a Christian community—shall be born through the effort of men using the full message of Jesus Christ, working through intelligent social service, directed by the conscience and power of the men in the church today, serving "the least of these" for whom Christ died.

TO SAVE THE CITY WE MUST SAVE THE CHILD: TO BUSINESS MEN

I like to speak of the city and the city's life from a pulpit. I do not know any theme, after the individual soul, that has a greater place in the Bible than the city. Abraham went out from Ur of the Chaldees, and he "looked for a city which hath foundations, whose builder and maker is God." We have been looking for that city and striving to build it through all the years, and there is none such city yet in all the world. Then you remember the crowning city, "whose merchants are princes, whose traffickers are the honorable of the earth." There is certainly an ideal for an industrial city that has not been approached among men. You may remember how interested the Master was in the "city," and what sadness it caused him—"And when He came near He beheld the city of Jerusalem and wept over it." And, last of all, that great word that comes to me again and again in the day's work: "Except the Lord keep the city, the watchman waiteth but in vain."

How is the Lord going to "keep" a city? He keeps it through living men. There is no other way. If men who name His name and claim to serve in His kingdom do not help to "keep" the city, it cannot be kept.

It is a safe assumption that we are not going to break up the city shortly. In your time and mine, at least, the city is going to be a continuing and ever-increasing factor of our general civilization. The thing to do is not to try to break up the city and to discourse upon a utopian idea of "three acres and liberty," but to address ourselves to the city's problem as such, and try to make the city a tolerable place for human life, to make it square with the vision and purposes of our civilization. Now if this be so, the building of a city is one of the largest and most important tasks in modern civilization. We should undertake it with the best knowledge and all the resources, that are obtainable.

How do we really start out to build a city? As a matter of fact, we do not very consciously start out to build it at

all. The city grows very much like Topsy did—in almost any direction, without any real program or plan at all. There is a group of men here this evening, I imagine, who have investments in railroads. I take it that not one of you would put 50 cents in a railroad scheme unless there had been a survey of the right of way, unless there had been presented to you in facts and figures the fills and the cuts, the bridges, the tunnels, the whole physical program, and you had, in relation to the population and the cost of building, an idea of whether or not it was a wise enterprise. Yet we start out to build a city without knowing anything about it, and we keep on working on our city-building without having had a survey, hardly, of the physical lines in the sense of city building. We lay our streets, of course, and now and again construct a boulevard, but to have the plans worked out ahead is rare. I am glad to see that this is beginning to change; that a number of cities have physical plans dealing with the parks, boulevards, bridges, beautifying the rivers, embankments, etc., and a certain combining of civic centers, and civic buildings being grouped artistically.

But where will you find a city which plans for the city's life for the future, the human part of it, and that has really a chart of the human element, of the waste spots; a chart that can tell just where the infant mortality is greatest, and why; that can tell you just where all the tuberculosis cases occur, and why; that can tell you where the social breakdowns occur, and why; that deals with the problem of human waste in an intelligent and comprehensive and satisfactory fashion?

Now, that is an undertaking worthy of the constructive intellect, of the best minds, worthy as an enterprise for every man in this room. Every man who has any leisure at all might well devote himself to that program. Any of you men who have large business concerns justify your constant attention, giving up your life a day at a time to these enterprises

on the basis that you are doing it for your children, leaving behind you something to be helpful to them. Very frequently I think you are mistaken about it, when that "something" is simply dollars or an estate; but, be that as it may, you justify your arduous labors because of the children. Our time is only a little longer or a little shorter, at best.

Now if this be true, we have found in the person of the child the center around which our work is to revolve. Let us consider this matter of the Greater Buffalo or any city—and realize that the Greater Buffalo can come only out of a greater number of sound, wholesome, creditable, God-fearing children. The great buildings and great bank balances and great palaces and hanging gardens and Appian Ways are all an old story in civilization. They will not preserve the city. They never have and they never will. But a sound, wholesome human life, from bottom to top, will give you the Greater Buffalo, the city whose lifelight is set on a hill and which does not need to be ashamed.

I should like to find for our purpose tonight, the child in Buffalo that is hungriest; I should like to find the child that is the poorest clad, whose little body most feels the cold; the child that lives in some basement tenement where it has been damp even when they tried to make it warm; I should like to find a child that has a social disease, that is, a child with incipient tuberculosis due to the physical conditions under which the child has lived during its growing years; I should like to find the child with the heaviest past heritage, as it were—and I am not thinking of crime, but of some Bohemian or Russian Jewish or other little child, coming from some peasant family, good, red-blooded, wholesome folk, doubtless, yet not knowing the language, and poor. That child not only has to learn our language but to learn a whole new order of civilization. Yet we should probably find that this child who needed the school most was getting the least of it, that it was forced by disease or poverty into the industrial world and made to work. If our children, all English-speaking children, did not go to school and did not pass

even through the eighth grade, they would know the language and habit of thought and be fairly able to meet the general demands in this country of ours. But this little American-born child of foreign parents carries a tremendous load. This child gets its touch and habit of American life from the street and public school. The moment it leaves the school or the street and goes into the tenement home or little cottage, it is in peasant Bohemia or Russia or Italy or some other foreign land. As soon as that door is closed the old language is spoken and the books and pictures speak of that old land and the old habits of thought. The mother and father think in terms of the old order. So the child has a double burden.

Of the boys who enter your schools you lose 50 per cent before they pass the eighth grade. That means that that child has an altogether difficult time and a deficient educational heritage, speaking in the lowest terms. On examining the figures closer you will find that a very much larger proportion of American boys pass the eighth grade than boys of foreign parentage; in other words, that children from our foreign population leave school much earlier than our native population, which is a serious loss, considering future citizenship. I say that no gain, economic or industrial, whether it be industrial on the one hand or parental on the other, can be anything but a social loss, that deprives that child of any necessary educational heritage to prepare it for a decent citizenship in a free land. You cannot get the results necessary out of the electorate, if the electorate is not able to function intelligently with the common problems of our collective life—and this is a heavy social loss because we deal with so many things on the basis of the vote.

Now that we have got this child right in front of us, as the Master set a child in the midst of them that wonderful morning in Capernaum, what is the first thing that child wants? It should have food. First there is the question of quality, because if it is formalin milk the child gets instead of pure milk it will not fare very well. If it is partially de-

cayed vegetables brought down from the better markets to sell to the poor because they cannot discriminate as well as the rest of us; if it is old meat that has been in cold storage; if it is from lumpy-jawed cattle that we permit to be brought down under cover of night; what does it mean? It means that the supply of decent food obtainable by that child is not such as you can justify, socially. It means that you have to control the condition and the quality of food by pure-food legislation, and by the enforcement of those laws and of your sanitary and health ordinances. Because these people are poor, that little child's supply of food will have to be bought from the nearby milk-station, the nearby grocery, the nearby meat-shop. And if that supply is not good, no matter how good a supply there may be somewhere else in the city, that little child will not get the supply of food it ought to have. That is a pure matter of social legislation—which is only one aspect of it.

Now what about the quantity of food in the home? It will do that child

no good to look at food through a plate-glass window. It has got to have it in its little stomach. What about that? As a fundamental proposition, the quantity of food for such a little child as that in the city of Buffalo is a matter of your wage-scale and continuity of employment. That is the basis. First, whether the wages will permit it, and second, whether there is employment at those wages. In other words, the industrial aspect of the city's life will absolutely determine, in the first instance, whether the child ever had a chance to get that food,

even if the food is there. Now, there are some of my friends who wish to leave the problem here, and say that if we take care of those propositions all will be taken care of. My experience is the other way, and I will have to speak within my experience. In other words, I have known communities where the social problem, so far as quality of food was concerned, was met and where the wage paid was a living wage, sufficient to provide the necessary quantity of food for the child. But even there I have known the child not to have food. Why? Because the father spent the money on drink or gambled it away, or wasted it in one way or another; in other words, the question of personal morality, of individual purpose in the human heart, is also one of the issues involved in whether this child gets food or not, in sufficient quantity and of proper quality.

Now, we have only gone to one proposition, the most primary need of a child's life, food; and yet we have invaded the political realm, the industrial order,

and the religious or moral sense of individual life. Now, how complex, and yet, at the same time, how simple and true is that analysis. Let us proceed.

What is the next need of the growing child of ten or eleven years of age? Clothing, of course, or it will suffer from the cold that will bring disease and death. Pause a moment on clothing. Do you think there is no social implication in clothing? I have known children in clothing that carried with it a distinct social curse—sweatshop clothing, made under conditions of long hours, small

THE SOCIAL EVIL AND THE CHURCH

ANNUAL CONTRIBUTIONS
TO CHURCH & MISSIONARY
WORK BY THE PROTESTANT
CHURCHES OF CHICAGO

\$4,000,000.00

ANNUAL PROFITS
OF THOSE INTERESTED
IN THE SOCIAL EVIL
IN CHICAGO

\$16,000,000.00

— SAYS —
THE VICE COMMISSION OF THE CITY OF CHICAGO
"RELIGION AND EDUCATION ALONE CAN CORRECT
THE GREATEST CURSE WHICH TODAY RESTS UPON
MANKIND."

RELIGIOUS ADVERTISING: CHICAGO.

A poster based on the report of the Chicago Vice Commission used by McCormick Theological Seminary in awakening the men of the churches to a realization of their responsibility for wrecked lives.

pay, and bad sanitary conditions, that simply betray the physical bases of life. But I have known it more direct than that. We had in our town smallpox, traced by our Board of Health to certain sweatshop conditions where certain diseased people worked over clothing. But we will pass from that to the matter of housing.

Now, this little child has got to have shelter and have it quickly. In weather like this it will have to have a certain amount a good part of the whole twenty-four hours or it will die. What is the basis of shelter for this little child in the city of Buffalo? Let us consider it. As to the quality: If the shelter is insufficient in cubic feet of air space, if it is a stable tenement, if poisonous gases accumulate, if there is bad plumbing, if no sunlight enters, that child will grow up narrow-chested, gray-blooded, in spite of all the prayers in Christendom. I believe as much in prayer, as any man, but I believe in prayer in relation to work. I believe that God Almighty gave us brains and heart in our lives to direct us into service. I like to pray as if all work were useless, and to work as if all prayer were needless. I believe that is the way that the Master intended us to deal with our social life.

So the quality of housing is of prime moment to this little child. Now, what is the basis of the quality of housing open to the poorest people of your city? It is a matter of tenement-house legislation and the enforcement of that legislation, and purely and simply a matter of social control.

But when you have settled the matter of the quality of housing, you have only begun. You have got to extend the inquiry over into, how can the working man get into the house and stay there? How can he escape eviction, how can he pay the rent? It is purely an industrial proposition, a question of industrial organization, both in wages and regularity of employment. All right. But even then we have not settled it, because you have the same personal moral quality to consider again. So that in each one of these simple things we have religion and politics and in-

dustry and the whole community tied up in terms of social control.

Let us go a step further. What about the education of this little child? You cannot have a decent child life, a decent citizenship in the future, except as this child and its group are brought in relation to educational opportunities. We recognize that as social, do we not? We have provided a public school system and a compulsory attendance law, so that if the child does not attend during certain years it is guilty of an offense against the commonwealth. If that is so, then we are charged to make that school all it ought to be, because we have assumed the responsibility, taken it off the mother and father, and have said we accept that as part of our social obligation.

I wonder if you have any problem in the city of Buffalo such as I found in my ward in Chicago in the matter of the adequacy of the public school system to the task it was supposed to assume? In a careful and accurate investigation we found out the expectation of the child and the expectation of the parents. In one school 72 per cent of the boys did not expect, and their parents did not expect, that they should be clerks or professional men. They certainly could not be gentlemen of leisure unless they were vagabonds. They were going into trades, and most of them had picked out what they were going to do. Yet that school at no point gave them any facility for efficiency in the task they contemplated undertaking. Now there is an immense social waste.

Here we are, an industrial people, living in a steadily advancing industrial age, that takes more and more of the whole community within its purview, as it were; and we are almost all of us related to industry at some point, and the great mass of us are related to the trades at some point. Yet the school system we provide is utterly inadequate, and in most instances no preparation is provided at all for this 72 per cent. What happens? This is one of the things that happens. A boy starts in industry, and the product he can make is so small that his relation to the social wealth is greatly diminished as compared with what he might do had he

been educated in his trade. Not only so, but the boy's resources, expectation, and hope are so limited because of the wages he receives under those conditions that many times he becomes discouraged, quits industry entirely, starts out on one tack or another, and finally winds up a vagabond and casual laborer on the earth. I know what I am speaking about. I was four years in charge of the Municipal Lodging House in Chicago. I have talked and dealt with over 50,000 homeless men and boys, representing the social and industrial human drift of our national life. Out of them I know a number who started through inefficiency and discouragement on the downward way.

I found by the same sort of a census of the girls going to a certain school, that 34 per cent did not expect to play the piano or to be clerks or young ladies of leisure, but to make waists and boxes and other products of craft labor, of one sort or another, as soon as they left school. Yet, there was no provision made for them any more than for the boys.

Now this is a distinct social waste; and the constructive intellect of our country, the educators and business men and the working people, ought to cooperate on a program that would work out that problem, and begin to work it out speedily. Whatever responsibility and cost is involved in it will be found to be an immense social saving in the end. The social cost of not doing it is many times greater than could be the actual cost of doing it.

Now, we may feed and clothe and house this little child before us and give it an education, but, if we do not let it play, if it has no chance for recreation during the growing years, it will be imbecile, incompetent, and powerless. In fact, the child will fail and die, will not live to manhood or womanhood, unless it has play. Recreation is a real word. You can, of course extend recreation to where it means dissipation. But recreation means to build, and dissipation means to throw away. Recreation is a primary need of human life, and unless you provide play for that child you fail in your social relationship. That child will almost always be found in the most crowded quarters of your city, where the

streets are dirty and least desirable as playgrounds, where there is a great deal of traffic. And that child will many times be found later in the juvenile court, not because it is a wicked child at all, not because it was primarily any worse than mine or yours, but because this reasonable desire for play has led the child off into gangs and into the group life that has become predatory; and that old spirit of adventure which took you and me into the neighboring apple orchard, against the will of the community, and yet did not make us criminal, makes of this child in the city's streets a petty criminal and leads it easily into real crime.

So that, in the matter of your recreation, you have a tremendous social issue. What are your dance-hall situations in this town? What is the fact in regard to reasonable pleasure at hand for growing boys and girls? Is the pleasure so perilous that in many instances there is a vicious element in it? What are the facts? What do you really know about your recreation possibilities for poorer children in your cities? I speak of that because there is where the heavy strain always falls. We have allowed the proper social recreation functions to become commercialized and to be divorced from the old neighbor-ships and the old social control. May I suggest that if you have social centres in your public schools, if you use that great plant from four o'clock on during the evening—mothers' clubs in the afternoon, and in the evening meetings for men and women and boys and girls, and then mixed meetings, under supervision, where mothers and fathers of the community, with the children of the community, could mix together—you would have the basis of a social recreation that would be much sounder in community life. If you do that, you will have one of the strongest forces to keep the children of the community from those associations and those pleasures that almost always lead into ways that are questionable and sometimes into vice and crime. And may I suggest that there is a power here you have a right to develop; that there is hardly a single community that will not develop certain power and beauty and capacity in music,

speech, or something that will serve and function the whole life in that community.

We have only dealt with the most primary things surrounding this little child, and yet we have got our whole social order outlined before us.

It is not a small thing, this life of the city, the hope of the future. Do you know why I took this little child, the poorest, most outcast child, you might say, in the city's life? Because, if your social leverage and resources are long and large enough to get under and lift that child, you have the whole social problem solved, you can lift the whole social community. May we not believe that there are open to you and me resources in the application of our intelligence, aye, and of our spiritual power, in the solution of these community problems, many of which we have assumed already through our forms of law?

The test of a civilization is the test of its human waste. The successes that have appeared in every civilization, the stars, the great, the powerful, do not need your attention. It is the common, average, garden-variety of life, that cannot resist too heavy burdens, that needs our thought. Do you remember how the Master worked among the poor and the diseased, the outcast, the defeated, and the criminal? He was sneered at by the wise and the good as "the friend of publicans and sinners," yet modern sociology agrees with Him. Every civilization has been defeated within. Failure in civilization means failure in the crop of men. No people have ever been overcome from without until they began to die within.

Christian social service knows just three great principles, that are best expressed in my thought by three words. First, Co-operation. The manhood of this splendid church could do something, but in community problems it would be overwhelmed; you need to co-operate. I do not mean organic unity, I mean learning to work together, in co-operation.

The second is Investigation. We are hunting in this present world for facts, and the stronger and more resourceful the man the more insistent he is in his

demand for facts. He is right. He wants to know. And he has a right to know, and you have a right to know, what actually happens in your social order.

The third is Publicity. That is an immense concern. It is one of the first powers of the modern world. A lot of good social work has failed because it has been buried in organizations and nobody knew anything about it, and because a few able men knew about it and would not take the trouble of publishing it for the public education. I am here to say that by the law of democracy you deserve to fail, no matter how perfect your program is or how disinterested your service, or how sincere you may be in human service, unless you pay the price of public education. The community needs to know the main facts, and the why, and the method, and the way out. If it does not know it can be betrayed against your purpose and against its own good.

You may remember that in a time when publicity went by word of mouth the Galilean Peasant laid the foundations of the finest system of publicity the world has ever known, by getting more simple, ordinary men to formulate and state His gospel in more places and languages than any soul that ever lived. He gave a final witness of the necessity of publicity; He even undertook that almost impossible task of reaching every individual man with His message by word of mouth. I want to say that democracy moves in precisely the same way, only that Christian social service in this present age has the tremendous democratic force of the press about it that you can use if you will.

The program of Christian social service is the program for all life everywhere. There is nothing common nor unclean that concerns any one of the least of these. You may not have the most population in Buffalo—that may not come to you in the course of the years; you may not have the greatest bank balance—that may not come to you; but you have got almost a free field in making your city the great adventure in human life, in realizing among men the city of God.

THE LAWRENCE STRIKE FROM VARIOUS ANGLES'

IT IS TIME TO KNOW

WALTER E. WEYL

The strike at Lawrence bade us to "stop, look and listen." It was no ordinary strike, and it did not convey an ordinary message. It was a flaming appeal to the conscience and intelligence of the American people.

I return from Lawrence with many ideas, clear and confused. I bring back questions which I can not answer. I have asked these questions of other men and they have no answer.

In the first place why did the strike begin with violence? Why was the moving spirit of the leaders one of revolution, instead of the cautious, bargaining spirit of the ordinary trade union? What caused the desperation of some of these strikers, and the haunting fear of some of these mill-owners? Did the mill-owners understand the minds and souls of the men and women who stand at their looms?

It is significant of the Lawrence strike that the men behind it had no faith in the justice of our citizenry. They had no faith in public opinion. "If your little Johnnie or your little Jennie," declaimed one of the leaders, "comes to you and asks for shoes or bread, will you be content to say 'I have no money for shoes or bread but public opinion is with us'?" The strike leaders seemed to believe

"Better an ounce of working class revolt than oceans of public sympathy." Why was this?

For the sovereign state of Massachusetts the strike leaders had as little respect. I witnessed in Lawrence a certain conference between the strike-leaders and a volunteer investigating committee of the state legislature. The committee was thrown upon the defensive. "What can your state do?" asked the strike-leaders. "If you find one party wrong, can your state force it to do right? Can you legislators be impartial as arbitrators, when you have not lived the bitter life of the workers? Would you arbitrate a question of life and death, and are the worst wages paid in these mills anything short of death? Do you investigate because conditions are bad, or because the workers broke loose and struck? Why did you not come *before the strike?*"

It is easy to answer that these strike leaders are incendiaries, anarchists, revolutionists. But that is no answer. Why do the mass of peaceful workmen and workwomen follow such leaders? What conditions have we allowed to grow up in Massachusetts and in other states to render such an allegiance possible or conceivable? Why do Haywood and Ettor lead, and where are the wise and patriotic citizens of Massachusetts?

When you attend the strike meetings at Lawrence you gain some insight into the reason for this leadership. I was at one meeting of the strikers, at which fifteen thousand men and women were gathered on the muddy Lawrence Common, and speeches were made in Syrian, Italian, German, and perhaps a dozen other languages. I saw in this plain of upturned white faces that mask of infinite patient resignation, which is so tragic a mark of the peasant face in eastern and southern Europe. I saw also a new obscure en-

¹Besides weekly news comment, articles on Lawrence have appeared in THE SURVEY as follows:

A Strike for Four Loaves of Bread, a news story, by Lewis E. Palmer: February 3. 25 cents.

The Significance of the Situation at Lawrence, a description of the condition of the New England woolen mill operative, by W. J. Lauck, formerly in charge of industrial investigations of the United States Immigration Commission: Feb. 17. 10 cts.

Right of Free Speech in Lawrence, by Owen R. Lovejoy, general secretary of the National Committee on Child Labor: March 9. 10 cents.

The Clod Stirs, an interpretation of a rising of races, by Robert A. Woods, headworker South End House, Boston: March 16. 10 cents.

The Lawrence Strike Hearings at Washington, by Constance D. Leupp: March 23. 10 cents.

Wages in Cotton Mills at Home and Abroad, by Earle Clark, statistician Russell Sage Foundation: March 23. 10 cents.

The Lawrence Strike, a protest by Wilbur C. Rowell, the judge before whom the cases of strikers' children were first brought: March 23. 10 cents.

thusiasm, a new halting self-confidence breaking through the mists of apathy. The souls behind these white faces were beginning to stir. The minds behind these white faces were beginning to think. They were beginning to think collectively. They were asking, "Why?"

Had these men asked, "Whom shall we follow, if not these revolutionary leaders?" we should have been hard put to it to answer. We might have replied "There is the peaceful union of textile workers, affiliated with the American Federation of Labor." But the United Textile Workers have been crushed by the manufacturers of Lawrence; they have been beaten and almost destroyed in the crash of industrial battle. We might have advised them to apply to the state governor. But the governor has no power. We might have advised an appeal to public opinion. But public opinion has been deaf and blind these many years to the conditions at Lawrence—and elsewhere. Public opinion is powerful when it is well informed. It is impotent when it is ignorant.

A few months ago we knew nothing about the conditions at Lawrence. We did not know the wages of the mill-hands? We do not know yet. We did not know their conditions, their aspirations. We do not know yet.

Wander through the alleys and byways of Lawrence and you will understand why the peaceful mill-workers were content with a leadership, more profoundly revolutionary than any in the history of American labor. The mill-hands are for the most part foreigners. One race has supplanted another at the mills, only to make place for a third. We do not know how many nationalities are represented there. We do not know how many languages are spoken, or what these mill workers say and think in their languages. We do not know.

The environment of these immigrants, lured to Lawrence from Italy and Portugal, from Poland and Russia, from Turkey and Greece is very different from what we Americans consider an American environment. Most of these workers are better off than they were in their native lands; many are worse off, but all of them are very remote from an environment

conducive to the best American citizenship.

What is the bond, the nexus, between American public opinion and the men and women who huddle in the creaking, dilapidated shanties in the worst streets of Lawrence. These future American citizens suffer no wrong in the well-lighted, well kept mills, except that their wages are low. They are told that this is the law of supply and demand. Their landlords are not cruel, except that they, like the grocers and the butchers, are always raising prices. The mill-workers are told that this too is the law of supply and demand. They are not bothered by the city or the state governments, except for an occasional kick or curse, but they receive little from either, and know little of either. They only know that the policeman carries a club. Our American public opinion passes over the heads of these people, and does not stop to see their conditions, let alone to understand them. We do not know. We do not seem to care to know.

The strike leaders were not far from wrong when they asked the legislators "*Why did you not come before the strike?*" If the Lawrence strike teaches one lesson more clearly than another it is that the people of the United States *must know*.

We must understand for Lawrence and for all the industrial communities of America the real facts about labor. We must know wages, hours, conditions, everything which is necessary to form the basis of an intelligent judgment. We shall have no time to discuss fire protection when the house is already ablaze. We must know in advance.

Lawrence is not alone, nor is Massachusetts. We are equally ignorant of equally evil conditions elsewhere. Are we to postpone our investigations until the steel mills are attacked and the railroads tied up? Are we to bury our head in the sand and plead ignorance afterwards? Are we to be held guiltless of all complicity because we did not know?

When the next great labor conflict arrives, the "innocent public" will complain that it has again to suffer from a contest which it has not evoked. As heretofore the public at the eleventh hour

will seek to investigate, to know, to understand. But it is then always too late, for in an industrial battle neither contestant can see clearly or speak truly. The innocent public will again be bewildered, and will again pay the penalty.

But is the public innocent of a conflict, if it allows the conditions to arise which produce the conflict? And is the nation without responsibility if it does not even seek to know?

The Lawrence strike teaches us that "the time has come for a new approach to the problems underlying industrial conflicts and for the elimination of such of their causes as are preventable. The federal government should summon a commission of the wisest, most public spirited and best informed citizens to re-examine," in the words of President Taft, "our laws bearing upon the relation of

employer and employe, and 'to inquire into the general conditions of labor in our principal industries; into the existing relations between employers and employes in those industries; into the various methods which have been tried for maintaining mutually satisfactory relations between employes and employers, and for avoiding or adjusting trade disputes; and into the scope, methods, and resources of federal and state bureaus of labor and the methods by which they might more adequately meet the responsibilities which, through the work of the commission above recommended, would be more clearly brought to light and defined.'"

For half a century we have blundered through a succession of fatuous errors because we did not know. It is time to know.

THE BREADTH AND DEPTH OF THE LAWRENCE OUTCOME

ROBERT A. WOODS

HEADWORKER SOUTH END HOUSE, BOSTON

The widespread results of the Lawrence strike are seen in the increase in wages which has come to some 250,000 employes in the textile factories of New England. The average weekly wage of the unskilled workers (predominantly women) at all the plants of the American Woolen Company in various places is now brought up to about \$8; and the average wage at all the smaller concerns will approximate that amount. The levelling up in economic condition thus brought about has an important meaning to the whole state of civilization in this section of the country. But the amount of this gain must depend on how quickly and broadly influences are set at work to make the higher wage standard represent a higher standard of living and of life.

This movement all along the line is the result largely of provision on the part of the mill owners lest the troubles of Lawrence be transferred to some—or, without too great a stretch of imagination—to all of the other mills. In

many cases the increase is probably not made on the basis of present earnings. There is here the most tangible recognition of a crude power of collective formation among previously unorganizable hordes of laborers, which can quickly extend itself from town to town and from state to state. The very breadth of the front of the wage increase, assuring a temporary period of industrial peace, confirms the grasp and the reach of this new power for the future. Here is a situation which alone could seriously and for years occupy the whole attention of a National Bureau of Industrial Relations.

The whole body of consumers,—that is, the public,—is in this case a direct and obvious party, because the very unanimity with which wages have been increased makes it all the easier for the mills to make the advanced prices for their products which are now being announced.

As suggesting the danger of the situation, let it be remembered that to-day in old New England some 250,000 peo-

ple, largely newcomers, with their families, look with gratitude from the heart to William D. Haywood, who though classed among Socialists is really an avowed and unrestrained Anarchist, to whom nothing in the common law of civilized nations, nothing in legislative enactment or judicial decision, nothing in any part of that moral law which is the result of untold ages of human experience, not one single joint in the recently and toilsomely reared structure of labor organization—is worthy of an instant's consideration as against his purpose. His associates in the Industrial Workers of the World are pledged to the same creed; and it is the essence of this creed to despise words. It is far from sufficient to say—what is true enough—that these men were not essential to the Lawrence strike, that the situation would

have developed in much the same way without imported leadership. The fact that these leaders should have held the center of the stage of action for the whole of New England for weeks, and are carrying away such prestige for themselves and their cause with them, represents an amount of harm which only years of aggressive educational effort can overcome. And it is an unconscionable thing that, while the program of the Western Federation of Miners when first brought forward in the Rocky Mountains was denounced continuously by every eastern organ of opinion, we see the chief exponent of that program carry the attack into the very heart of New England, with only a fitful and almost cowering protest against him from its citizenship.

THE CO-OPERATIVE FRANCO-BELGE OF LAWRENCE

JAMES FORD
HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Mere incidental reference has so far been accorded to one of the most profoundly important discoveries of the Lawrence strike, the Co-operative Franco-Belge—a true *Maison du Peuple*, prosperous and unselfish, a social democracy in miniature.

The co-operative movement of Belgium is but half as old as that of England and differs in many ways from the familiar Rochdale model. It begins with bakeries instead of groceries, and it is avowedly socialistic in aim. The Belgian co-operative movement has spread to all the cities of that land and in each has established a bakery which has been the nucleus for a social and labor center, with cafés, libraries, theater, bank, and store—headquarters of co-operators, trade unionists, and Socialists—promoter of popular education, recreation, and politics.

In America it is customary to assume complacently the inferiority of the immigrant; that the uncouth alien should import a social institution in any way superior to our own is to the average citizen unconsidered or inconceivable. The Co-operative Franco-Belge of Lawrence

would seem to demonstrate the fallacy of this popular idea. It has created new and important resources for the labor struggle and has provided constructive social education of a sort scarcely to be found elsewhere.

The Co-operative Franco-Belge was founded in Lawrence about six years ago. Membership, which was open to all families sympathetic with its purposes, is contingent upon subscription to one \$10 share. The shares, however, bear no interest, for to the Socialist mind all wealth is due to labor, and capital is unproductive. Each member's share is thus termed his *part sociale*; it may be subscribed by installments. The association now has a membership of three hundred families and conducts a yearly \$100,000 business in both groceries and bread. It sells at slightly under market price and for cash. Credit is only given upon the responsibility of the clerks and directors, who must refund the entire cost of goods unpaid for. Of the net profits of the business, 10 per cent are devoted to the reserve fund, 10 per cent more are apportioned for Socialist or co-operative

propaganda; the remainder is returned to all purchasers, whether members or not, according to the amount of their purchases. One-fourth of the dividends due to the family of a non-member are reserved until he owns a full share in the society. Last year 7 per cent dividends were distributed. One local customer who conducts a boarding house is stated to have received \$42 back as dividends on his purchases.

The association affords evidences of a co-operative idealism that is peculiarly unalloyed. Its manager receives a salary of \$15 a week, which is no more than the clerks and bakers receive. The hours of labor for the bakers are restricted to eight per day; work over-time, if performed at all, must be done by other men. Members who through misfortune are unable to pay cash for goods at the store may be loaned money from the reserve fund of the association. The association reports no losses through this system, which would seem a dangerous practice unless carried on with utmost caution.

The most important evidence of the spirit and power of the association has been the part it has played in the Lawrence strike. It had previously contributed over \$1,000 from its propaganda fund to strikers in Halluin, Belgium. When the Lawrence strike was proclaimed this society was among the first of local bodies to contribute largely to the strike fund. Furthermore it has given bread at cost price—7 cents for a 10-cent loaf—to all strikers. More important still, it was able to furnish rooms, rent-free, for headquarters of the strike and for the distribution of the *soupe populaire*, and a hall for the use of strikers of all nationalities. This contribution has been particularly valuable as in times of strike a combination of landlords of capitalist sympathies may render it difficult or impossible for strikers to secure a hall in which to hold mass meetings.

The social history of Lawrence shows many previous instances of co-operation. The famous Arlington Co-operative Association, founded in the early eighties, was at one time reported to be the largest co-operative store in America. It was



FACADE OF HALL.

The grocery of the Co-operative Franco-Belge of Lawrence occupies lower floor at the left; the strike headquarters are in front room upstairs; the bread line is served in the lower right hand room.

founded by English immigrants on the Rochdale plan, but its unscrupulous manager destroyed the association after twenty years in office through usurpation of power and through appropriation of its funds. The Lawrence Equitable Co-operative Society also failed through the greed of certain of its members. The Lithuanian Co-operative Association of Lawrence today lives only through the dominant personality of its manager. It has sacrificed its potentialities as a force for social advancement to the credit system. It carries \$4,000 of outstanding debts of its members, half of which are uncollectable, instead of inculcating habits of thrift through payment of dividends, or accumulating common profits for common improvement.

The German Co-operative Association of Lawrence is a model of successful economic co-operation. In its twenty-five-odd years of business it has distributed thousands of dollars of dividends to its members and lost no money through credit or expensive delivery systems. It still pays 12 per cent dividends on purchases.

The salient difference between these associations—good and bad—and the Co-operative Franco-Belge lies in that they have all pursued the aim of money-making, whereas the latter society has first considered its social responsibility and has made the desire for dividends subsidiary. Its present methods reduce the danger of destruction through cupidity of members to the minimum. The causes of the materialism of the Roch-

dale stores of Lawrence were the payment of interest on capital, restriction of full dividends to members, the payment of large salaries to managers, the credit system, the small allotment of profits to education and propaganda. All of these causes of materialism are eliminated in the Franco-Belge and in their place we find the tradition of the *Maison du Peuple*,—labor center, responsible for the protection and progress of the people.

A strike in Lawrence was necessary. The management of the strike may be questioned. Mistakes of threats and violence are inevitable in any case within a large population so alien and mentally impoverished as are the unskilled wage-earners of Lawrence. But the Co-operative Franco-Belge has backed ably what was the most promising source of relief

from intolerable industrial conditions.

It has shown America an institution for social improvement that is thoroughly democratic, powerful, and practicable. As an agent of evolutionary collectivism this type of co-operation if widely practised has great social value. It can teach the problems of common ownership of industry, the apportionment and reward of labor, the difficulties of adjusting interests of varied classes. It can promote constructive recreation of which the unbroken family is the unit. It can, as in Belgium, promote the art of the people—discover and develop talent. Most important, it can train leaders who will remain workingmen in their sympathies, yet will be able, as representatives of the people, to conduct all industries that should be collectively regulated or owned.

THE CHILDREN'S EXODUS FROM LAWRENCE

C. C. CARSTENS

GENERAL SECRETARY MASSACHUSETTS SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN

Nothing connected with the Lawrence strike has been more novel and at foundation more tragic than the sending of the community's children into distant cities and towns. Since that bitter cold February 10 when the first group of one hundred and nineteen children, ranging in age from four to fourteen, were sent to New York, about thirty have also been sent to Barre, Vt., forty to Philadelphia, an additional ninety-two to New York, and perhaps forty to Manchester, N. H.

This "placing out" of children by their own parents was in large measure undertaken only after deliberation and after careful and, on the whole, satisfactory plans had been made for the children's reception by communities of other cities.

As is usual, however, in such times of stress, the pressure of apparent necessity was augmented by a measure of coercion and threat. In certain instances children were sent away because parents had been urged to do so and they feared that the relief needed would not be adequate or would be withheld altogether, if the children were not sent. In other instances the parents thought lightly of sending them away for a few weeks, as

if on a vacation, without realizing where and into what uncertain care the children were going. Some children who always "ruled the ranch" anyway, went away of their own accord and in a few cases children were taken contrary to the parents' or guardians' wishes.

The solidarity which the textile workers of Lawrence, though including at least nineteen nationalities, have evinced, is certainly a new phenomenon in American strikes. It is no wonder, therefore, that the readiness on the part of sympathizers in other cities to care for strikers' children expressing an extension of this solidarity led to an enthusiastic falling in with plans when cool judgment would have kept children under their own roof tree.

The fact that certain children had been sent away without their parents' consent and that the journey had proved a hardship to certain others of the first party, led the newly appointed chief of police to protest against sending any more, and a group of fifteen children were prevented from leaving the city. This was done under a statute that is used perhaps every day by the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Chil-

dren which declares a child neglected who, by reason of the neglect of its parents, "is growing up without education, without salutary control, without proper physical care or under circumstances exposing him to lead an idle and dissolute life," and under this statute the court may commit such a child to the care of the State Board of Charity who would usually place the child in a new family home.

Judge Rowell, sitting as special justice in the absence of Judge Mahoney, held court on the day the children were prevented from going, and stated that "the willingness of parents to send their children away without proper provision for their care might under some circumstances be sufficient evidence of the kind of neglect described in the statute," and ordered the children to be committed to the care of the probation officer for juveniles until the following juvenile court day.

They were temporarily sheltered in the City Home but most of them were returned into the parents' custody the same day upon assurance being given that the children would appear at the hearing. While perhaps a strict, technical interpretation would register the parents as paupers, as previously stated in *THE SURVEY*,¹ this did not in fact actually occur and these children were temporarily sheltered as other children and adults are during the year without getting a pauper record.

On juvenile day Judge Mahoney after a partial hearing continued the cases pending an investigation of each individual case by a committee consisting of the city solicitor, the two attorneys appearing for the parents, the probation officer for juveniles and the local agent of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. As a result of these inquiries, such of the parents as were willing and able to resume charge of their children were allowed to do so, and all the cases except two were dismissed.

By the terms of the statute the state of Massachusetts deemed itself an interested party in the disposition of its children, even though the parents had

given their full consent to have them taken away. We must all agree that the removal of the children, even with the parents' consent, to a place where they might be brought up as thieves or prostitutes, would certainly be an offense quite within the statute, but whether such irregularities as had occurred in getting parents' consent and in actually sending children away, as were known to the police and the court, were of such a nature as to justify the officers in apprehending danger for these children, in view of the good faith of the children's committees of the various cities and the almost invariably good care that had been furnished, is a question open to honest differences of opinion and one that has led to serious criticism throughout the nation.

On the whole those removed from the scene of action have perhaps been inclined to censure the police for what seemed like interference with a desire of the parents to send children from a place of want to one of plenty. It must, however, be kept in mind that the strike funds of the Industrial Workers of the World had at all times been ample to provide for families on strike, and church, general and neighborhood charity have been ready and able to meet all additional needs. It was rather because the sending of children away from Lawrence seemed an un-American and an unnecessary "war measure" which hurt the community's pride that vigorous steps were taken to prevent the children's going. There is no doubt that the police authorities concerned are entitled to the credit of having acted with sincere good intentions and upon grounds not wholly unreasonable.

Some difficulties are already being encountered by parents in having the children returned, and it is not impossible that some among the entire number sent away will never get back home. As a result of the action of the officers, conditions surrounding the later sending were much improved, and no more children were taken away in the irresponsible manner which characterized the first exodus, and until the authorities were satisfied that the children were going with the parents' consent.

¹See *THE SURVEY*, March 2, 1912, p. 1822.

THE LABOR WAR AT LAWRENCE

MARY K. O'SULLIVAN

[Mrs. O'Sullivan is the first of the old line labor leaders in America to challenge the organizations which have built up the trade union movement of the United States, to adjust their policies and spirit to the industrial changes which have been going forward in the last twenty years and to voice the needs of the whole of the labor force rather than merely the ranks of the skilled workers. Mrs. O'Sullivan organized the Women's Bookbinders' Union, No. 1 in Chicago and Boston in 1884, became in 1892 the first woman organizer of the American Federation of Labor and was the first woman to preside at its annual conventions. With William English Walling, Mrs. O'Sullivan organized the Women's Trade Union League of America in 1903. She at present carries a card of the News Writers' Union of Boston.

Throughout the Lawrence strike, Mrs. O'Sullivan was in touch with the Strikers' Committee, with the representatives of the state, and with the employers, and performed important services at different junctures. It is, therefore, as a life-long friend of an old organization falling on new days, and of a keen observer watching the work of a new organization, that she writes this, her first interpretation of the meaning of the Lawrence strike to organized labor.]

"We were drowning men ready to grasp at a straw when the Industrial Workers of the World appeared to save us," said more than one striker in Lawrence.

First of all, it must be understood that the Lawrence strike was not caused either by the Industrial Workers of the World or by the reduction of the working week from fifty-six to fifty-four hours with the ensuing loss of pay. The reduction was only the last straw in a situation that the workers could not endure longer. The many injustices of the section boss with his personal discrimination against men and women who refuse to submit to his standards helped to bring on a rebellion. The rise in cost of living during the last two years, including increased rents, had reduced the mill hands to an extremity where the loss of a few cents weekly in their wages became a calamity in hundreds of homes. At the turn of the year, then, the strike began spontaneously without any recognized leadership.

Up to the present time, the Textile Workers of the American Federation of Labor have failed to organize the unskilled and underpaid workers. Blocked by the mill interests, they have been defeated in their larger efforts for the skilled workers, and they have neglected the interests of the unskilled. They have ignored their capacity for strength and failed to win them to their cause or to better their condition.

In the past the foreigners have been the element through which strikes in the

textile industry have been lost. This is the first time in the history of our labor struggles that the foreigners have stood to the man to better their conditions as underpaid workers. The Textile Workers had only one permanent organization at Lawrence at the beginning of the strike (the Mule Spinners' Union), while the Industrial Workers of the World had not any direct organization within the industry. Many of the unskilled workers, however, had independent unions not affiliated with any national organization. John Golden, the official head of the Textile Workers of America, instead of remaining in Lawrence and fighting for the interests of the workers, went to Boston and was reported to have denounced the strike as being led by a band of revolutionists, thus leaving them to be organized by any persons who might choose to use or to help them. This was the first time in the history of the American Federation movement that a leader failed the people in his industry.

Members of the Industrial Workers of the World sent for Joe Ettor and in four days he organized a fighting unit such as never existed in New England before. At the head of it was a strikers' committee representing eighteen nationalities and composed of fifty-six members, each with an alternate trained to act in case of the disablement of his principal. This committee was organized, not to represent the Industrial Workers of the World, but to win the strike; and when it first met not a half

dozen of its members were inside the ranks of that organization. Even at the close of the strike only a minority of the committee belonged to the Industrial Workers of the World. In this connection it is worth noting that the riots, to which such exception has been taken, occurred before Ettor's organization was effected, when the strikers gathered about the mills as an organized mob and mill bosses turned streams of water upon them in zero weather. After the "blood-stained Anarchists" arrived on the scene, a policy of non-resistance to the aggressions of the police and the militia prevailed. It is worth remembering, also, that thousands of striking operatives never attended a meeting of any sort. They sat in their homes, trusting their leaders, and determined to stay out until these leaders gave the word to go back to the mills.

The strike developed leadership among the workers of the most surprising caliber and personality,—women such as Mrs. Wessenback, the highest paid worker and expert mender in the mill, who stood out for the despised foreigner; the underpaid skilled workers such as Riley and Adamson of the committee, who with others developed into remarkable leaders in the struggle; Yates, a textile worker up till the time of the strike who had been a mill hand since he was ten years of age, and who showed unexampled executive ability. He will be heard from from now on. These men represent to me as an old trade unionist, the old religion and the spirit of the trade union movement when men worked for the cause regardless of consideration.

In the long run, from the organizer's standpoint this new insurgent movement may be the best possible thing that could happen to the labor unions of America. On the one hand the success of this struggle is a warning to employers who are on the job that they can no longer afford to beat down and block conservative organizations that stand for contracts and trade agreements which give the management a guarantee and surety in making estimates in business. On the other

hand, the trade union with a vision will also profit by this note of warning.

There were many seeming injustices done the strikers, such as the arrest of Mrs. Wessenback and her two sisters. The evidence brought out in their trial for alleged intimidation fell flat; it was clearly a pretense to make an example of well-known workers who had thrown their lot in with the strike. Yet these girls were arrested in the middle of the night, made to dress and taken from their lodgings to the lock-up. More consideration than that was shown the murderer of Avis Linnell at Boston. One of these girls was so young that she had to go to the juvenile court to be tried. Her, they fined \$5; her sisters, \$20 each. A Syrian father who was buying milk for his child in the morning, was told to go back in the house by a militiaman and because he did not obey or understand, whichever the case might be, the militiaman as he passed him by struck him across the face and broke his cheek bone. The killing of the young Syrian boy who was told to move, by running a bayonet through him, murdering him, all these injustices, created in the hearts of the people a distrust for those seeming to oppose them.

Nothing was so conducive to organization by the Industrial Workers of the World as the methods used by the three branches of the American Federation of Labor. These were the Lawrence Central Labor Union, the Boston Women's Trade Union League, and the Textile Workers of America. Catholics, Jews, Protestants, and unbelievers—men and women of many races and languages,—were working together as human beings with a common cause. The American Federation of Labor alone refused to cooperate. As a consequence, the strikers came to look upon the federation as a force almost as dangerous to their success as the force of the employers themselves, and I violate no confidence in saying that the operatives represented in the strike committee have more respect for the mill owners than for the leaders of this antagonistic element within their own ranks. A striker who went to the federation for relief was looked

upon as recreant to his cause and before the strike ended the American Federation of Labor organizations, by openly refusing to give help to anyone who refused to return to work, came to be looked upon as a trap designed in the interests of the mills to catch any workers who could be induced to desert their cause.

This opposition gathered all the recruits possible from the ranks of the strikers; they offered the mill owners a scale of demands in the hope that the employers would make the necessary concessions and that enough workers would then return to the mills to break the strike and leave the opposition in command of the field. The mill owners refused to deal with an organization whose recruits were so few in numbers and therefore could not settle the strike. The crusade against the exportation of children, which resulted in the deplorable incident at the railway station where women were clubbed by the police, was one of the direct results of their agitation. The heckling continued until the end of the strike when the courts were called into use to handicap the strike by demanding an accounting of the funds. This injunction was sought by the Rev. Herbert S. Johnson, Robert A. Woods, a social worker, Judge Leverony of the Juvenile Court, and Mr. Pendergast, an attorney.

In 1894 I helped to raise \$75,000 for the Fall River strikers, and John Golden was in charge of the fund. The courts were not then asked for an accounting and to expose their war chest to the inspection of their enemies. Why this discrimination?

It will be hard to find any fair minded person who went to Lawrence during the strike and examined the conditions there who is not fully in accord with the object of the strikers. Everyone who knows the situation admits that their cause is just. Yet there is in Boston a group of social workers who have not gone to Lawrence, who are believed to have been guided by the

president of the Textile Workers of America, and who have fought the strikers from the beginning. Among them are some who have asserted that it would be better for the strike to be lost than to obtain a settlement through the general strike committee. These social workers know or should know that under the old regime, children, thousands of them, suffered from under-feeding, and that other children as old as nine years have never seen the inside of a schoolhouse because they have no clothes.

The acts championed by these obstructionists must, of course, be attributed either to the American Federation of Labor as an organization or to the leader of its New England forces as an individual. The influence of Mr. Golden with the power and prestige of the American Federation of Labor in the background, has proved astounding. Yet, judging by the relief funds that have continued to pour in to the general strike committee from unions in the American Federation, the organization as a whole could not have approved his acts. The newspapers appear to have relied upon him and upon the Lawrence police for information. It is this fact that accounts for the wide difference of opinion between those persons, social workers and public spirited citizens, who have gone to Lawrence and studied conditions at first hand and those others who have been guided by Mr. Golden and the newspapers.

I want to add an expression of personal opinion, based on twenty-six years' active experience in the labor movement. The sub-committee of Lawrence strikers which conducted the negotiations that ended in a victory for all the textile workers of New England, is the most unselfish strike committee I have ever known. With two exceptions its members are skilled workers in the Lawrence mills. It was at the suggestion of these skilled workers that the lowest paid, unskilled workers of Lawrence received the largest advance in wages and the highest skilled workers received the smallest.

STATEMENTS BY PEOPLE WHO TOOK PART

THE SITUATION AS SEEN BY A MANUFACTURER

The most audacious and preposterous lies have been given out by the outside anarchists of the Industrial Workers of the World order of socialists about the Lawrence strike, so-called. It was not a strike properly; there had been no general demand for advanced wages and no leaving of work because any advance had been refused; it had little to do with the reduction of hours except as an occasion. Notice had been given of the change, and in Lowell the 54-hour schedule had been in operation for more than a month without disturbance. Besides, mills had been on short time owing to bad trade so that the practical effect of shortened hours had been shown.

The trouble began with an outside armed mob *breaking into* the mills where the operatives were at work, cutting belts and warps, striking the people at work, driving them out, stopping engines, smashing windows and firing pistol shots. The object was to enforce a general stoppage to secure the granting of exorbitant demands. The mills kept open (with one exception), as the people wished to work and gradually filled up to 50 per cent and 70 per cent except in the mills of the American Woolen Company. Meantime a great amount of violence and intimidation continued away from the militia or police patrol, and at night. This kept many away from the mills.

It was felt that the conditions of trade did not warrant an advance in wages at that time. Buyers were unwilling to give orders for forward delivery owing to general distrust and to the menace of a sharp reduction of tariff rates in cotton and especially the woolen schedule. Ettor, Haywood, and others, the leaders in the disturbance, were from outside the state, in no way connected with the mills, and bitterly denounced by the regular textile unions.

It was felt also that any concession then would be yielding to the Industrial Workers of the World anarchists, and that it would be very injurious permanently to the textile industries of the commonwealth and to all its industries and those of New England—Massachusetts being also hampered by its 54-hour law against 58 in New Hampshire and other New England states and even more in some southern states. This view as to concession was held by most of the textile mills in Lawrence, but finally one mill gave way and its advance in wages was of necessity followed

by others in the same line of work, and later by the cotton mills of New England; though it was very hard on cotton manufacturing which had had a year of bad trade and heavy losses.

The wages in the worsted mills in Lawrence were higher than anywhere else in the country, according to the report of the Tariff Board, and the board's accountants had free access to the mills' own accounts. The wages are about double those in Europe and have drawn thousands of operatives to this country.

Gross misstatements as to the wages in the mills have been made. It was said that the average wage in the worsted mills was \$6, whereas it was over \$9. One of the operatives of one of the American Woolen Company's mills stated to the congressional committee that his wages were less than nine dollars per week whereas the payroll book showed that he had been receiving over eleven dollars for a year and for 52 hours a week when the full time was 56 hours.

The contract labor law has a very bad effect. Except for it, skilled operatives could have been hired to come over with their families, but now one must rely on the chance immigrant—ignorant, unskilled, of many undesirable nationalities, ready, for the sake of saving money, to live in very undesirable conditions. This is not necessary, and others with the same wages do not live so. It is to be considered also that several members of a family work in the mills, and of course the combined wages are often a very considerable sum. One French-Canadian family had seven operatives in a mill in New Hampshire, it is said, out of a family of sixteen children.

A MILL OVERSEER'S VIEW

I am an overseer in the _____ mills, having held that position for the past twenty-five to twenty-six years. I am not speaking from the mill side, only as a paid overseer, but as a public duty.

For the past seven weeks I have had opportunity to spend very little time at home. I have been out in any and every direction, slums, club rooms, etc., watching events. I am employing some forty foreigners whom I have defended and protected; notably, several years ago against a Russian Jew who was exploiting them and robbed them of about \$2,000. These men all call me father. I have never had occasion to drive them; they work faithfully. I never curse or bully, and if a man does not suit me I caution him once, then let him go.

Now for facts. These men were satisfied and wanted to go on working. I promised to ask for more pay for them along with twenty-five or thirty others I will call Anglo-Saxonized or English-speaking. I told them to send in a petition which they did, and the 1 cent per hour asked for was granted, the English-speaking men working right along with the exception of about three of them. The Russians were paid one-half cent less than the English-speaking because I could not utilize them as well. They could do only certain parts of the work. However, they proved their worth, and without my asking, just on the report I gave, their pay was raised 1½ cents per hour, putting them on a par with the rest.

Yet they do not come in. Why? The Industrial Workers of the World has power over the poor ignorant fellows and they are threatened with throat-cutting, window smashing and breaking of arms, scalding water and vitriol throwing.

I pooh-poohed it at first. The way they do is this: The addresses of the men working are given to a committee. They are visited after nine o'clock at night by strangers, generally Poles. "Working today?" "Yah" (the man speaking has a sharp knife and is whittling a stick). "Work tomorrow?" "I d'no." "If you work tomorrow I cut your throat." "No, no, I no work." "Shake." And they shake hands.

This has been done many times. I have visited them in their tenements. A week ago yesterday I had seven working and five quit. One of the two lives apart from the congested part of the Russian settlement. He came to my office. "Come with me," he said. "I no afraid of you, come. I get you men." So I went. Three men were there besides two of my men. I saw that they were strangers and that one was whittling a piece of wood. I went to him and said: "Give me that knife." I took hold of it and he gave it up. I put it on the table and said, "Now, what do you want. Let me know what you expect to gain." Two more strangers came up and began a rather sad story of abuse and I believed it.

So I said "Well, leave that boss and come and work for me. I give more pay. Don't curse, don't drive, but want a good day's work. I will give you all a job. Come on, what do you say?"

Then he answered, "Na, na, not till strike out."

I accomplished nothing.

Yesterday I went to tell some of them about the raid, when a crowd came in from a back room and spoke excitedly. Only two or three of my men were there. I waited for the interpreter to speak, and he said:

"They say you have had the detective in your office and tried to get your men guns to shoot the strikers with."

And I said, "Yes, that's right; I did because my men have been threatened with

throat-cutting and you have broken their windows and I have the names of many of the men who have done the threatening."

The danger point is here. These men are not clever enough to do the planning which is the work of anarchy, and I am afraid it came in with Haywood whose statements are very erratic. He knows nothing of conditions here. All he knows is defiance of law and order. I approve of higher wages by all means. They mean a better "home market" in every sense of the word. All concerns are not alike and I am afraid there will be countenancing of anarchy if we are not careful. Much has been erroneously exaggerated. The Slavs and the Latin races are money savers. They come here with greed to save, live in dives until they have accumulated a pot. Their method allows \$1.25 a week for sleeping, four to eight in a room,—with washing, cooking and bread. Any of our Russians can show from \$200 to \$1,200.

The Anglo-Saxon or Anglo-Saxonized live under our conditions and are self-reliant.

A MILITIA MAN'S EXPERIENCES

The two weeks which I spent in Lawrence as a member of the militia convinced me that a wrong use was made of the soldiers in this strike. While the militia was admirably managed the fault lay in the attempt to make policemen out of soldiers.

There was too much of the feeling that we were fighting on the side of the mill owners. Our orders were to guard the mill and the mill property and to keep strikers who were known to us or were wearing badges from approaching within two streets of the mills. No one of us felt that he was like a policeman in the employ of the city to do justice to all its citizens. We were quartered at a mill and were fighting on the side of the mill men to protect them from the violence of the enemy. We had excellent accommodations at the mill and were constantly receiving favors from the mill men.

We went to Lawrence during what was expected to be the critical week of the strike. During the week the newspapers reported riots and prospective riots. We saw nearly everything which happened and there was nothing of a serious nature. Newspaper reports were absolutely false. One occurrence which was featured as a "riot" in extras was the largest demonstration which occurred and was entirely peaceful. The north side of Essex Street was crowded with strikers who walked along in groups. The police decided that there were too many and turned the head of the procession up a side street. A few resisted this and were arrested.

The orders to allow no parades or gatherings were rather indefinite and were interpreted to forbid two men from standing together on a street corner, an excellent provision against an enemy in war but one hardly

fair to American citizens in Lawrence, Mass.

The attempt to use us as policemen resulted in the injustice of making the section on the mill side of Essex Street a patrolled camp. At night every one who went to Canal Street was challenged and no one was allowed to pass unless he lived there. Had the strikers been better acquainted with their rights as American citizens they would undoubtedly have struggled with us when we calmly overrode their rights on the theory that the strike was similar to a war. In one case at noon two men were standing on a corner across the street from the mill doing nothing and wearing no badges. The watchman at the entrance of the mill signalled to me to make these men move on. When I talked with him he said the men were pickets and were frightening the people who were going in. I reported this to the officer of the guard who told me to make the men move on.

Through a natural error another man who looked very much like one of the two excluded was stopped at the head of our street. By the time we had discovered that he was a different man he was considerably enraged. This was partly our own fault, but more the fault of attempting to apply militia principles when policemen would have been sufficient to preserve the peace.

A soldier naturally takes sides. A policeman ought not to. No policeman ought to receive favors constantly from one side. No officer thought it a part of his duty to inquire whether the tiny children who were employed to help run the mills during the strike were fourteen years old or not.

I doubt whether any officer of the militia was particularly interested in protecting the strikers. Nothing was said to us about their rights, and no suggestion was handed down that we should treat both sides fairly.

I had always supposed that militia were used in strikes to quell riots and not to patrol the mill district and keep strikers away from it. This form of injustice in the republican commonwealth of Massachusetts resulted from the attempt to replace the Lawrence police force with militia. It was not the fault of the militia which fought the strikers in a proper military fashion.

We have a district police in name, but in fact it is an attempt at an Inspection Bureau, a Licensing Bureau, and a Detective Bureau. The extraneous departments should be removed from the control of this board and it should be made in reality a police force capable of taking care of such emergencies as the failure of the Lawrence police force. The militia ought not again to be placed at the service of the mill owners.

FOR JUSTICE SAKE

[This address delivered by Prof. Vida D. Scudder at a Lawrence meeting may be regarded as one of the historic documents of the Lawrence strike.]

Garbled accounts were published in the Boston newspapers, and the Boston Evening Transcript called for Miss Scudder's resignation from the faculty of Wellesley. It is reprinted here from the Boston Common which published it with a note that the Transcript, following its strictures, refused to print it.]

We, who do not live in Lawrence, must speak and feel with great caution in the midst of the trouble and excitement that now prevail here, yet I think certain great principles stand out clearly enough to justify this meeting.

Many hundred years ago a young Hebrew working man—later executed as a demagogue—said a strange thing: "Blessed are ye when men shall revile you and persecute you." Yesterday the words kept ringing in my ears.

The strikers at Lawrence have certainly been harshly spoken of, if not reviled. We hear that they are at the mercy of bad demagogues; that they prefer to live herded like cattle, thereby lowering the life standard and the wages of native born Americans; that they have at the same time large hoardings in the banks, which they send out of the country; that they show a tendency to turbulence and violence, so that militia and police are needed to restrain them.

Have they been persecuted, also? No one, looking at the situation from outside as I do, can be sure; and I have perhaps no right to any personal opinion in the midst of the conflicting testimony which I have heard. But if it be true that their leader has been illegally refused bail; if women seeking the intimate right of parents to send their children away on visits have been roughly handled; if young girls who have offended only in speech have been dragged from their beds at midnight to the police court; if self-respecting people have been detained in the workhouse unnecessarily—

Then persecution of a fairly plain type has not been unknown at Lawrence.

Now, if this be the case, the people who should prevent any continuation or recurrence of it are the conservative and well-to-do citizens of the town. There is always a large body of the general disinterested public in a town at any such crisis; it is easy for them

to remain passive; but they have a rôle and a duty—the rôle, the duty of seeing that there is no invasion or over-riding of the law, especially on the part of the constituted authorities. If they do not perform this duty, their responsibility is very grave; if they condone any violation or forcing of the law, under no matter how great a stress, they are exposing us all to peril. A sweet woman in Lawrence said to me today, defending the possible disregard of the law on the part of the police: "They were preventing the exploitation of children, and it was more important for them to observe the moral law than a mere legality." That is a dangerous position. A similar one on the other side would call out instant reprobation. *Strict observance of law is our one safety* in a time like this. In the hope of strengthening the sense of law, of asserting the necessity of firm, straight, even-handed justice, this meeting has been called.

Justice! It is a good word for Lawrence and for us all to ponder. How much has it prevailed here? Back of these unfortunate sporadic acts, for which the responsibility will probably never be fixed—acts which have broken out like an eruption in a diseased body—lies the whole situation in the textile industries. And the country is becoming aware that this situation is not one which Americans like to contemplate. How wise is Victor Berger, when he reminds Congress that Schedule K was passed on the plea of protecting American labor with a high tariff—and then bids them listen to the life stories of the Lawrence workers! Estimates given by our most trustworthy and untrammelled journals, by *THE SURVEY*, *The Outlook*, *The Boston Common*, show that decent manhood and womanhood are impossible on the earnings of an appreciable proportion of the mill people here. That is what lies back of this strike.

What is the way out? That is not for me to tell. One obvious way is that for which able and wise men and women, quite outside the ranks of labor, are fighting this season: The establishment by law of a minimum wage for the state of Massachusetts. The workers—the Industrial Workers of the World and the American Federation of Labor—are not the only people in Massachusetts bitterly distressed over the wage conditions that at some points obtain here. If such a bill should pass it would be the first step in a reform which would render impossible just what has caused this strike. What we of the general public would like to see would be a board of government experts who should determine just what wages the woolen trades could carry consistently with reasonable profits to their stockholders and to the manufacturers.

And I speak for the New England of our fathers when I say that if such wages are (even for the least skilled of the workers) below the standard necessary to maintain men and women in decency and health, then the

woolen industry has not a present right to exist in Massachusetts. For the first point in any industry is that it shall be competent to support its workers in honor. So my master, Kuskin, said long ago. So we are gradually learning.

I speak for thousands beside myself when I say that I would rather never again wear a thread of woolen than know that my garments had been woven at the cost of such misery as I have seen and known, past the shadow of a doubt, to have existed in this town.

We have strayed from the quotation with which I began: "Blessed," it said, "are those persecuted." Blessed? It is a strange saying.

But wait! The quotation is not ended yet. "*Blessed*," it runs, "are those who are persecuted for righteousness' sake." Another and perhaps better translation runs: "*For justice's sake*."

Is it for justice's sake that the strikers of Lawrence suffer?

I do not know. I am here as a stranger who feels the necessity of bearing witness to great principles; not as one who has known from within the complex situation in your city.

But this I can say: I went home yesterday giving thanks that at least certain ends of justice are being served here. For in the meeting of the strike committee which I attended yesterday morning I saw two such great ends achieved; ends for which we social workers and reformers spend our lives, too often in vain. The first was the end of Fraternity. Men of different tongues and alien traditions were bound into one dogged unity of purpose; and vibrations of brotherhood ran through that great assembly, so strong, so full of life and love, that I believe they augur a future when, in America, those of differing races shall, indeed, be of one heart, one mind, one soul. And the other end is that of Vision: For on every man and woman there had flashed the vision of a just society, based on fair reward to labor and on fraternal peace.

At many points I might differ and did differ from the policy endorsed at that meeting. I am no member of the Industrial Workers of the World. Yet I give thanks that those two great and noble ends are being achieved through this union of the workers: *Fraternity* and *Hope*.

And the sufferings that the strike has brought, from whatever source, from whichever side or cause, may they, too, inherit the blessing? Yes! If they help to arouse the American nation till it shall tolerate them no longer. Then, indeed, shall every pang, whether of hunger or of outraged feeling, play its part in that struggle for justice in which life itself is well spent.

Only, my friends, let us see to it that all our suffering be indeed for justice, for righteousness' sake. Riot, even under severest provocation, does not make for justice. See to it, you citizens, that you keep an impartial mind, quick to compassion, free from preju-

as well as local officials, mayors, sheriffs, etc., that seemed worth its while. There was not a scrap of "representative government." Los Angeles has now freed itself from this slavery and has, at least, the beginnings of a democratic society. Economically and politically, it presents one of the most advanced policies in the United States. It has plans as daring as they are definite for municipal ownership on a great scale. Initiative, referendum and recall are accepted political commonplaces. Why then this huge protest of 52,000 Socialist votes? To answer this question for Los Angeles is to answer it for the country at large. There are other reasons, but none more enlightening than the history of trade unions in that city. Nowhere has the attempt to crush the unions been so noisy, so open and so aggressive as under the leadership of General Otis. To succeed in this meant economic advantage against their most dreaded rival, San Francisco. But the crippling of the unions did not end here. The more they were weakened as separate crafts, the more solidly they were driven together into a class-conscious mass, certain, when the moment came, to act together politically. The most scathing criticism which I heard against General Otis and those who worked with him, was not from the printers or from any other workingmen, but from business men and leaders in the Good Government cause. It was the fruit of the Otis spirit which set the teeth of these gentlemen on edge. From W. J. Burns, I heard the results of his first investigations, that the McNamaras were guilty. I never had a moment's doubt or that they and their kind should take their punishment. It would seem to me, however, a stark misfortune if the American people were merely to gloat over this result.

What one wishes to know further, is why some millions of our fellow citizens so instantly and so instinctively joined hands to defend these men. What was the power that hushed at once very bitter differences in the labor world? Why should Mr. Gompers with his long and bitter hatred of Socialists go to Los Angeles and speak passionately for Job Harriman, the Socialist candidate for mayor? The labor leader whom I have long thought to be one of the most intelligent and honest men in the movement said to me in the beginning, "But we have got to do it. We must stand together." He felt this necessity precisely as the Los Angeles workmen felt impelled to join forces against "successful activities like good government." Victories like those of General Otis wherever we find them are an instant asset for Socialistic propaganda. They are just as directly an asset for the I. W. W. with its drift toward Anarchism.

The origin of syndicalism, both in France and in this country, is fairly clear. Some sixteen years ago it appeared in France as a protest against those Socialists who had become disciplined enough to recognize the necessity of orderly and parliamentary

methods of reform. To most impatient extremists these legal processes were tediously ineffective. It had already appeared that a Socialist mayor could bring things to pass socialistically only by slow and wearisome processes.

The syndicalists were in a hurry and demanded "action," from which came the familiar phrase "direct actionists." They are now a powerful group in France, having among them at least two professors and some brilliant men like George Sorel. Another exhausts much ingenuity in trying to use William James's "Pragmatism" as the philosophic expression of syndicalism. This is grotesque but worth nothing as an attempt to give the color of authoritative sanction to the movement.

What then is the method of these men-in-a-hurry? Hardly a dozen years ago, Briand, the last prime minister, was commonly called the father of this method, which was "the general strike," a strike not of separate unions or even of narrowly affiliated unions, but a strike made possible by bringing into an inclusive union all the "industrial workers of the world," the I. W. W. At the present moment in our own country it is rapidly developing a considerable literature with at least five regular periodicals.

In 1905 it held in Chicago its first convention. Its week's proceedings fill a stiff volume, in which the "labor fakers," under Mr. Gompers's leadership get rank abuse. It is assumed that the trade union movement, as now organized, has failed. Trade agreements are of the devil, because they "recognize" the employing classes, instead of warring outright against them. This warfare is to be carried on through "the general strike." Those who claim to be the philosophers of the movement urge solemnly that no violence should be permitted. "Violence," says one of them, "is reactionary and out of date. It is moreover useless, as we have only to quit work and the whole capitalist machinery is at a standstill." To the obvious objection that labor in this hazardous game would be first to suffer, the syndicalist has his answer. "If a portion only struck, they would suffer, but if all quit work together, the helplessness of capitalism will be disclosed at once."

I asked a speaker in San Francisco who had used this phrase, if he meant to tell us that the general mass of the workers was now prepared at any moment to step in and manage the business world—finance, transportation, factories, and all the rest?

He answered "Yes, we are doing the real work now, only we get one-seventh of what we produce. We propose to have seven-sevenths."

This assumption that labor is now equipped to take over the management of our industrial system reveals the essential insanity of the I. W. W. as it now expresses itself in the United States. "Paralysis" is the fitting word for it, but the disease would include the laborers first of all. They do not even trust to the

more disciplined part of labor, but include the entire unweeded mass—tramp and all.

W. D. Haywood of Cripple Creek fame is very busy with this propaganda. He has much to say of "the man in the gutter." After stormy attacks on the snobberies of the trade union he insists upon the immediate inclusion of tramp and gutter bird. "He is as good as the eight dollar a day man." It is useless to discuss opinions like this. We have moreover a good deal of evidence about the general strike. For nearly ten years there have been in Spain, Russia, Holland, Sweden and recently in France and England, partial illustrations of this policy. I have long believed that the general strike, if used with restraint, might have great uses politically—as in the Belgian fight for more equal suffrage. It may have such uses in the future. It may conceivably have economic uses, if its forces can be controlled. Thus far, however, every attempt known to us gives little hope that such control is possible. The more the general strike succeeds, the more poignant becomes the fact that the interests of Mr. Haywood's "man in the gutter" are not the interests of the "eight dollar a day man." They conflict more sharply than well paid labor conflicts with the employer. Tragically or humorously this has again and again appeared in attempts at the general strike. In England last summer, during the railroad troubles several hundred strikers left for a seashore resort. It is customary on such occasions to buy a return ticket, then you may spend the last penny and be sure of the ride home. In this instance the strike became more "general" still, extending to the trains on which the picnickers had relied to bring them home. Some were thirty miles away, and to their immense disgust, men, women and children had to trudge home on foot. Except by the workers, this was put down among the gayeties of the uprising. The "general strike" (never more than very partial strikes) in Sweden had begun already to turn into innumerable tragedies in the poorer homes before the end came.

I have seen no word of it in the press, but the great strike on the Harriman lines had in it the spirit of the I. W. W. There was first the demand for "recognition"; not recognition of engineers, switchmen or brakemen, but for the entire body in spite of difficulties with contracts and separate trade agreements. Probably more than thirty thousand men have been dropped. It has cost the road enormous sums of money, but the families of several thousand workmen have suffered incomparably more.

An official who had been fighting the strike for months told me that his heaviest task was in meeting the pleading wives of the strikers.

I am not using this illustration as an argument against strikes, but only to throw light on the kind of conflict which the I. W. W., as now managed, will introduce into our labor perplexities, and has apparently introduced into Massachusetts.

There is, however, this reality in the I. W. W., that it recognizes the obvious tendency to closer organic affiliation among craft unions.

There is, further, something to be seriously reckoned with in its policy of "folding the hands." "Don't lift your hands against anybody or anything," said a speaker in Fresno, Cal., "just fold 'em."

In the railroad strike which put the government at its wits' ends in France, it was syndicalism in its higher aspects when a committee voted against all violence, but to do two things—(1) strictly obey the railroad schedules, and (2) shift the directing cards on the cars.

Literally to obey every railroad regulation would put a riot of confusion (as it, in this instance, did) into the system. To shift the cards meant that freight of all sorts destined to one town turned up far away at another. Hundreds of tons of fruits and vegetables perished en route. One of the strikes included the bakers. They vote against all violence, but to put castor oil into the bread. Is this like Mr. Ettor's suggestion about emery dust in the machines? In two Western towns the police stop I. W. W. men from speaking on the street, putting two of them in the lockup. The crusaders instantly call in several hundred of their knights ready to be housed and fed at the town's expense. Troops of them break the law in a single night. The mayor of this town is said to have exclaimed, "But if anybody has got to board and lodge this army, it won't be this town; let 'em go quick and speak as much as they like in the next town." We are likely enough to have in the near future many picturesque illustrations of this "sabotage." But as now directed in this country, it is sure to turn against itself the whole body of Socialists who are enlisting under parliamentary methods of reform whether in state or city. Not one of our fifty Socialist mayors will find it possible to play the semi-Anarchist role and at the same time bear the burdens of a constructive city administration.

It will be hotly disputed, but I believe the real origin of the I. W. W. in this country was the miners' struggle in Colorado seven years ago. Scarcely had the Haywood-Moyer incident closed before steps were taken to organize this movement. The very men prominent in that embittered strike were at the front.

I saw at the time in Colorado a letter from one of these men ordering a very formidable job lot of rifles and cartridges. Even if the rank lawlessness on the employees' side be offered in extenuation, it is a spirit that no constructive policy can tolerate. With more or less disguise, it is the spirit of the Anarchist and as such will develop its own inveterate hostility toward society as it now exists and also toward every form of Socialism which commits itself to changes secured through recognized political agencies.

[In an early issue of THE SURVEY Mr. Brooks will discuss further the subject of this article.—Ed.]

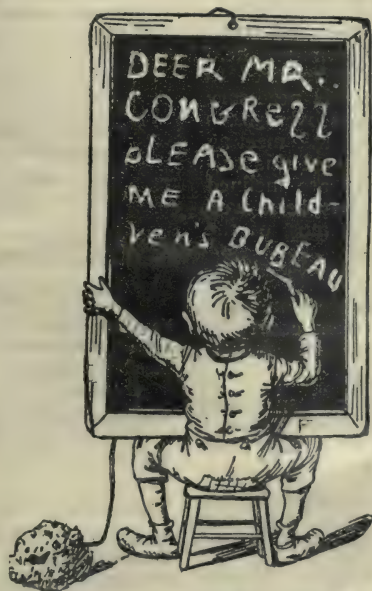
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THE SURVEY

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THE PITH OF IT

Two bills, for which many social workers have long striven, passed Congress last week—the Esch-Hughes measure prohibiting the use of poisonous phosphorus in match-making and the bill creating a federal children's bureau. The latter received an appropriation of \$29,400. President Taft is expected to sign both measures. Pp. 85, 86.

In this issue THE SURVEY presents its view of the anomalous situation in New York's prison management which allows the official charged with developing the prison industries to be interested also in private manufacturing enterprises of a similar kind. P. 94.

Contrary to expectation and the early returns, the Executive Committee of the Miners' Federation in Great Britain announced that the final result of the referendum vote of the miners was 244,011 against resuming work to 201,013 in favor of ending the strike. Though confronted with this majority of 43,000, the Executive Committee, after a long discussion, decided in effect that the strike should be called off. The committee held that, as a two-thirds majority is required to declare a strike, a like majority is necessary to continue one, and the vote was over 50,000 short of this proportion. The full meeting of the Miners' Federation confirmed this ruling. Although some operatives are inclined to protest at this decision it has been well received, according to reports, in most of the counties.

The convicting of all persons in New York who charge usurious rates of interest on loans has been made possible by a recent court decision. This is a vital blow at loan sharks. P. 88.

Officers in charge of public institutions must now report to the New York Department of Health all patients suffering from venereal diseases. P. 89.

1912 is but four and a half months old, yet there have been notable legislative gains for working women since the new year. P. 95.

Recent judicial decisions prohibit Sunday trials in the magistrates' courts in New York city. As a result persons arrested on Sunday for offenses ever so trivial must remain incarcerated until Monday unless they can secure bail. P. 89.

A bill declared to menace New York's pure milk supply was jammed through the legislature in the closing hours of the session. Within three days Governor Dix had received so many telegraphed, telephoned, and mailed protests that he vetoed it in one of the shortest messages on record. P. 90.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE, EDITOR
GRAHAM TAYLOR, JANE ADDAMS, ASSOCIATES

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The Socialists' ticket loses in the Milwaukee municipal election. P. 109.

August 19, 1911, Issue Wanted

Unexpected demand has exhausted the files of THE SURVEY for August 19th, 1911. Subscribers who do not save their copies for binding are urged to return this issue for the benefit of libraries. Send it to THE SURVEY, 105 E. 22nd St. New York.

THE COMMON WELFARE

CHILDREN'S BUREAU BILL

The Children's Bureau bill passed the House of Representatives April 2, by a vote of 178 to 17. It passed the Senate January 31 by a vote of 54 to 19, after three days' debate. The bill now needs only the President's signature to become a law. It passed the Senate with two amendments offered by its opponents. One was by Senator Culberson of Texas to the effect that "no official, or agent, or representative of said bureau shall, over the objection of the head of the family, enter any house used exclusively as a family residence." This is perfectly harmless, as no such right could be conferred by the act creating the bureau. That there are officially "classes" among the American people, according to an act of Congress, we are indebted to Senator Gallinger, who got the amendment, "among all classes of our people," inserted after the definition of the function of the bureau.

The bureau is to investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life. An appropriation of \$29,400 is provided to carry on the work the first year.

For the past four years, A. J. McKelway, secretary for the southern states of the National Child Labor Committee, has been stationed at Washington to direct the campaign of publicity, explain the purpose of the measure to congressmen, and meet such opposition as might develop. The present result is due in large part to his patient and efficient management of the campaign.

Practically all the opposition to the bill outside of Congress has come from a few of the societies for the prevention of cruelty to children, which were circularized by John D. Lindsay, president of the New York Society. One of the officials of the American Humane Association suggested to Dr. McKelway that the support of the association could be secured if an amendment were adopt-

ed exempting such children's societies from "supervision." Circular letters went to the members of state delegations from Missouri, Massachusetts, and Louisiana children's societies, the plan evidently having been to have each society influence the members of Congress from that state. In addition a circular was sent by Mr. Lindsay to all the members of Congress, and a circular and pamphlet to the members of the New York delegation. The Boston Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, the Pennsylvania Children's Society, the Cleveland Humane Society, and doubtless others made vigorous protest against the action of the New York Society and the American Humane Association, respectively.

The proposal to make the bureau a division of the Bureau of Education received some consideration because of the position taken by the new chief of that bureau, Commissioner P. P. Claxton, in letters to the Secretary of the Interior, published in the *Congressional Record*. Commissioner Claxton, in enumerating the various phases of the subject of child welfare now dealt with by the Bureau of Education, overlooks, according to the sponsors of the Children's Bureau, the character of the work contemplated by it. It is true that the children's bureau will have to depend largely upon school teachers and officials for the gathering of information. But the Children's Bureau will depend more largely still upon the army of social workers, whose influence has been the efficient cause of its creation; who are already aware of its approaching organization; who will at once become its correspondents, and who are intimately concerned in their every day work with the problems about which information and its dissemination are so ardently desired.

The idea of a Federal Children's Bureau originated five years ago with Lillian D. Wald of the Nurses' Settlement, New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley made the first outline of the matters to be

investigated by such a bureau. This corresponds very closely to the catalogue now mentioned in the act creating it. As both were members of the National Child Labor Committee, they persuaded the committee to undertake the work of organizing public sentiment and securing congressional action. The committee has expended a considerable sum of money, time and energy in the task, although child labor is only one subject for the work of the bureau, and other organizations for the protection of children are equally concerned. Samuel M. Lindsay has suggested that the bureau should be organized with: 1, a division of investigation; 2, a division of publicity; 3, a division of advice and information; 4, a division of legislation, and 5, a division of foreign experiments. The bills to establish the bureau were introduced in the sixtieth Congress, and received favorable reports from the committee of each House. In the sixty-first Congress, they were introduced and again favorably reported and the bill passed the Senate without objection, but was not allowed to come to a vote in the House. In the present Congress, the bills were introduced by Senator Borah of Idaho and Representative Peters of Massachusetts. President Roosevelt in January, 1909, sent a special message to Congress in which the creation of the bureau was urged. In this Congress, Mr. Underwood, the majority leader, used his influence for the passage of the bill, Speaker Clark insisted that the clerk should call his name that he might vote for it, Governor Woodrow Wilson, Senator La Follette and Mr. Debs are heartily in favor of it, and with the signature of President Taft, there will not seem to be any issue among presidential candidates concerning it.

THE DEPARTMENT-STORE AND ITS FIRE RISKS

It took the Iroquois disaster to rouse the public to the theatre fire hazard; the Triangle disaster to confront it with the jeopardy to working girls in factory loft buildings. Must we wait for a great de-

partment store disaster, to educate public opinion as to the fire risks of the average retail establishment? Such a fire would scotch both social groups in the community who suffered in these other disasters; for shoppers and clerks are alike threatened by prevailing conditions according to inquiries prosecuted by the New York City Consumers' League.

The league's investigators found that while illegal conditions have frequently been remedied by action on the part of the Bureau of Building, there are many hazards which go on from month to month in New York, menacing human life and property. The buildings of the newer stores are for the most part of the type known as fireproof, but with the enormous undivided floor space on each level, and with the counters covered with the flimsiest and most inflammable of materials, the interior of such buildings are perfectly adapted for a successful "flash" fire—that is, a fire where the flames are entirely within the building, but where the fire leaps from one point to another in this open space with incredible rapidity, burning often only the top surface, but creating such heat that human beings perish from suffocation if not from flames.

In spite of this exceptional hazard of flash fires, most stores provide quite inadequate means of escape for workers and shoppers. The revolving doors, which are used at most street exits, would the league holds be sure to hinder egress and cause frightful loss of life in a panic. Exit to the street is also made difficult and dangerous because of the very narrow aisles common in many stores. Center aisle bargain counters, standing as they do in the direct path of egress, would block the progress of the escaping crowd and it is not too much to conjecture bodies heaping up over such stumbling blocks.

In very few New York stores is there any plan or system for guiding the panic-stricken shoppers and saleswomen to the exit nearest the given point in the center of the store where they may happen to be at the moment of alarm. Consequently, if fire should break out in a big department store, there would be a rush

for the well-known main entrances and a choking of the aisles leading to these, while side and rear exits would be almost ignored.

In big Chicago stores, precautions have been taken against this danger, and throughout the store in every aisle at intervals of only a few feet there are red-lighted indices pointing directly toward the exit nearest to that spot.

In the newer and better mercantile buildings in New York there are enclosed fireproof stairways in some portion of the building, but in some of these newer stores and in most of the older type of stores reliance for escape in case of fire and panic is placed upon iron fire escapes reached through windows. The investigators of the Consumers' League have found many instances where none of the salespeople on an upper floor knew how to reach these escapes, and in more than one case they found the windows leading to them blocked by counters, wardrobes, storage cases and other obstructions. Stores located in old buildings which have been converted from dwellings tend to be full of even more dangerous conditions, for one floor is often on different levels, requiring one or two steps at intervals. The arrangement is irregular; stairways are located in unexpected places, and stores like these, bewildering enough under normal conditions, would become perfect mazes to terrified visitors in search of a hasty "way out."

Basements constitute a special danger. Exit facilities are for the most part poor and almost never is there any way by which a basement could be emptied directly on to the street. Persons caught in a basement or sub-basement in a fire would have to make their way up to the main floor of the store, and there fight their way out against the down-coming stream from the upper floors. Such a situation would almost certainly result in great loss of life.

The Consumers' League has been able to effect some changes and to have some of the worst fire dangers in New York department stores reduced by making complaints on special points in particular stores to the Bureau of Buildings and

the Fire Department. For the most part, however, to quote Mrs. Frederick Nathan, president of the league. "There is no lessening of this horrible danger because the law is not explicit in prohibition of these hazards and because the merchants are too engrossed in sales and too short-sighted voluntarily to make their stores safe from this danger of death by fire and panic."

PIGS, ONIONS, AND SCHOOL CHILDREN

A special train, loaded with prize agricultural products grown by school children in a state-wide garden contest engineered by L. R. Alderman, state superintendent of schools in Oregon, will invade the East this fall. Oregon has applied scientific management to school gardening to demonstrate what children can do to develop the economic resources of the state, and check a backward and unpromising tendency toward overspecialization in agriculture in this growing commonwealth while learning lessons of lasting value which will help make them better and more successful citizens.

Backed by the State Bankers' Association, the leading breeders, the state fair board, the Oregon Agricultural College through its extension division, and the Oregon Development League, Prof. Alderman, the originator of the idea, expects to enlist 75,000 out of a total of 125,000 school children in a general agricultural and industrial competition. Already in every county the contests are starting. Among the products on the premium list for the children's competition are pop corn, field corn, sweet corn, watermelons, musk-melons, pumpkins, squashes, cabbage, potatoes, celery, onions, the principal grains, pigs and poultry. Special work in carpentry, sewing, and cooking have been added as features of the contest. The children will also be allowed to compete in the production of asters and sweet peas.

This state-wide campaign grew out of a pop corn collection taken up in a school located in the heart of a rich farming county six years ago. It led the young county school superintendent, who is now the state superintendent, to try an ex-

periment which has resulted in 5,000 children growing their own corn, melons and vegetables. "Few boys in Yamhill county today have to send to stores to buy pop corn or are tempted to enter their neighbors' melon patches at night," says Calvin C. Thomason, field manager for the industrial contests, "for almost all of them grow their own and have much left to market after supplying their own homes."

Oregon, in spite of her vast area of food producing soil, imports between \$18,000,000 and \$20,000,000 worth of hog products and over 40 carloads of eggs and poultry. Yet Portland is now the chief wheat exporting port of the world. To correct this condition and devise some way to bring about a system of education calculated to make more of the children producers instead of consumers, the state bankers' association appointed a committee of investigation which conferred with the state's leading educators. At this conference Prof. Alderman told of the work which he had started in Yamhill county. The plan was adopted and a small sum appropriated to place organizers in the field. Speaking of the work of organizing the state contest Mr. Thomason says:

The first step . . . was to send out a series of letters to the breeders of the state asking for donations of the best bred animals to be offered as first prizes. In response to these letters public-spirited breeders gave thorough-bred calves, pure bred sheep, goats, pigs, dogs, and chickens. The State Fair Board set aside \$1,000 to be given as second, third, and fourth prizes. The Oregon Agricultural College has printed 50,000 bulletins of instruction and information in regard to growing the products on the list and making the other exhibits. Preliminary contests will be held at local or county children's fairs early in the fall and the best exhibits will be brought to the State Fair. The children are divided into two classes, twelve years being the dividing line. It is estimated that 75,000 school children will engage in this contest.

PHOSSY-JAW BILL A LAW AT LAST

On April 3, the United States Senate passed the phosphorus match bill of the American Association for Labor Legislation by a practically unanimous *viva voce* vote. The House passed it March 28, by a vote of 163 to 31.

Investigations of "phossy jaw," the occupational disease of match factory workers, led to the introduction of the bill in June, 1910, immediately after the publication of the report on phosphorus poisoning by John B. Andrews, secretary of the association. Public sentiment demanded the prohibition of the death-dealing match. Through this legislation one of the most loathsome of all industrial diseases will be abolished.

Other countries took similar action years ago and nine countries have even signed an international treaty prohibiting the use of phosphorus for which there are many harmless substitutes. Because the poison is a little cheaper only one match manufacturer was willing to stop using it until a national uniform law could be passed. Now all will be obliged to stop using the poison at the same time and no one will suffer. Thousands of workers will be spared unnecessary exposure to this peculiar poison.

The law prohibits the importation and exportation of poisonous phosphorus matches and places a prohibitive internal revenue tax on their manufacture within the United States. Drastic penalties are provided for violations of the law, which will be administered through the efficient federal internal revenue service of the Department of the Treasury.

Constitutional objection was raised against the bill by strict constructionists, who deplored this use of the federal taxing power. But even Senator Bailey, of Texas, its most vigorous opponent, admitted in the closing minutes of debate that the courts would not inquire into the purpose of Congress in levying the tax and that "The rule is too well established now to be successfully assailed, and I know perfectly well that if Congress passes this act, the courts will sustain it."

10-HOUR LAW AGAIN BEFORE ILLINOIS SUPREME COURT

For over two years it has been illegal in Illinois factories, laundries, and mechanical establishments to employ women for more than ten hours in the twenty-four hours of any one day.

A LAST VICTIM.

A tragic sequel to the story of A Match Worker, as told by John B. Andrews in THE SURVEY of Dec. 2, 1911, is the announcement of death from "phossy jaw" of John Werner, which occurred on March 9 as he was boarding the steamer Oceanic in New York to return to his relatives in Germany.

Werner contracted "phossy jaw" while employed by the Reliable Match Company of Ashland, Ohio. When denied damages under the employers' liability law, he went to live in a shed by the railroad track and sought subscriptions to enable him to join his wife and child in the old country. The published account of his pitiable condition brought additional aid, but on account of the loathsomeness of "phossy jaw" he was denied passage by one steamship company. Weakened by his occupational disease, he dropped dead just after boarding the Oceanic.



JOHN WERNER.

The law of 1909 on this subject was extended during the session of 1911 to include the women at work in all public institutions, those engaged in public utility business and those employed in common carrying, or express, transportation, telegraph, or telephone service. It included also women working in all places of amusement, mercantile establishments, restaurants, and hotels.

The amendment has met with practically no opposition from employers engaged in any of these trades, except hotel-owners. A hotel proprietor of Charleston, Ill., on being fined through the state inspector's office for illegally employing three women workers in his establishment, a kitchen worker, a housekeeper, and a stenographer, for more than ten hours in one day, has appealed the decision against him to the state Supreme Court. His suit, which is backed by the Hotel Owners' Association of Illinois, is based on the grounds that the work of women in hotels is not arduous and that the law is class discrimination since it does not apply to boarding houses. The case will be regarded as a test of the state's right to protect the labor of women workers in trades other than those in factories, laundries, and mechanical establishments.

The department store managers in

Chicago express themselves as wholly in favor of the law. And this is based on an experience including the Christmas shopping season. They said that as all the stores were on the same basis, so far as the law was concerned, it was fair for all.

The city of Chicago was found guilty of violating the provisions of the law applying to employes of public institutions. Professional nurses employed in the city hospitals come within the scope of this provision according to a recent decision of Judge William M. Gemmill of the Municipal Court. The city claimed that the law was intended to apply only to women engaged in arduous or menial labor, and that nursing is a profession and not a trade or business. The judge, however, declared:

The broad purpose of the ten hour law was to remove from women employed in any capacity the burden and stress of long and wearisome hours of toil, the deleterious effect of which is recognized everywhere. It would be hard to conceive of more onerous, wearisome, and nerve racking toil than that of a nurse who is in constant attendance upon the sick and dying. It would seem rather that not only the health and well being of the nurse but also the necessity for the best care of her patient would make it of the utmost importance that the law limiting the hours of employment to ten hours each day should be applied to her.

This position is supported by the fact that in institutions of such remarkably high efficiency in nursing service as the Chicago Presbyterian Hospital, the Michigan State Hospital, the Peoria State Hospital, and the Johns Hopkins' Hospital, the service is maintained by the employment of shifts and an eight-hour schedule.

The contentions of the hotel keepers in the test case will be analyzed more in detail in a later issue of THE SURVEY. The case was brilliantly argued by Edgar H. Bancroft before the Supreme Court.

OHIO LAW BEFORE U. S. SUPREME COURT

Meanwhile the Ohio 54-hour law for women is to be carried to the United States Supreme Court for final review. The Ohio Supreme Court has recently held the statute constitutional, basing its decision upon the now well-known reasoning of Justice Brewer in the Oregon case, which held that a state may legitimately limit women's hours of labor in the interest of their health and welfare.

The Ohio Manufacturers' Association, however, seeks to have the Ohio law, in its turn, carried to the highest court of the land, since it embraces in its scope a larger number of establishments than the previously sustained Oregon law.

Attorney General Hogan of Ohio has requested Louis D. Brandeis and Josephine Goldmark of the National Consumers' League, who submitted a brief to the Ohio Supreme Court, to aid in the further defense of the Ohio law.

ANOTHER BLOW AT LOAN SHARKS

The Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of New York, Second Department, in the case of *People vs. Schultz* has recently upheld the decision of the Court of Special Sessions convicting a loan shark of violation of the Banking Law. This decision now makes possible the convicting of all persons who charge usurious rates of interest on loans and has been heralded in the press as the judicial purge that absolutely cleans the



—Doerer in Baltimore Evening News.

FORECLOSING ON THE LOAN SHARK IN MARYLAND.

Maryland, like many other states, found herself in need of constructive legislation dealing with small loans. The Maltbie bill was brought forward as an attempt to reduce petty loan brokers' charges to a reasonable figure and provide some sort of control by supervising authorities. It passed the legislature last week and now awaits the governor's signature.

most shark-ridden city in the country of this form of social pest. In sober truth the complete success of the campaign to enforce existing laws against the usurious money-lending business in New York now depends only on prompt and thorough action of the prosecuting officials.

The attorneys for the defendant argued that it was not the intention of the legislature to punish the making of a usurious loan unless the latter was secured by a chattel mortgage; that the section of the banking law in question was repealed by implication in 1904, and that the defendant being an agent of the principal had no connection with the alleged crime. In accordance with the arguments of the district attorney and the Russell Sage Foundation appearing *amicus curiae*, the court held:

The language of the statute indicates clearly that where the loan is a loan of money of less value than \$200 for more than the legal rate of interest, the giving of security is not

a necessary element of the crime. . . . The purpose of the act is the protection of the needy from extortion, and the legislature in accomplishing that purpose has not only limited the protected class to small borrowers but has confined the operation of the law to these comparatively thickly settled portions of the state where the evils sought to be eliminated were deemed most likely to prevail.

In the opinion of the court the statute is not inconsistent with other more recently enacted laws. The court further said:

We think the undisputed evidence sufficiently connects the defendant with the commission of the crime. The fact that the defendant made the loan on behalf of another is immaterial. The offence charged is a misdemeanor and the defendant's conceded participation in the illegal acts makes him liable as a principal.

Early decisions are now expected in the cases of several loan agents who have been tried in New York county, and action is promised upon a dozen indictments presented last year in the borough of Brooklyn.

NEW YORK TO REPORT VENEREAL DISEASES

A very important impetus was given recently to the growing movement for the sanitary control of venereal diseases when the New York city Board of Health adopted resolutions, previously approved by its advisory board, which includes a number of the most eminent physicians of the city, requiring officers in charge of public institutions, including those supported in full or in part by voluntary contributions, to report promptly to the Department of Health patients suffering from these diseases. The resolutions, based upon a plan for reporting cases which was prepared at the request of Commissioner Lederle by Dr. Herman M. Biggs, general medical officer of the department, include the following:

WHEREAS, The venereal diseases are infectious, communicable, and preventable, and constitute a serious menace to the public health, thus properly coming under the charge of the public health authorities, and

WHEREAS, It is well established that no administrative control of such diseases is possible without a system of notification and registration, associated with provision for the municipal care of patients unable or unwilling to place themselves under proper medical care and to take the precautions necessary to prevent the infection of others, be it therefore

RESOLVED, First, that on and after May 1, 1912, the superintendent or other officers in charge of all public institutions such as hospitals, dispensaries, clinics, homes, asylums, charitable and correctional institutions, including all institutions which are supported in whole or in part by voluntary contributions, be required to report promptly the name, sex, age, nationality, race, marital state, and address of every patient under observation suffering from syphilis, in every stage, chancroid, or gonorrhoeal infection of every kind (including gonorrhoeal arthritis), stating the name, character, stage, and duration of the infection, the date and source of contraction of the infection if obtainable.

Continuing, the resolutions request all physicians to furnish similar information regarding private patients under their care, except that the name and address of the patient is not requested. The Board of Health will undertake, without charge, to make the necessary bacteriological examinations and tests for the diagnosis of these diseases, and the distribution of curative sera, but only on condition that the data required for the registration of the case be furnished by the physician treating the patient. The department will also provide and distribute circulars of information in relation to these diseases.

ILLEGALITY OF SUNDAY TRIALS

Last August a woman was committed by a New York city magistrate, after trial and conviction, to the Bedford reformatory. The case was appealed because the day on which the trial was held happened to be Sunday, although in the Magistrates' Courts of New York trials have been held and commitments made on Sundays for many years. Last month the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court in Brooklyn rendered a decision¹ sustaining the appeal. The effect is to prohibit the trying of all cases in the magistrates' courts on Sunday.

The ground taken seems to be that Sunday is a day of rest and therefore as a matter of public policy no trials should be held on that day. As a result a person arrested on Sunday for an offense ever so trivial must, unless he can

¹*People ex rel. Ryan v. Supt. State Reformatory for Women at Bedford.*

secure bail, remain incarcerated in a congested police station or in a district prison without a hearing until brought to court on Monday for trial. It is true the defendant may be arraigned on Sunday; the judge will be sitting as usual; court clerks, stenographers, and court attendants will be on hand; the great expense to the city of the court machinery will not be lessened by a tittle. But the service of these people's courts to the people will be very much lessened.

A large number of innocent persons will inevitably suffer by any provision which prevents the Sunday trial. Official figures show that, of the persons arrested on Sunday—and, indeed, on any other day—at least 75 per cent are almost immediately liberated by the court, because 60 per cent are discharged outright and 15 per cent more gain their freedom by the payment of small fines. A study of the records of the courts in Manhattan and the Bronx has shown that the total Sunday arraignments, including cases in the night courts after twelve o'clock on Saturday nights, have averaged about 575 persons. In the past, with these courts performing their normal function, about three-fourths, or 431, of these persons have received summary treatment and have gone their ways. With the suspension of the Sunday trial this large number must be herded together in the police stations or district prisons, except those who are able to furnish bail.

Of course many of them will secure bail. No one will delight so much in the abolition of the Sunday trial as the professional bondsman. He will get into harness again and do business with old-time celerity. He will do this business mainly among the poor and unfortunate, among whom there are those who love their Sunday liberty too much not to accept his terms. There will still be a large residuum, however, whose only course is to stay in jail until called for trial on Monday. Considering the percentage that is invariably discharged, many of these will be wholly innocent persons.

To remedy this situation a bill has been introduced in the New York legislature to remove all doubt of the magistrates'

power and duty to conduct trials on Sunday. It is one of the measures which hang in the balance in the closing weeks preceding adjournment.

ELEVENTH HOUR FIGHT AGAINST MILK BILL

Rushed through under a special rule, the New York legislature on March 29, the very day it adjourned, passed a bill which threatened the standards regulating the purity of the milk supply for 9,000,000 people. Although the bill introduced by Clayton L. Wheeler of Delaware County, one of the important dairy districts of New York, had been before the legislature for two months, few knew that it was pending. So little was heard of it that Health Commissioner Lederle of New York, who opposed it in a letter written in February, shortly after it was introduced and referred to the Committee on Agriculture, thought it was "dead." No widely advertised hearing was held by the committee in charge although the Assistant Commissioner of Agriculture appeared in favor of the bill which at one time apparently had the backing of the State Department of Agriculture.

If the legislature by jamming through an overlooked measure during the closing hours of the session had planned to catch by surprise those fighting for pure milk, it could not have succeeded better. Not until after the measure had been passed did the New York Milk Committee know that it was proposed to amend the Agricultural Law by providing:

that a person who shall sell or exchange or offer or expose for sale or exchange any milk actually produced by a cow or dairy *which is a fair sample of the milk produced daily by such cow or dairy* and to which nothing has been added and from which nothing has been taken, shall not be guilty of any crime on account thereof.

The advocates of the Wheeler Bill claimed that its only effect would be to relieve from criminal prosecution, persons brought within the exception specified, and that it would not affect the penalty or forfeiture to be recovered by civil action for the sale of milk which is below par in solids and butter fat. Calvin J. Hudson, the newly appointed commis-



LICKING THE CREAM OFF THE BABY'S MILK.



THE BABY WINS.

These two cartoons by Boardman Robinson in the *New York Tribune* show the influence popularly supposed to have been behind the Wheeler Milk Bill, and the governor who in response to a widespread appeal, vetoed it.

sioner of agriculture, declared that no criminal prosecutions had been brought in the cases now sought to be excepted.

Believing that "the manifest object of the bill is to lower the standards," opposition to the Wheeler bill spread spontaneously. Dr. Ira S. Wile of the New York Milk Committee attacked it as "an atrocious piece of legislation" and said that "under the new bill, if a dairyman produces dirty milk all the time and does not add anything to the milk, he is not violating the law." Two days after the bill passed the governor had received 135 telegrams, and Mrs. Dix had received many from representatives of women's organizations.

Among those who protested against the bill were Alfred T. White, president of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities; Howard O. Wood, president of the Brooklyn Children's Aid Society; Paul E. Taylor, secretary of the New York Milk Committee; W. A. Stocking, Jr., professor of dairy industry of the New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University; Dr. Charles E. North, secretary of the National Committee on

Milk Standards; Owen R. Lovejoy, chairman of the Committee on Standards of Living and Labor of the National Conference of Charities and Correction; John A. Kingsbury, general agent of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; the Bureau of Municipal Research, through William H. Allen, its director, and the State Federation of Women's Clubs.

The tide of protest which some feared might be to no purpose had scarcely started before Governor Dix on April 2 vetoed the measure. His veto message, in its entirety, read as follows:

The bill would be a long step backward in the fight for pure milk, and I think it must have been adopted by the legislature under misapprehension.

The veto was welcome news to physicians and those connected with the child welfare organizations of New York. Dr. Abraham Jacobi, president of the American Medical Association and for thirty-two years professor of children's diseases in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, spoke for all of them when he said: "It will save the babies."

CHILDREN IN THE HANDS OF ST. LOUIS ASSEMBLY

The Children's Guardians' Bill, designed to do away with institutional care of destitute children in St. Louis, is in grave danger of failure of passage by the Municipal Assembly.

Originally introduced in both houses in September, 1911, the ordinance will again be brought forward at the reconvening this month.

By its provisions a board of seven persons, at least two of whom shall be women, will supplant the present board of managers of the industrial school. The bill gives this new board power to place dependent children in family homes where their board (not exceeding \$3.50 a week) shall be paid by the city, provided suitable free homes can not be found. There is further provision for an agent and not more than four visitors to select homes for the children and to supervise them in the homes selected.

Considerable interest has been aroused in the fate of this measure by the circumstances attending its progress. In 1910, the Municipal Assembly made an appropriation of \$1,500 for a commission of three persons to investigate systems in operation elsewhere for caring for dependent, delinquent, and defective children and to report on the best methods to be followed in St. Louis. This commission besides making an exhaustive report, was instrumental in securing the passage by the state legislature of four repealing and permissive measures designed to give St. Louis full control of its own system of caring for dependent and delinquent children. The commission then went further and recommended that the St. Louis Assembly pass a law similar to the Children's Guardians' Bill above described. This the assembly, which had originally appointed the commission, has so far refused to do. The bill has been publicly opposed on the single ground that children can be properly cared for only in institutions. It is said to have the endorsement of practically all persons engaged in work for children in St. Louis.

Today St. Louis cares for 400 dependent and delinquent children of all ages

and races in the same institution. If the present bill becomes an ordinance, dependents and delinquents will be separated. It is the hope of those behind the bill that the cottage system in the country will be eventually worked out for St. Louis.

The objections advanced to the measure now before the assembly are being answered by presenting the experiences of other states. To the argument that not enough good foster homes can be found for children, in or near St. Louis, the answer given by Superintendent Major of the Industrial School is that all but six of the 200 dependent children now in the institution have relatives with whom placing could be arranged, provided the city contributed something to their support. Concerning those whom it would be necessary to place with others, it is asserted that

Missouri has about the same population as Massachusetts and if Massachusetts can find boarding homes for four thousand children, Missouri ought to be able to find some.

To the objection that foster families will be more interested in the money received than in the children it is replied that where the boarding system has been wisely worked out with good supervision provided it has been successful. Further attack is made on the measure on the ground, first, that no age limit has been prescribed for children who shall be cared for by the city, and second, that under this plan, people might come to St. Louis for the particular purpose of having the city care for their children. The first point has been met by a proposed amendment that the Board of Children's Guardians shall not place for board any child who has arrived at the legal working age (fourteen), unless such child shall be physically or mentally incapacitated for gainful employment. The second objection is answered by a proposed amendment that the board shall not take charge of any child who has not been a resident of the city for at least one year prior to application, or, if a child under one year, whose parents or guardian have not been residents at least one year prior to application, except in the cases of foundlings or abandoned children.

THE CHILDREN'S REBELLION

EDWARD M. BARROWS

The Recreation Problem in large capitals confronted the citizens of New York's middle West Side the other week. The citizens grappled with it and are dazedly asking themselves what happened.

A neighborhood effort was started to back a group of enterprising young men's clubs, which had formed the West Side Recreations League to co-operate with the new Public Recreations Commission of New York in securing better recreational facilities. It was decided to hold a mass meeting. A committee of representative business and professional men was organized to give substance to the effort. Several of the better known men in the neighborhood, and one or two outsiders were invited to speak. The purpose of the meeting was spread broadcast throughout the neighborhood, and the promise of some moving picture films was added, in the hope that those who would not care to spend an evening discussing the theory of recreation, would be induced to come for the sake of a little real amusement.

The children were not invited. It was understood that they would be welcome, in the company of their parents, but that this meeting was for the adults of the neighborhood themselves to discuss some way of providing recreation for the children. But the children were used nevertheless to overcome one handicap. The district is noted for its apathy in regard to all public meetings and educational lectures whatsoever, and in order to get even a representative handful of citizens to the meeting, tickets were distributed through the schools for the children to take to their parents.

Thus every child in the neighborhood was thoroughly informed of what was going to happen. What followed is worth consideration. On the night of the mass meeting a crowd of half a thousand children were hammering on the door of the public school auditorium where the meeting was to be held. By the time the doors were to open two or three thousand enthusiastic adults and eager children had swelled the clamoring crowd to the proportions of a mob, and

police assistance became necessary. When the doors were opened, things began to happen. Five hundred eager children who had disregarded the mandates of their elders, broken the laws of the city and defied the presence of the police, forced their way into the auditorium and screeched for moving pictures. They stood up three on a seat, howling; they pushed themselves to the edge of the platform and then forced their way to the platform itself where they sat in clamoring rows on the platform floor and shrieked for moving pictures.

Meantime, the crowd in the street burst in. The hall seated twelve hundred people and overcrowding was both illegal and dangerous. But the people of that district, who, it had been assured, would respond with apathy to any public meeting whatsoever, wanted to go in to that auditorium, and they went. They swept over the carefully placed corps of ushers and doorkeepers like a tide over sands.

Realizing the impossibility of controlling the meeting, the bewildered management sent for police reserves. The aisles and entrances were cleared, the excess crowding was reduced to normal proportions by compelling a large number to leave. But the remaining children still demanded pictures. The lights were turned off, and after several attempts a picture was thrown on the screen. Instantly that horde of shrieking children became docile and well behaved. They applauded some parts of the pictures, and "Oh'd" and "Ah'd" their admiration of some others.

But the program was not carried through. So now the question on the West Side is, Was this meeting a failure or an overmastering success? It was meant to voice the neighborhood demand for recreation for its young. The dominant criticism the morning after was: "The children came only to see the pictures, and so the meeting didn't mean anything." But it is answered that the children gave a practical demonstration of what they wanted. There was scathing sarcasm in the clamor which overpowered the voices of the theorists and turned the meeting from a discussion of recreation into recreation itself.

EDITORIAL GRIST

NEW YORK BAY AND THE NATION'S QUARANTINE

The report that the Health Officer of the Port of New York has recently asked the governor to urge an emergency appropriation of \$400,000 from state funds, to improve the quarantine equipment in New York Bay gives new emphasis to arguments for changing the quarantine station from state to federal control. A situation urgent enough to call for the expenditure by the state of New York of nearly half a million dollars is urgent enough also to call for serious consideration of the recent widely approved appeals that New York quarantine be made a part of the federal service. Fairness both to the state and nation, and the desire for efficiency, demand a thorough threshing out of the question before such an expenditure is authorized.

As has been pointed out in *THE SURVEY*,¹ the state of New York already spends upwards of \$75,000 a year for maintaining a quarantine station which has as good as or better claim for national support than any of the forty-four other stations now under federal control. Of the million and more immigrants coming into this country annually, over six times as many enter through New York as through all other ports of the country combined; and more than half of those entering through New York come from parts of Europe where sanitary conditions are primitive and where cholera outbreaks are not uncommon. Obviously, they do not all stay in New York state. In 1910, for instance, out of 850,000 aliens inspected at New York, over two-thirds intended to reside in states other than New York. The condition of their health was therefore of moment to Kentucky, Ohio, Illinois, Minnesota, and certainly to New Jersey and Pennsylvania, as well as to New York; yet the other states to which the annual army of immigrants scattered did not and do not have any part either in the cost of, or responsibility for, quarantine inspection. Moreover, the haz-

ards involved for the whole country through an invasion of infectious diseases have much in common with the hazards through military invasion; and yet protection against the former is assumed, to a large extent, by a single state, while protection against the latter is provided by the nation as a whole.

Soldiers who man the forts down New York bay are representatives of the national government; and their duties have been thought so important that army service has been removed from either political control or local influences which might in any way weaken its efficiency. The same consideration of efficiency should lead to the transfer of quarantine into the Public Health and Marine-Hospital service, which, like the army, is subject to only the minimum of partizan influences. The change would involve no new precedent, for the national government has already made more than a beginning toward quarantine work in its hospitals, its isolation wards, and its inspection service, established at the immigration station on Ellis Island; and it is at present conducting all except three or four of the two score and more of American quarantine stations. The change on the contrary would be in line with past precedents and would be looking toward a more uniform system of inspection and detention and toward a standardizing of administration.

A CLASH OF INTERESTS IN N. Y. PRISONS

The charges of "riot of management, waste and wrong-doing" in the prisons of New York made last December by William Church Osborne, George E. Van Kennan and John D. McMahon, the Commission to Examine the Department of State Prisons, has to date resulted in the official beheading of Cornelius Collins, the superintendent of prisons, and his assistant at Sing Sing, John P. Powers. With respect to the prison industries the commission held that,

of a possible market to the state and municipal departments of not less than \$20,000,000 per annum, the prison industries, with the free labor of 4,400 men and no overhead

¹See *THE SURVEY*, January 27, 1912, pp. 1631 and 1640.

charges except supervision, have supplied goods of a value of \$1,000,000 per annum. With an ample field for labor, the prison industries have paid only 15½ per cent of the cost of the prisoners' maintenance. The failure to fill the orders open to the prison industries keeps one-third of the prisoners in absolute idleness.

The New York law makes it imperative that the state and municipal departments buy this \$19,000,000 worth of goods, unless the Prison Department state that it cannot manufacture the goods ordered. On recommendation, the president of the State Prison Commission signs the release. The responsibility for recommending these releases by the Prison Department rests upon the sales-agent of that department who represents the penal institutions in securing orders from the other state and municipal departments. It is his duty to resist the efforts of business interests and independent contractors to secure the contracts for their own private benefit in all cases where goods are, or can be, manufactured by the state.

This position has been held for over ten years by Frederick Hamlin Mills. Mr. Mills openly states that the salary paid for the position is not sufficient to compensate him for all of his time, and that besides holding the position of sales-agent for the state, he is interested in numerous private businesses for his own personal benefit. One of these companies is the Hamlin Supply Company, having offices at his prison office on Warren Street, with the name of the firm on the door. This company is among those that seek to sell to the state and municipal departments goods which are not supplied from the prison factories for which Mr. Mills is officially agent. This situation can scarcely result in other than a clash of interests within his own office and upon his own official desk.

Mr. Mills states that his outside business in no way conflicts with the business of the state; he takes issue with the figures of the state investigating commission, cited above and declares that "there never has been a time during the years of his service when the prisons have not had orders for supplies in excess of their ability to furnish promptly." On the

other hand, releases are still being recommended by the Prison Department for large quantities of goods, which the president of the Prison Commission declares ought to be made in the prisons.

It is understood that further investigations are being carried forward by the governor's commission. What findings they may bring forward as to detailed transactions are, to THE SURVEY's mind, beside the main question: that is, the indefensible anomaly of a situation where there is such confusion of public and private interests.

There is, indisputably, from the standpoint of the state, the necessity for concerted effort by the prison administration to secure an increasing share of a market which it at present utilizes only to a small fraction of its potential buying capacity. Not only are the financial interests of the commonwealth at stake here, but on the outcome lies the sane employment of thousands of inmates of the state prisons.

Moreover, at the present juncture, when the movement to clean out the contract system in all the states is taking head, the New York state use system represents the most broadly conceived plan to conserve trade education and self-sustaining labor as elements in a system of prison industry without injury to free labor. The demonstration of its full possibilities is of national concern.

LEGISLATIVE GAINS FOR WOMEN IN 1912

JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK
National Consumers' League

Of the twelve states, whose legislatures have been in session this year, four states have, within the past few weeks, taken decisive steps forward in the protection of working girls and women. Kentucky, Maryland, New Jersey, and New York have enacted important measures regulating women's hours of labor.

In the two southern states, Kentucky and Maryland, this legislation is practically new. Kentucky has never before limited the employment of women, and in Maryland, an earlier ten-hour law, which was supposed to embrace all employes of cotton and woolen mills, has always remained a dead-letter.

The enactment of the Kentucky law was preceded by the investigations of a commission appointed by Governor Willson in March, 1911, at the request of the Consumers' League of Kentucky. The president of the Consumers' League, Mrs. R. P. Halleck, acted as secretary of the commission, of which Alexander G. Barret was chairman. In spite of the lack of funds and the short time at its disposal, the commission was able to show conditions of employment in Kentucky which called imperatively for relief.

The Kentucky law includes women at work in laundries, bakeries, factories, stores, hotels, and restaurants, and the telephone and telegraph service. In none of these establishments may women be employed more than ten hours in one day or sixty hours in one week. Girls under twenty-one years may not be employed "at any gainful occupation except domestic service or nursing" more than the same number of hours.

The new Maryland statute was enacted after a campaign of unusual vigor and efficiency led by the Ten Hour Law Committee of the Maryland Consumers' League, of which Dr. Thomas H. Buckler has been chairman. Its main provisions establish a ten-hour day and sixty-hour week in factories, stores, laundries, bakeries, and printing establishments. The efforts of many employers to secure exemptions in the statute were all defeated, except the canners, who succeeded in persuading the legislators that the disorganization of their labor force was a legitimate reason to leave unlimited the employment of women in the canneries.

The text of the New Jersey law, as finally enacted, is not yet available. It includes factories, stores, bakeries, laundries, and restaurants, and prohibits the employment of women in those establishments more than ten hours in one day or sixty hours in one week. Mercantile establishments are exempted during a short period before Christmas, and the canners during a portion of the year.

With the enactment of this law, New Jersey partially regains her lost pre-eminence in labor legislation. Almost twenty years ago, New Jersey led all of the United States in her legislative protection of working women. In 1895 the

New Jersey legislature enacted a statute which regulated the day's and week's work and also prohibited the employment of women in manufacture between 6 P. M. and 7 A. M. and after 12 o'clock at noon on Saturday. This law was modeled on the still more rigid British Textile Act, which has been gradually perfected during a century of experience; but a general repealing law of New Jersey in 1904 reorganized the Department of Labor and was held to repeal also the women's labor law. Since then, until the efforts led by the New Jersey Consumers' League to secure a new law were this year successful, the employment of women has been wholly unrestricted in New Jersey by day or night. The bill is still to be signed by Governor Wilson.

In New York the new factory law (not yet signed by Governor Dix) cuts off at a stroke six hours from the week's work and two hours from the day's work. Instead of the inhumane twelve-hour day permissible hitherto five days of the week, the new law provides for a maximum day of ten hours. The week's work is reduced from sixty to fifty-four hours. Unfortunately, in the effort to secure this great benefit for tens of thousands of factory workers, the luckless women employed in the canneries were sacrificed, and after six years of unremitting pressure at Albany, against which the Consumers' League of New York City has each year devoted its efforts, the New York canners have succeeded in obtaining a total exemption during four months of the year, so far as concerns the hours of all workers over sixteen years old.

These concessions by several states to a powerful industry, which has failed to make out a reasonable case for the wide privileges extorted from the legislators, are discouraging to those who have sought the protection of all women subject to industrial strain. But it is well to remember that other countries, such as Great Britain, which have preceded the United States in industrial legislation, have passed through the same phase and are now in slow process of repairing by law the conditions of employment in canneries previously neglected. In Great Britain, for instance, there has been a closing hour since 1907, fixed at 10 P. M.,

for women employed in the canneries. It is reasonable to expect that American states also will in time extend to the cannery workers, at least in part, the limitation of hours, the benefits of which to both industry and labor are now well established.

The new factory law of New York brings into sharp relief the absence of any legislative protection whatsoever for women employed in New York mercantile establishments. The mercantile law applies only to girls under twenty-one years. A bill to limit the work of adult women in stores to six days in the week, instead of seven days, has just been defeated through the opposition of merchants. Indeed the unremitting activity of the Retail Dry Goods Merchants' Association of New York, which has won for that body so unenviable a reputation, has succeeded in stifling all attempts to include adult women employed in stores within the scope of the law in New York as they are now included in eighteen other states.

THE LITTLE TIN PLATE

REV. JOHN HAYNES HOLMES

In a certain city of the Middle West, which had been deeply stirred by the Men and Religion Forward Movement, a crusade was recently organized for the social cleansing of the community. The houses of prostitution here, as everywhere, presented one of the first and most difficult problems to be solved; and resort was had to the Rev. Charles Stelzle, who had been the leader of the Forward Movement in this particular city, for advice as to the best way of putting these institutions out of business. His reply was prompt and decisive, if report is correct. Post up conspicuously on the front of each house of this character, he said, so that all who run may read, the name of the madam and of the owner, side by side—and the results will be immediate!

It is interesting to note that a movement for the carrying out of such a social-welfare expedient as this is at this moment well under way in New York. Already there has been introduced into the Board of Aldermen an ordinance, originated over a year ago by Father

Curry, the militant priest of St. James Parish, providing in effect for the placing upon every building—church, apartment house, tenement, saloon, theater, hotel—of a conspicuous brass plate bearing the name and address of the owner. Dubbed by its opponents, in ridicule and contempt, the "Little Tin Plate" ordinance, this phrase has now been caught up as the slogan of a campaign which promises to yield results.

The object of this ordinance is of course just that in the mind of Mr. Stelzle. It is nothing more nor less than a device to enable the opponents of unsanitary tenements, law-defying saloons, Raines law hotels, houses of prostitution, etc., to trace back the evil in question to its ultimate source of responsibility—namely, the owner of the property concerned. This owner has a building which is being put to social uses and which is yielding him an income from these uses; and this ordinance, as Dr. John Lovejoy Elliott has expressed it with telling effect, is an endeavor to force this owner to pay the moral as well as the financial tax which society has a right to assess upon his earnings. In the words of Ex-President Roosevelt, it is an attempt "to make the owner of a building take a healthy interest in his property."

It is doubtful if a more effective weapon for the fight against the ordinary community evils of our day could be put into the hands of the reformer than this. Simple in the extreme, practically self-enforcing, rallying automatically on the side of social health, that universal love of personal reputation which is an essential part of our human instinct of self-preservation, utilizing with astonishing ease and effectiveness that pitiless light of publicity which is always the most effective agent of social progress, no more useful "ways and means" of cleansing a city of its pest-spots has ever been suggested. Against it can be urged nothing but the sheer selfishness and lust of the man who is willing to exploit society endlessly for his own private profits. In its favor can be urged every consideration of public decency and order. The secretary of the committee in charge of the "Little Tin Plate" campaign is Leverett J. Luce, 106 West 137 street.



NEGRO WORKMEN EMPLOYED ON THE DOUGLASS HOSPITAL,
PHILADELPHIA.

This group represents the potentialities within the Negro laboring forces. Yet among the 80,000 male Negroes in Philadelphia there are few skilled workmen. An investigation made recently by the Armstrong Association shows that the city's colored population ranges from bootblacks earning \$200 yearly to engineers earning \$1300, with the lowest grades of industry the congested ones. This situation, not an unusual one, is complicated by the fact that the city affords no adequate opportunity for the training of young Negroes in skilled trades. Consequently the Education Committee of the association says two movements are imperative:

1. A movement toward extending the opportunities for the industrial training of Negroes, either by broadening the studies and raising the standards of schools already in the field, or by the establishment of a new trade school; and
2. Organized field work which will interest Negroes in industrial education, emphasizing the benefits to be derived from definite instruction in a trade school.

Through meetings in their churches attempts are made to interest the colored folk in their own industrial and economic progress. The association has helped 302 Negroes to jobs in the past year.

THE TREND OF THINGS

The visit of Lieutenant General Sir Robert S. S. Baden-Powell to this country has been a great help to the Boy Scout movement in the opinion of those active in the work here. As a hero in war and an earnest advocate of peace, a trainer of men and a developer of boys he has had an experience interesting alike to those struggling for international peace, to philanthropists concerned with the development of the boy, to parents, and finally to boys themselves. In his visit to twenty or more cities in America accompanied by James E. West, chief scout executive of the Boy Scouts of America, Baden-Powell has met two distinct phases of hostility to the scout movement: first, that it is a military organization desiring to prepare boys for war; second, that it is a strike-breaking organization. One argument was raised by the advocates of international peace, the other by the laboring men. The general took up both of these questions in every city that he visited. In Denver, Col., he referred to them in this way: "I am sorry that there is a general impression in the United States

that the Boy Scouts is a military organization. This is absolutely not so. Not a single military tactic is taught a boy scout. There is only one semblance of militarism about the scouts and that is that they are taught obedience. They are taught self-reliance. There is absolutely no intention of rearing the boys in the love of fighting or in the love of war. It is just the reverse. They are taught peace, out of which will grow the brotherhood of men among the nations.

"I also want to correct one other erroneous impression: that the Boy Scouts are in any way connected with labor. The scouts are made up of the sons of the millionaire and the sons of the poorest working-man. Speaking generally, there must be strong union sympathizers and the reverse in their ranks, but the subject of organized labor or unorganized labor must never be discussed among the scouts. The scouts are as loyal friends of labor as, in England, labor is of the scouts.

"I have three rules that govern boy scouts: first, the boy must not be simply a part of a great machine. He must be independent. He must be able to take care of himself. He must do a deed as a sense of duty, not for profit or praise. He must be true to himself

and to all others. Second, the scout-master must not work by note, but use individuality and deal with the boys as individuals, not collectively. Third, parents do not want their boys taught fighting. Therefore, the teachings must be of upbuilding of character, and all militarism must be eliminated."

In emphasizing what the boy scouts are not, Baden-Powell discussed the character-building phase of the scout movement. "We try," he said in Chicago, "to give the boys the sort of training that will build up their character, the sort of training that will make them manly and efficient, useful in emergency, courageous, of course, but not quarrelsome. The fact that we teach boys to be brave does not mean that we teach them to fight, nor that we teach them that fighting in itself is admirable. We want to make men of them, so that when they grow up they can do men's work in the world. This is an age of great undertakings in America. There will be greater undertakings within the next ten or twenty years. You are building the Panama Canal now, and that is a great undertaking, calling for just as much courage and endurance as any war ever called for. You don't have to start a war to find out whether your citizens are brave men or not. And the Boy Scouts will never lack for opportunity to show the genuineness of their heroism."

In his talk to 5,000 boy scouts in New York, the formation of character was termed the chief end and aim in life. He said that education, in his own land at least, though he did not presume to speak for any other, was sadly deficient in this particular, that it did not form character, as was evinced by the constantly increasing budget of crime and the thousands and thousands of "loafers" and "wasters" who menaced public order in England. It was with the idea of giving the youth, not only of good families, but of the slums as well, some interest which would appeal to them, and which should teach them to be regardless of others, that Sir Robert conceived the Boy Scouts. He illustrated the democracy of scouting by showing a picture of His Royal Highness Prince Alexander of Teck sitting on the ground down in South Africa "cooking his own grub."

In his lectures Baden-Powell gave a clear idea of scouting. He emphasized the value of getting the boys into the woods and teaching them camping, and various scout activities. He showed how the scout movement was designed to touch every phase of the boy's nature.

Another result of the trip is an increased number of local councils. Forty additional local councils have been organized in the last month. A paid secretary is usually employed to take active charge of the work. The impetus which the movement has received will, it is predicted, send the total number of boy scouts in the country, in the course of the next year, up to 500,000 or 600,000.

* * *

Herod of Judea slaughtered the innocents. Tughlak, a fourteenth century ruler of

April 13, 1912.

India, ordered an issue of brass coin to be used at par with silver. Both could exercise their powers as despots to experiment on nations. Not so the economist; yet to the mind of Prof. Henry W. Farnam of Yale, society itself is constantly playing experimental material into the economist's hands. To quote from Professor Farnam's recent annual address as president of the American Economic Association: "He cannot, it is true, like Herod, kill off the babies for the sake of watching the effect upon population or wealth, but society is constantly creating by law conditions which lead to the slaughter both of innocents and of adults, by preventable disease and accident. In many cases this needless increase of the death rate is brought about, as it was in the time of Herod, because our office-holders are more intent upon keeping their jobs than upon earning their salaries, and care more for politics than for sociology. We have in a republic no despot to force his brass into circulation, but what no despot would dare do to the people the sovereign people cheerfully do to themselves. When our country was divided by a civil war, the hostile sections, though bitterly opposed to each other in most questions, were yet alike in that each decreed to make the government's paper equal to the people's gold, and tried over again the experiment of an inflated currency which had been tried by Tughlak, the son of Muhammed, and by many others after him.

"Thus we not only have experiments tried on a large scale in modern states, but it is fair to say that the more democratic the country, the more ready on the whole it is to try experiments on itself. Thus economic experimentation is not only possible, but it is so common that it is hardly recognized as experimentation, and the superabundant legislative activity of so many of our advanced and radical commonwealths testifies to the mass of work of this kind which is being performed gratuitously for the economist."

* * *

The magazine *Bulletin*, issued by the After-School Club of America is now in its second year. It increased in monthly volume during the year from four to twenty pages.

"Its usefulness," says the editor, "has extended in like proportion. Letters from many sections of the country have been received commending the plan of the *Bulletin* and testifying to the value of its service. These letters, not only from the individual mother or father in the home, but from organized groups of parents and teachers, all bring a word of commendation and prove that the *Bulletin* is meeting a long felt need.

"The purpose is to bring to the trainer of children, whether in the home or in the school, a knowledge of the most important articles of the month bearing on the development of children that appear in current literature. While the articles mentioned are in the majority of cases written by specialists, still it is not the author but the idea we desire to exploit. Consequently there may be found mention made of articles by comparatively

unknown writers, because of the dynamic power of the inspiring thought they contain.

"Then, again, some of the best articles will have but a few lines quoted, because it is necessary to read them entire to catch the fine spirit they hold."

The After-School Club of America has its headquarters at 112 S. 13 street, Philadelphia, Pa.

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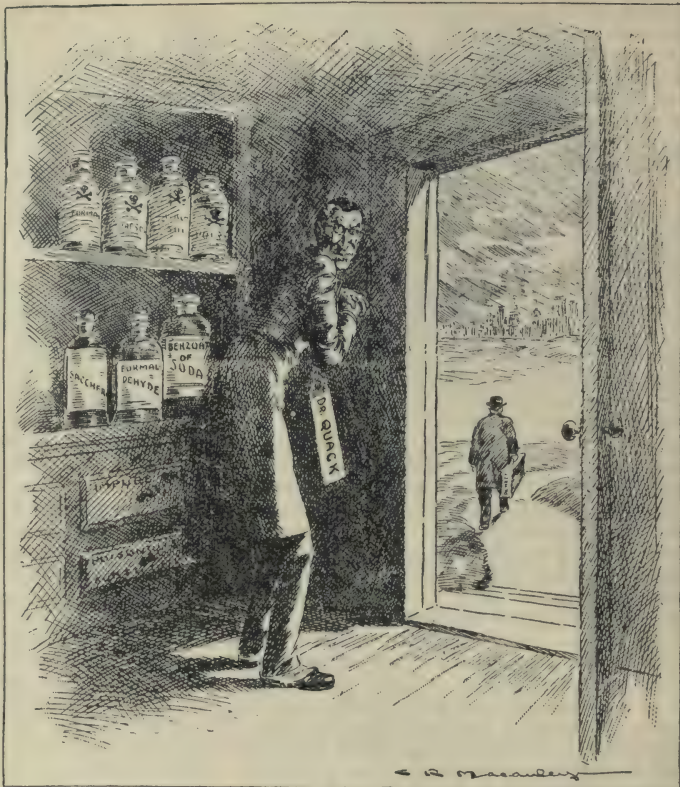
With the resignation of Dr. Wiley, *Collier's Weekly* begins a systematic exposure of the causes that made it impossible for him to remain in the Department of Agriculture. In three successive issues, beginning March 23, *Collier's* story of Secretary Wilson's record appears. "The record," says *Collier's*, "has naturally discouraged Dr. Wiley. It would have discouraged Job."

* * *

For years Mary Shaw has stood out, in the face of misunderstanding and misinterpretation, for the dramatic expression of social problems. This month she follows her earlier series in *McClure's* on the moral and material disadvantages of the actress's environment, by an interesting account of her production of Mrs. Warren's Profession, Bernard Shaw's dramatization of the facts which vice commissions and students of women in industry have made all too familiar to us of late. In telling of the scandalous publicity and adverse criticism given the play, she thus contrasts the attitude of men and of women towards it. "This play," she says, "I knew to be what stage people call a 'woman's play'—one in which the theme ap-

peals more powerfully to women than to men. In all the hubbub, not a woman's voice had been heard; it was simply one vast aggregate of men and their opinions. It seemed to me reasonable to find out what women thought about it. I therefore decided to arrange, before my appearance in the larger cities, to be the invited guest at the principal women's clubs, to lay the case plainly before them, and to ask for their co-operation.

"I wish it recorded here, to the great credit of women throughout the country, that in every community I was cordially welcomed by



—Macauley in New York World.

DR. WILEY RESIGNS FROM BUREAU OF CHEMISTRY.

After twenty-nine years of service for the government, Dr. Harvey W. Wiley has resigned as chief chemist and pure food specialist of the Department of Agriculture. In giving the causes for severing his official relations, Dr. Wiley stated that "the fundamental one is that I believe I can find opportunity for better and more effective service to the work which is nearest my heart, namely, the pure food and drug propaganda, as a private citizen than I could any longer do in my late position." He gives instances to show that the fundamental principles of the food and drugs act, one by one, have been "paralyzed and discredited"; and continues: "Almost from the very beginning of the enforcement of this act I discovered that my point of view in regard to it was fundamentally different from that of my superiors in office. For nearly six years there has been a growing feeling in my mind that these differences were irreconcilable and I have been conscious of an official environment which has been essentially inhospitable." Dr. Wiley becomes a contributing editor to *Good House-keeping*.

the best class of organized women. They were most interested and eager to hear my side of the case. In every instance a vote was taken to visit the theater and see the play, and to form an independent judgment of it. This was to me a splendid example of the courage and fine judgment of American women. I always made it a part of my duty to learn their verdict; and of the many hundreds of women I interviewed, I never talked with one who was shocked by Mrs. Warren's Profession. On the other hand it was most unusual to find a man who was not shocked by it. I could explain this in only one way—the story was too truthfully told, too awful in its true presentation of a great fact in society."

* * *

"In the average marriage, the firm we call matrimony, the husband and wife stand in the relation of producing partner and purchasing partner," says an anonymous writer in *McClure's* in an article entitled Matrimony—Our Most Neglected Profession. The writer then proceeds to tell from her own experiences how proper preparatory training only can make an efficient purchaser of the wife.

* * *

Not only does successful matrimony require a knowledge of applied science, but to be a country wife requires a very special training, according to Caroline H. De Long, who writes in the April *World's Work*. Properly equipped she believes that women will miss many of the terrors of farm life. "Drudges are born," says Mrs. De Long, "and the farm need not make them. It takes brains to avoid being a farm drudge. It takes all the skill that the highest training she can get can give her. If she is college educated, so much the better. She needs her physics, her chemistry, and her sanitation to help her find the essentials in her household management and to help her attack them in the most direct way."

"The woman who dreads going on a farm hasn't yet made the acquaintance of the new type of farmer's wife. If she had she would be envious, for she is a much more alert and useful woman than her city sister. She has cultivated that variety of employment which keeps all faculties alive; she has some outdoor work, some bookkeeping and some bargaining. The telephone and the rural delivery are inexpensive and they bring the community to her door. She has much greater opportunity for public service than the average city woman, for in the city are many women of leisure who are looking for something to do. What has become of the drudgery? Some she has found is not necessary. What she must do she resolves into a problem of efficiency and manages so as to save much time and strength."

* * *

By a practical experiment the *World's Work* has proved to its own satisfaction that there are in the United States many persons who do not want to live in the towns or cities, but

who stay there simply because they do not know how to find farm homes. "Within three months," says an editorial in this month's issue, "no less than 460 such men wrote to this magazine and a larger number wrote during the same time to the authors of recent articles on successful agricultural enterprises in different parts of the country." A map made out on the basis of the districts the letters came from and the districts the writers inquired about shows "a distinct movement from the Middle West to the East, especially to the Southeast, and smaller movements to the Southwest and the Northwest."

In order to furnish the inquirers with an answer, the *World's Work* held recently a conference of representatives of the federal and state departments of agriculture and of the industrial and agricultural departments of the railroads. The conference brought out, in the opinion of the *World's Work*, the fact that both states and railroads are doing excellent and increasingly practical educational work, and that some agency for financing farm ventures is the present imperative need in solving the problem of getting the willing farmer back to the farm.

The *World's Work* proposes hereafter to undertake to supply information in regard to every phase of country life. This month's issue contains several articles on different aspects of the subject.

Other interesting articles in the *World's Work* for this month are the Pennsylvania Mounted Police—"a significant example to other states of how 250 men can maintain law and order"; two health articles, one on the work of Dr. Rupert Blue of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, and the other on a local campaign against the fly; and an article on a co-operative factory at Jena, Germany.

* * *

An editorial writer in the *Century* believes that the three bills for federal bureaus of health, national parks, and a children's bureau are so many steps toward national efficiency. "These measures have not dropped out of the sky," says the *Century*. "They are not to be classed with bills introduced 'by request,' in which even the senator or representative who stands sponsor for them takes no real interest. Nor can these proposals be set down summarily among the happy-thought ideas or fantastic notions which are pressed upon Congress by inconsiderate enthusiasts. Each of them has behind it long study and a serious purpose. Each has now a backing of intelligent public opinion. Taken together, they constitute an effort not to make a sweeping change in the federal administration, but to clothe it with certain specified powers, to confide to it a few definite tasks, and to render it more efficient and useful."

The *Century* also has an interesting article by Rheta Child Dorr on special teaching in the public schools for the "child that is different"—the child who under ordinary school conditions "simply marks time in the

lower grades" until he is graduated almost illiterate into unskilled industry.

In another article,—the Child Who Toils at Home, in *Hampton's Magazine*,—Mrs. Dorr describes some of the unskilled industries of childhood. This is the second in her series based on the federal investigation of woman and child wage earners.

One way of starting the child right for something besides unskilled labor is the ungraded class, another is vocational training supplemented by a combination of practical work and technical instruction. These two subjects are treated in this month's *Review of Reviews* by Mary Josephine Mayer on the general subject of Vocational Training and by Mary Burchard Orvis on the continuation schools in factories carried on by the University of Wisconsin.

* * *

Perhaps this movement for vocational training is a step toward that return to craftsmanship which artists desire.

"I believe and find in my study of art," says Gutzon Borglum in this month's *Craftsman*, "that the real artist is nine-tenths of the time a craftsman and it is only in that small one-tenth of the time that he rises to the elevated position of a prophet and a master. Unless he is—and only so far as he is—a great craftsman . . . can he . . . become a prophet and master." Mr. Borglum believes that democracy which should have cherished, has destroyed, the handicrafts by substituting machine production on the utilitarian side, and academic training on the educational side, with the result that both real education and the highest usefulness is defeated. "Man no longer sees, his eyes no longer search the form line and color of any piece of work . . . our crafts (on their part) have lost the solicitous touch of man; are ripped, burnt or driven into shape by steam or steel; and in man's aesthetic world the water-color has fallen to the lithograph, the drawing to the kodak . . ."

* * *

In last month's *North American Review* Walter E. Weyl wrote in optimistic terms of the decreasing birth-rate in France which he held to be a "strike against evil conditions" and worthy of imitation by other nations, since it is but an indication of a general progress toward the "determining of the birth rate . . . by the hope of civilization and the conquest of disease and death." A Frenchman, Gustave Lauson, writing in this month's issue of the same magazine on the France of To-Day, has little more apprehension than Mr. Weyl over his country's low birth rate. He shows what he believes to be counterbalancing evidences of vitality in his race.

Other interesting articles in the *North American* are that by Percy Stickney Grant arguing on both scientific and humanitarian grounds, for a liberal immigration law; and that by O. F. Lewis on the prisoner who has

finished his sentence. The three questions that a prison system must answer to-day are, in Mr. Lewis's opinion, "What are you doing to keep persons from becoming criminals? What are you doing to reform and rehabilitate your criminals in prison? and What are you doing to prevent them from reverting to crime when they are released from prison?"

* * *

In the *Atlantic Monthly* Hugo Münsterberg writes interestingly of the German woman. His article might almost be called the Woman Movement in Germany, as it shows that within less than a generation the attitude toward women, has, in Germany as elsewhere, undergone a revolutionary change.

In *Democracy or Dynamite* in the same magazine, Henry Raymond Mussey tries to trace the outcome of the dynamite cases. In Mr. Mussey's view, public control—even more than public ownership which often means official tyranny—is the only cure for the present industrial situation.

* * *

In *Monarchical versus Red Socialism* in Germany, Elmer Roberts in *Scribner's* tells of the effort of the German government to stave off revolutionary socialism by state action and the effect of this effort on German institutions and on the growth of the socialistic movement.

The *Scribner* article is only one out of a multitude on the subject of socialism that have come out both in popular and class magazines since the large Socialist returns in the November elections. Allan L. Benson begins a series on Socialism in the April *Pearson*, following immediately on his series on the Supreme Court.

* * *

The Bulletin of the New York School of Philanthropy for March is devoted to a bibliography on the Social Aspects of Town-Planning. Besides listing with brief explanatory notes a score of general works on the subject, it includes a number of special treatises dealing with conditions in England, Germany, and Sweden. Under a special head, Garden City Movement, is a valuable directory of sources of information on garden suburbs, garden cities, industrial housing by employers, and co-partnership housing, not only in the United States but also in England, France, and Germany, as well as a dozen carefully selected foreign language references.

This bulletin on the social aspects of town planning will be followed by one on improved housing, which explains perhaps the omission of some references bordering on its field that might without impropriety have been included. The change in the last two years from the former lack of interest and knowledge of both these important subjects is little less than a transformation. One indication of the awakening is the fact that about half of the titles in this brief bibliography on town planning are those of works issued in 1910 and 1911.

BOOKS

LILLIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

THE SOCIAL TASK OF CHRISTIANITY

By SAMUEL ZANE BATTEN, D.D. Fleming H. Revell Company, 234 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

"Christianity has not yet achieved the redemption of the world or transformed the lump of human society. . . . The real question at issue to-day is this: Whether . . . in fact it can achieve the redemption of human society within any measurable time. . . . The great problems of to-day are social problems. They are not primarily personal problems, and they are not distinctively political problems.

. . . With conditions as they are, that is, with the environment as it is, and with so many handicaps as now exist, the saving of these cities is an indefinite possibility. The problem of Christian work to-day is the problem of social work. . . . The new task of Christianity . . . is nothing less than the building up in the earth of a new and Christian type of human society. . . . The kingdom of God in the Christian conception of things never means anything less than a human society on earth. . . . The program of the kingdom is summed up in the one task of rightening the relations of men, associating them in righteous and fraternal fellowship, interfusing their hearts in common aims, interlocking their wills in a common will, taking up hindrances out of the way, making straight paths for men's feet, giving every soul a fair inheritance in life, ensuring every human being room enough for his proper expansion, and embodying their essential life in social institutions that shall realize the kingdom and in which the Son of Man can find a home. . . . The spiritual life demands a satisfactory economic basis. . . . The duty of all social workers is very plain. They must learn to take thought for the material needs of men and to provide a good economic basis for the spiritual life. . . . The men who are seeking the kingdom of God on earth will not be satisfied that there shall be any outcast and unprivileged souls doomed from birth to poverty and sin, and disbarred by conditions beyond their control from the best things in life; and what is more they will not rest till they have created such conditions in society as shall make possible for every one of its members a full worthy, human, and moral life. . . . We must . . . inspire and arouse men to undertake consciously and collectively the work of social salvation. . . . A large part of our work . . . consists in creating such an atmosphere as shall induce the right kind of life. . . . Let the church create a pure and good atmosphere in society, and all the other things of salvation will take care of themselves. . . . The first thing it for the churches to inspire men with the

vision of the Holy City coming down from heaven to be set up on this earth. . . . In so far as the churches can inspire men with this vision, and can unite them as one army in behalf of this enterprise, that far will men be interested in the churches and will believe that Christianity is of God. . . . It will be a sad day for the church and the world when Christian men allow themselves to be out-humaned by the new humanitarians. It will bring a standing reproach against the name of Christ if Christian men commit to outsiders—to unbelievers and agnostics often—the agitation of social wrongs and the struggle for social righteousness. . . . The final apologetic for Christianity must be the apologetic of results. . . . The time is coming when the final test of one's Christian goodness will be the measure of his social serviceableness. . . . The very honour of Christ, the very existence of Christianity is at stake in the fulfillment of this social task." By selecting these sentences, from paragraphs and pages which we should like to quote, we have tried to give Dr. Batten's message in his own words. It is a thrilling "summons to the new crusade," a vision of what would happen if the thirty-four million church members in this country who pray for the kingdom of God should "unite in making that kingdom a fact." By the time the last page is reached one is ready to agree with a statement at the beginning of the book, that "instead of debating whether Christianity has failed, we may well ask whether it has really been tried."

THE RELIGION WORTH HAVING

By THOMAS NIXON CARVER, Houghton, Mifflin Company, 140 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

The religion worth having, in Professor Carver's view, is merely the one which acts most powerfully as a spur to energy, and which directs that energy most productively. This is obviously the view of a thorough going economist. That productive energy is to be tested by the enjoyment of its fruits is an idea with which he has scant patience. We consume primarily that we may produce, and the end of production is not enjoyment but further production. If Protestants are able to drive Catholics to the wall in the economic competition of life, they have evidently a better religion, and if Mormonism or Christian Science develops the economic virtues of thrift, application, invention, appreciation of future goods, etc., more successfully than evangelical protestantism, then this new religion will not only prevail but will have demonstrated its superiority as a religion. It is a hard saying. There seems to be something wrong with the logic, or else with our ordinary notion of religion. The pragmatist

might require us to defend our religion by showing what difference it makes that we hold it, by demanding that it "cash in," *i. e.*, justify itself in comparison with other religions, thus wringing from the consequences an answer to Pilate's famous question, What is truth? Professor Carver demands all this and more. Our religion must not only make a difference, but that difference must be in a specific spot. Our religion must "cash in" as a direct economic asset. Yet the student of religious philosophy will do well to examine Professor Carver's brief essay before rejecting its teaching. Very concisely and clearly he states his work bench philosophy; and as a protest against the "pig trough philosophy" with which he contrasts it the idea is not so repugnant as the reader may think.

THE REVOLUTIONARY FUNCTION OF THE MODERN CHURCH

By JOHN HAYNES HOLMES. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
264 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

As to whether the theological views expounded in this book are sound, theologians will no doubt differ, unless indeed the author succeeds in offending them all at once by his repudiation alike of the Catholic doctrine of confession, the Protestant doctrine of conversion, and the Liberal doctrine of moral education. The volume is dedicated "to the glorious memory of Theodore Parker"; but its inspiration is drawn from modern medicine, education, criminology, and philanthropy. More deeply than most of those who from the social worker's point of view are "laymen," Mr. Holmes has attained a genuinely social point of view, and this he has brought to bear upon the inner problem of the modern church. He realizes that the pressing problem of our time is not the writing of a new creed, but the formulation of a new plan of action. He accepts whole heartedly the well established principle that it is with the individual soul that the organized forces of religion are to deal. This individual, however, is not an isolated personal entity, but a social creature, dependent upon society and realizing his individuality only as he lives in organized association with his fellows. This is no new idea, even in theology, but its uncompromising application to the practical program of the church is not the less but more significant on that account. Sin will practically disappear, we are told in this volume, only with the transformation of social conditions.

SALESWOMEN IN MERCANTILE STORES

By ELIZABETH BEARDSLEY BUTLER. Charities Publication Committee for the Russell Sage Foundation. 217 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

Out of the immediate need of the Consumers' League of Maryland for information on which to base the preparation of a "white list" of stores in Baltimore has come a volume which is likely to be of service not only to that city, but also to many others, in studying and improving the conditions in their retail

stores. It is marked by the careful observation and fair appraisal which is characteristic of all the work done by Miss Butler in her short years. The investigation shows that for the sake of the prosperity of the store as well as for the welfare of the worker the personal efficiency of the sales force should keep pace with the impersonal efficiency of store management. A connection was found between personal efficiency and store construction, hours and seasons of labor, range of wages, and opportunity for advancement. The analysis of the elements in store construction and furnishings which promote or hinder the efficiency of the employes may not seem to the average reader the most interesting part of the book, but as a contribution to the technique of studies of this sort it may prove to be of the greatest importance. Conditions are illustrated by well chosen photographs with such inscriptions as "One seat to a counter," "A balcony diminishes air space," "Mingling of gas and electric light." The study of seasonal fluctuations shows much greater variation in the number of women than in the number of men employed at different times of the year. The seasons in the shopping week are influenced by local customs: Monday is the busiest day, Friday and Saturday are heavy, while Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday are dull. The most striking part of the investigation is that which concerns wages and their relation to the cost of living. Four or five dollars a week is the maximum for saleswomen in some stores. In the entire group in all the stores, "there are twice as many earning less than \$5.00 as there are earning more than \$6.00." The minimum cost of living is estimated at \$6.70 a week. "Fifty-four per cent are paid less than the cost of board and clothes." Miss Butler characterizes Baltimore's point of view regarding its women workers in this way: "We regret the necessity which compels some women to work," the traditions of the city seem to declare; properly speaking, the cost of their maintenance should be borne by their families. But if they must work, their wages are of service by adding somewhat to the family income."

JUVENILE LABOR EXCHANGES AND AFTER-CARE

By ARTHUR GREENWOOD. P. S. King and Son.
112 pp. 30 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 35 cents.

This pamphlet is intended for the use of persons interested in organizing juvenile advisory committees in connection with employment bureaus in England. From the point of view of work in this country the most illuminating part of the discussion is the author's insistence that the problem of employment of young workers can best be dealt with by an organization concerned with the employment of adult workers. He believes that the juvenile labor problem must be handled by a department of a general employment exchange, and that it must not only carry on registration work, but must equip an information department and must establish

close connection with the public schools. He also believes that there is an important place for volunteer agencies in follow-up work during the first few years of the industrial career. In answer to those who advocate that because of superior knowledge of the pupil the school should assume this control at the time of transition to industrial life, he replies that not the education authorities, but the teachers, are in possession of this knowledge, and that the teachers could not undertake the employment problem. Thus the education authorities who would be charged with the administration of such vocational work are not only handicapped by a lack of understanding of industrial conditions, but they are under quite as great a necessity as the Board of Trade would be for obtaining the requisite knowledge about individual pupils from the teachers. In the concluding chapter, but not until then, it is suggested that the organization of employment committees might perhaps lead to the excluding of young children from industry. There are about 211,000 children under fourteen years of age in the entire country who have obtained total exemption from school attendance and are free to go to work.

FRIENDS OF THE INSANE AND OTHER ESSAYS

By BAYARD HOLMES, M.D. The Lancet-Clinic Publishing Company. 270 pp.

These essays are for the most part technical and republished from a medical journal, but they have an earnest message for the general reader as well, to whom they are at least partially addressed. Dr. Holmes is known widely as a physician of humanitarian ardor and social vision and as a devoted leader in medical education. He urges that the insane should be treated as interesting patients whose baffling ailment may yield to study and that the state should provide money and schools, and students for such study; especially he urges that the state universities should be closely allied with the great state institutions where 150,000 insane or more are kept in buildings which are hospitals in name rather than in fact. He believes "that this work of investigating the causes of insanity should be carried on by the university." He suggests that "the friends of the insane organize an offensive and defensive society—a society to secure and give information and consolation to the friends of the insane during the first shock of the calamity, during the years of struggle against cruel fate, and in the desolation of lost hope; a society to protect the officers of the hospitals of the insane from political persecutions and newspaper defamations; a society to constantly inspect, supervise and formally criticize the conduct of every department of these public undertakings; a society to demand, encourage and further the study of insanity as a symptom of many sick people, its early detection and its ultimate cure; a society to disseminate information as to the true import of insanity in its various forms." The newly launched

National Committee on Mental Hygiene will certainly do some of the work indicated by Dr. Holmes, and in time it, or some kindred organization, may be able to do all that his program includes. This work will always require the co-operation of physicians and laymen.

SOCIAL SERVICE DIRECTORY OF NEWARK, N. J.

Compiled by A. W. McDOUGALL. Published through the Initiative of the Bureau of Associated Charities with the co-operation of the other private charitable organizations of the city. 220 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.13.

From the name to the details of compilation this new directory is admirable. The work of the listed agencies is set in good perspective by the historical sketch of Newark by Frank J. Urquhart, the statistical description by Frederick L. Hoffman, the suggestive Outline of an Adequate Social Service Equipment for a City, for Prevention, and the introductory notes to the several classes of agencies. Emphasis is laid upon the importance of doing away with the causes of poverty, and the significance of contemporary movements having this for their aim is appreciated. Suggestions are made to the agencies of Newark for more effective social work. For example, in the prefatory note to the section on churches and religious organizations the pronouncements of several of the national church organizations upon current social problems are given in brief "because they are authoritative for the denomination and put a responsibility upon the individual church." The classifications under which the social agencies of the city are grouped are logical, the data given regarding the agencies adequate, and the indexing good. Legal Suggestions furnish a useful abstract of the laws of special interest to social workers.

HEREDITY IN RELATION TO EUGENICS

By CHARLES BENEDICT DAVENPORT. Henry Holt and Company. 298 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

This book will probably be for the next few years our best general text-book in "the new science of heredity in its application to man." Mr. Davenport says that his principal object is "to incite to further investigation." He does this by explaining the method which he and others are using in their study of the laws of the inheritance of human traits, and by giving the tentative conclusions which are warranted by the data now available with reference to certain problems, especially the transmission of various physical and mental human traits and susceptibilities to disease. This exposition of what the new science has to offer at this stage occupies most of the book. The practical application is summed up in the conclusion that "the proper program for the elimination of the unfit" is "segregation of the feeble-minded, epileptic, insane, hereditary criminals and prostitutes throughout the reproductive period and the education of the more normal people as to fit and unfit matings." He considers it desirable that the eugenics movement in this country should for the present take

mainly the form of investigation. Society "has not only the right, but the duty, to make a thorough study of all of the families in the state and to know their good and bad traits," and that "a state eugenic survey," which he thinks might be organized by utilizing the school teachers as investigators, should be taken in all the older states.

THE PROBLEM OF RACE REGENERATION

By HAVELOCK ELLIS. Moffat, Yard and Company. 67 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 54 cents.

This is the first of a series of little books called Tracts for the Times, which give promise of proving indispensable to social workers. Small and well printed, written by recognized authorities, concise and clear, scientific in spirit and at the same time with the social point of view, the first three numbers in the series, at any rate, are valuable hand-books. Mr. Ellis introduces his subject by a survey of the movement of social reform, which he divides into four stages: (1) the effort to clear away the gross filth of the English cities, to improve dwellings, to introduce sanitation, and to combat disease; (2) the attempt to attack the problem more thoroughly by regulating the conditions of work and introducing the elaborate system of factory legislation; (3) the taking in hand of children who have not yet reached the age for work, nationalizing education, and ultimately pushing back the care and oversight of infants even to the moment of birth; and (4) the effort which is still only beginning, to provide the conditions of healthy life even before birth. This fourth division he characterizes as the "most fundamental step of all." At the same time he does not make the mistake common with some eugenicists of ignoring, or viewing as waste of energy, social reforms based on the improvement of the conditions of life. "The movement of social reform by no means becomes unnecessary because it touches only the conditions of life and not life itself. The conditions of life can never become unimportant; they may improve to such an extent that their regulation demands comparatively little of our energy and the regulation itself may become largely a routine. The exclusive concentration on it has caused a reaction to the opposite extreme which must not lead us astray. Only take care of the soil, these workers of social reform said in effect, and the seed is no matter. That, as we can now see, was a silly enough position to take up. But it must not induce us to countenance the opposite fallacy with which we are today threatened: only take care of the seed and the soil is no matter. On the contrary it can never cease to matter. The finest of living organism may easily be starved, the more easily, perhaps, the finer it is. And every ill-adapted external condition, leading to imperfect or defective nutrition, is really a kind of starvation. Even if we believe that bad conditions only affect the present generation and have no permanent influence on the race, the fact that they do affect,

and very seriously affect, the present generation, is ample reason for setting them as far right as we can." Permanent care of the feeble-minded and "like unfit" and rational education for parenthood are ably advocated.

THE METHOD OF RACE REGENERATION

By C. W. Saleeby, M.D., F.R.S.E. Moffat, Yard and Company. 64 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 54 cents.

In the second "tract" Dr. Saleeby divides his field into Positive Eugenics and Negative Eugenics. The possible methods under each division he classifies as Rejected, Questioned, Accepted. In the field of Positive Eugenics, he "rejects" the institution of compulsory mating and anything else that involves the destruction of marriage. He "questions" the plan of marriage certificates as likely to lead to an increase of illegitimacy if strictly enforced; and of "bonuses for children" as being too much in the nature of a bribe, whereas "every child that comes into the world should be planned, desired and loved in anticipation." He accepts (1) the principle of granting adequate help to parents that shall be specific, definitely reaching the point towards which it is aimed, favoring the maternity benefits provided by the National Insurance Bill of 1911; (2) the ideals of education for parenthood; and (3) the popularization of the concept of "eugenic marriages." On the side of Negative Eugenics he rejects (1) "the lethal chamber, the permission of infant mortality, interference with ante-natal life, and all other synonyms for murder"; (2) "mutilative surgery." He questions the "refusal of permission to marry" and accepts the plan of segregation. In a chapter on Preventive Method and the Racial Poisons the plan of the state regulation of vice is rejected. He questions legislation regarding the sale of alcoholic liquors, the use of lead glazes, and so forth, and favors the notification of venereal disease, with adequate provision for treatment; the expert instruction of adolescence; and the protection of parenthood from alcohol.

THE DECLINING BIRTH RATE

By ARTHUR NEWSHOLME, M.D., F.R.S.P. Moffat, Yard and Company. 60 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 54 cents.

Particularly welcome is the third "tract," which provides us with facts we are safe in accepting, since they are presented by one of the most able statisticians and sanitarians of the time. Dr. Newsholme shows that the declining birth-rate is an international phenomenon, in which France has merely taken the lead. By means of corrected rates which eliminate differences in the composition of the population of different places he shows that in most civilized communities there has occurred a real and marked reduction in the fertility of marriage. The most significant thing about the United States is that Dr. Newsholme practically is obliged to leave it out of consideration because of the lack of trustworthy statistics of births. In analyzing the causes for this general phenomenon Dr. Newsholme

examines the possible influence of the postponement of marriage, increased nutrition, and the relation between "individuation" and genesis, but he concludes that "volitional limitation of the family" is the main cause of the declining birth-rate. With reference to the relatively higher birth-rate among the poor he thinks that we should be far from pessimistic, since "(a) the present altered distribution of the birth rate is only known to have been occurring for two generations; (b) the conditions of life of the poorest are steadily having more attention devoted to them, and there is good reason to expect that in two additional generations their possibilities of health will be still further improved; and (c) it is not certain that the average inherent mental and physical qualities of the majority of the wage-earning classes are not equal to those of the rest of the population, though there may possibly be some measure of inherent inferiority among a section of the poorest of the population." He thinks that we may "look for an extension of the practice of voluntary restriction of families "to the classes of the community as yet only slightly affected by the tendency; and it is his opinion that apart from the control which society can and should exercise over the multiplication of "the feeble-minded, the intermittently insane, and possibly the chronic dependent," "the best distribution of the birth-rate can only be secured by the exercise of public opinion, which has an undoubted effect on individual conduct."

THE HEREDITY OF RICHARD ROE

By DAVID STARR JORDAN. American Unitarian Association. 165 pp. \$1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.26.

President Jordan makes the accepted facts about heredity and the principles of eugenics concrete by analyzing the career of Richard Roe, a familiar figure in legal practice, from this point of view. The "final formula of heredity" he states as follows: "Richard Roe has the sum of species characters: race characters; one unequal fourth of father's peculiarities; one unequal fourth of mother's peculiarities; one-sixteenth of paternal grandfather's peculiarities; one-sixteenth from maternal grandfather; one-sixteenth from each grandmother; one-sixty-fourth from each great-grandparent, etc.; an unknown and certainly negligible part of the gain through the father's activity; an unknown and negligible part of gain through the mother's activity; an unknown part, fortunately also negligible, of loss through the idleness or non-development of each; an unknown and doubtful change through prenatal influences received through the mother; the whole reduced by untoward influences many or few arising from transmission or failure in early nutrition, and to be modified in every part by the fact that he is a man." "In the beginning Richard Roe is

the helpless product of the forces which called him into being. . . . Once established on the earth, he becomes more and more 'the captain of his fate, the master of his soul' . . . but through all the struggles by which he builds up his character and life, he must act with the tools his ancestors have given him and with these only." The printing and binding of this book, which is uniform with a number of others by the same author, add greatly to its charm.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN MARCH

THE MATADOR OF THE FIVE TOWNS. By Arnold Bennett. George H. Doran Company. 420 pp. \$1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.30.

POLITE FARCES. By Arnold Bennett. George H. Doran Company. 97 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

HEALTH AND MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN. By Walter S. Cornell, M.D. F. A. Davis Company. 614 pp. \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.20.

GOD AND DEMOCRACY. By Frank Crane. Forbes and Company. 72 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 56 cents.

FOOD FOR THE INVALID AND CONVALESCENT. By Winifred Stuart Gibbs. The Macmillan Company. 81 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 80 cents.

THE HISTORY OF THE BRITISH POST OFFICE. By J. C. Hemmeon, Ph.D. Harvard University. 261 pp.

THE LABOR MOVEMENT IN FRANCE. A study in revolutionary syndicalism. By Louis Levine, Ph.D. Columbia University. 212 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.58.

FIRE PREVENTION. By Peter Joseph McKeon. The Chief Publishing Company. 249 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.85.

THE COMMON FAITH OF COMMON MEN. By Rockwell Harmon Potter, D.D. Teachers' College, Columbia University. 184 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

THE BOY AND HIS GANG. By J. Adams Puffer. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 188 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

ROAD PRIMER FOR SCHOOL CHILDREN. By Samuel W. Ravenel, C.E. A. C. McClurg and Company. 159 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

MILK AND THE PUBLIC HEALTH. By William G. Savage. The Macmillan Company. 459 pp. \$3.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.46.

THE SOCIAL EVIL. Second edition of a report prepared [in 1902] under the direction of The Committee of Fifteen. Edited by Edwin R. A. Seligman, LL.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 303 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.89.

THE HOME-MADE KINDERGARTEN. By Nora Archibald Smith. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 117 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 80 cents.

ELEMENTS OF SOCIALISM: A text-book. By John Spargo and George Loula Arner, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company. 382 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

AMERICAN BAD BOYS IN THE MAKING. By A. H. Stewart, M.D. Herrmann Lechner. 241 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

THE SPECIAL CLASS FOR BACKWARD CHILDREN. By Lightner Witmer, Ph.D. The Psychological Clinic Press. 275 pp. \$1.50 postpaid.

PERSONAL ECONOMY AND SOCIAL REFORM. By H. G. Wood, M.A. The Association Press. 140 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 55 cents.

STRANGERS WITHIN OUR GATES. By James S. Woodsworth. Tenth Thousand, third edition. Methodist Mission Rooms, Toronto. 325 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 60 cents.

COMMUNICATIONS

"LAYING OFF" FACTORY HANDS

TO THE EDITOR:

In your extract from the president's message of February 2, 1912,¹ President Taft deals with only one phase of the industrial problem: strikes, lockouts, and disagreements generally between employer and wage-earner. There is another grave trouble encountered by the wage-earner, of which President Taft makes no note, and that is the growing custom in all large manufacturing concerns and, indeed, in all concerns employing labor to "lay off" their workmen in what they call their dull times. For example, a manufacturing plant comes into a community; it proposes to make bicycles, automobiles, some new patent plow, or whatever it may be. The business at first is called very successful. The output is large and an immense industry is soon in operation; hundreds, sometimes a thousand, men move into the community—everything booms. Soon a lull comes in the market. The men with families dependent on them are laid off; there is no strike, no trouble, the men are simply laid off, and of course destitution and suffering soon follow. Every large city has such examples, every charity confronts such conditions. Now, it may be difficult to suggest a remedy, but if a commission is appointed to deal with industrial relations this phase of the labor problem should receive attention. It should be no light matter to lay off a laboring man with a family to support. Business should not be done in that spasmodic way which will make a lay-off necessary. It may not be possible to legislate on such a condition of affairs, but as long as it exists we shall have trouble in the labor world, and poverty and suffering will fall to the lot of the laboring man.

A. G. JENNINGS.

[Manager of the Old Adams St. City Mission,
Toledo, O.]

THE "EUGENICALLY ELIGIBLE"

TO THE EDITOR:

In answer to your kind enquiry as to what I intended to do with my legacy of one million dollars in case the same came to me safely, which at the time of writing looks doubtful, I beg to state that I have made the following arrangement. I have chosen fifteen of the colleges and institutions of higher learning in this country and made the following agreement with them. I have promised to help their graduates, whom I consider a picked body of men and women, in the rearing of their families, which I consider are likely to be a still more picked body of men and women. Only the graduates of the last ten years and of the coming twelve years are included in the arrangement. All

¹See THE SURVEY, February 17, page 1775.

homes in which one or more of the parents is a graduate of one of these colleges on application to me will receive the sum of \$500 on the birth of their third child, and \$750 on the birth of their fourth. These children will also be eligible for a similar amount upon entrance into one of these same colleges. The entire residue of my legacy, if any, will be given to found and endow the National Society for Inducing the Right Man to Marry the Right Girl. \$20,000 is specially to be used for advertising the significance of the "Eugenically Eligible" label which I have designed to be worn by certified marriageable men and women.

Frankly, the chance of my getting the legacy is as mythical as your request for me to tell what I would do with it, but I and my wife both are such graduates and we have three children. If you hear of anything to our advantage, my name and address is

REV. BROMIDE SMITH, R. F. D.

Utopia Springs, U. S.

P. S. I put that in about the national society to show my motives are not wholly selfish.
B. S.

MORE PUBLICITY QUICKER

TO THE EDITOR:

In the comment on State Intervention in Strikes contributed by me to a recent issue of THE SURVEY,¹ I stated that "two months and a half after the beginning of the laundry strike in New York, the State Board of Mediation and Arbitration publishes its summary of conditions disclosed." In the succeeding paragraph, I refer to "the categorical findings in favor of the laundry workers" and the flaunting of those findings by the Laundrymen's Association. I am told that my first statement is untrue and misleading. It is untrue, though unintentionally so, and may have been misleading to those (who may have been many, alas!) who read no further. The sentence should have read that the "analysis of testimony," instead of "summary of conditions," was published a month and a half after the event. The summary of conditions, or my "categorical findings," was published by the board on January 27, three days after the closing of testimony, and none will say there was too much deliberation about that.

It is not these brief findings of the board which are open to criticism, but the delay in its analysis of the testimony. The testimony of these girls and of their employers was the damning evidence which a public momentarily aroused ought to have had at once. As it is put in this analysis, now at last published, and, so far as I have been able to determine by inquiry, fallen as flat as I predicted, "a desire has been expressed that the facts as to working conditions in the industry brought to light by the investigation might be made available for the general public. Such publicity would seem to be in keeping with the spirit, if not the letter, of the law providing for such public investigations."

¹See THE SURVEY, March 16, p. 1936.

Even though legislation may have been introduced to cure some of the evils disclosed in the New York laundries, I believe my point is well taken that the *whole course* of this particular investigation shows the glaring need for public intervention different in kind from that now obtaining. These industrial disputes need airing. To quote again from my favorite author: "Publicity is the one preventive and cure which the state can administer. Let the public know the facts through an impartial, a speedy, and an efficient investigation, and one-half these strikes and lockouts would be avoided altogether or settled with small loss to either side."

PAUL KENNADAY.

New York.

DOES YOUR STATE DO THIS?

TO THE EDITOR:

I am seeking information which I believe can be most readily acquired by consulting you and your readers.

A boy or a girl runs away from home. The city attracts such a wanderer. The child has to sleep somewhere. All great cities have a variety of lodging houses of various classes, ranging from the "free" philanthropic homes and "ten cents a night" places to the smaller rooming houses. So long as the child has money the opportunity is afforded to hide away from seeking relatives. Whatever the environment of the lodging house, whether pernicious or nominally wholesome, the fact remains that the boy or girl is harbored and assisted in remaining without parental or guardian control.

In Massachusetts we have framed a measure¹ to require the proprietor of a lodging house to report immediately to a probation officer the application of a child under seventeen years of age, so that the officer can investigate the case and provide for the child's return home or otherwise give it suitable care. As the measure will probably not go before the legislature for another year, we wish to

¹The text of this law follows:

An Act to require lodging-house keepers to report applications for lodgings by children under seventeen years of age.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

SECTION 1. Whoever, being proprietor or manager of a lodging or rooming house, himself, or by his servant or agent, accepts the application for lodging of a child under seventeen years of age, without giving notice forthwith to the captain of police or other official in charge of the station located in the district in which such lodging or rooming house is located, shall be subject to a fine of not more than \$100.

SECTION 2. The police officer in charge of the station, upon receiving notice of such application having been made, as is defined in section one, shall forthwith notify the probation officer of the court having jurisdiction in juvenile cases in the district in which such lodging house is located.

SECTION 3. The probation officer receiving notice in accordance with the provisions of section two shall forthwith make an investigation and shall take such immediate action in the case as he may deem necessary pending action by the said court.

know if any other state has any legislation upon this matter, and also what the opinions of your readers are upon the subject.

I should like especially to hear from those of our own state, who may have knowledge of children who have found shelter in lodging houses, as to the effects upon the child. What instances are there where the application of the proposed statute might prevent the prolonged absence from home?

CHARLES F. BARTER.

Melrose, Mass.

JOTTINGS

THE NEW STUDIO CLUBHOUSE



NEW YORK'S NEW
STUDIO CLUB.

In THE SURVEY of March 4, 1911, was published an account of the interesting work done by the Studio Club of New York to reach the thousands of young women and girls who each year come to New York to take up study along art lines. Now, five years after its organization, the Studio Club is moving into its new headquarters at 35 East 62d street, where it will occupy a club-house accommodating about seventy resident members. Here, with greater space, a large assembly room, and comfortable reading rooms,

it is hoped that the club will extend its outside membership to the thousand mark. The club brings its members into touch with people experienced not only in artistic work but in literary, educational, and social fields. At the regular Sunday afternoon meetings addresses have been given by Henry Van Dyck, Dr. Luther H. Gulick, Maude Miner, Kate Douglas Wiggin, Hamilton Wright Mabie, and others. The Studio Club is a branch of the Young Women's Christian Association and a new development of the association's work for students. The general secretary and headworker is A. Evelyn Newman and the board of directors includes Mrs. Stephen Baker, Dorothy Perkins, May H. Terry, Mrs. Schuyler Schieffelin, and Elizabeth W. Dodge.

SOCIALIST DEFEAT IN MILWAUKEE

After the hardest fought and bitterest municipal campaign in Milwaukee's history,

the Socialists on April 2 went down to defeat in their effort to re-elect for another two years the pattern-maker mayor, Emil Seidel, and his associates who for the last two years have controlled the administrative offices and city council. The vote proved to be the largest ever polled in Milwaukee. The returns show 43,064 for the opposition candidate, Dr. Gerhard A. Bading, nominated and supported by the combined Democratic and Republican party organizations, with allies from business and civic bodies, as against 30,200 for Seidel.

The anti-Socialist newspapers, campaign managers, and successful candidates hail the result as the "redemption" of the city. The Socialists point out, however, that their ticket received more votes than it did when Seidel was elected in 1910 by a vote of 27,608, many of them votes of protest. This is in line with the trend of the last sixteen years, each mayoralty election showing a larger Socialist vote than the preceding one.

The result of the election is none the less proclaimed by the anti-Socialist press as Milwaukee's announcement to the country that she has repudiated Socialism. A group of civic reformers hail it on the other hand as a sign of the permanent elimination of national party lines from local municipal politics. They hope that it means no recurrence of the notorious corruption and inefficiency which characterized administrations given by the machine elements of the old parties. The Socialists for their part, scout the "non-partisanship" which they declare has developed through no desire for civic reform, but for the sole purpose of downing the Socialist Party.

With a city council consisting of twenty-six non-Socialists and eleven Socialists, the new administration will have a practically unhampered opportunity, and an undivided responsibility, in carrying out the promises of an efficient administration which it offered to the voters.

CONFERENCE ON MUNICIPAL NEEDS

To discuss plans recently formulated for drafting and executing, by means of a Municipal Needs Committee, a programme calculated to bring about better team work between existing social agencies and focus attention upon important matters which are now almost entirely neglected, an informal conference has been called for the evening of April 17 at the Meeting House of the Society for Ethical Culture, 2 West 64th Street, New York. It has been felt by some that there is lacking a conscious and comprehensive goal toward which the social movements of the city may work. The discussion of the project outlined recently in *THE SURVEY*,¹ which aims to remedy this deficiency, will be opened by John Collier of the People's Institute; Raymond V. Ingersoll, chairman of the Committee on the Congestion of Population; John A. Kingsbury,

general agent of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; and Marcus M. Marks of the New York Merchants' Association, and one or two others. Further information can be had from Seba Eldridge, Room 52, 27 East 22nd Street, New York.

THE COAL STRIKE IN FRANCE

The very considerable coal strikes in France, have, like those in England, been met by conciliatory legislation. Hours was one of the questions at issue, and the day after the British Coal Bill passed, press despatches report the passing of a bill setting an eight-hour day for miners by the French Chamber of Deputies.

C. O. S. CONFERENCE

The fourth in a series of monthly conferences running from January to April under the auspices of the Charity Organization Society of New York will be held April 16, at eleven a. m., in the Assembly Hall of the United Charities Building, 105 East 22nd street. The general topic at these conferences is *The Evils of Pauperism: the Possibilities of Religious and Charitable Organizations to Overcome Them*. At the coming meeting J. M. Price will discuss *The New York City Street Cleaning Department*; Mrs. Flora Spiegelberg will talk on *The Effect of the Sanitary and Dustless Disposal of Refuse*, and Charles B. Stover, Commissioner of Parks, will speak on *Park Maintenance*.

CHILD WORKING CONFERENCE

Three phases of child life will be discussed at the annual meeting of the Lehigh Valley Child Working Conference to be held at Mauch Chunk, Pa., May 11. At the morning session Mrs. Martha P. Falconer, superintendent of the Girl's Department of the Glen Mills schools, will speak on the Girls of the Rural Communities, and Owen R. Lovejoy, general secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, will talk about *The Child Who Works*, with special attention to the problem of the child laborer in the Lehigh Valley. In the afternoon Prof. Edward A. Steiner of Iowa College will discuss *The Education and Americanization of the Child of the Foreigner*.

INSURANCE AND RELIEF BY WORK

In a Consular Daily Report of March 8 is brought together in compact form, under the heading *Indigent Unemployed in Switzerland*, the systems of insurance and relief by work in operation at Zurich, Berne, Basel, Geneva, and St. Gall.

NEW YORK A MODEL

The Penal Reform League of London makes a recent monthly record a summary of the annual report of the New York State Probation Commission, to show "the usefulness of a permanent probation commission, and the progress being made in New York under its stimulus and supervision."

¹*THE SURVEY*, February 17, 1912, p. 1762.

THE COMMON WELFARE

GRAFT, VICE, MURDER IN NEBRASKA PRISON

Within the forty-eight days, February 11 to March 29, five murders in the Nebraska State Penitentiary at Lincoln and three killings by a sheriff's posse have peremptorily summoned the citizens of that state to give heed not only to the management of this prison at their state capital, but to their whole penal policy. The facts which startled Nebraska and surprised the whole country followed each other in rapid succession: the murder of a deputy-warden by a convict, February 11; the resignation of the chaplain, who publicly took issue with the warden's administration, March 9; the murders of Warden Delahunty, his deputy, and an usher, by three escaping convicts, who, on March 14, shot and blew their way out of the prison with four revolvers and nitro-glycerine caps; the killing of two of these convicts and a farmer forced to aid them in their escape on March 18; and the murder of one convict by another on March 29, "because he had to kill him or be killed by him," with a knife, afterwards found in the dead convict's possession.

This series of shocks was further intensified by a coincidence which made plain the official responsibility and public significance of these tragedies. At a meeting of the Lincoln Social Service Club, called before the murder of the warden, and held the very day on which the two murderers were killed and the third convict was captured, former Judge Lincoln Frost published the report of the investigation of prison conditions and mismanagement,¹ which he had been quietly conducting for several weeks.

Disclaiming personal acquaintanceship with the prison officials and sealing his lips about the character of the warden, killed in the performance of duty, Judge Frost courageously fulfilled his obligation to his state as a loyal citizen by frankly and fearlessly making known the facts which he had ascertained. Al-

though his evidence was secured from civilians and former prison guards, as well as from a dozen or more discharged convicts, it was discredited by certain persons because "no convict is to be believed." Guarding against the tendency of prisoners to magnify grievances and sifting and corroborating their many statements, Judge Frost's report furnishes conclusive evidence of the grossest corruption and the most extraordinary lack of discipline, notwithstanding that some of the worst allegations were not included, but were reserved for later use if denials force further publicity.

The drunkenness and profanity among the guards while on duty; their connivance with "trusty" convicts inside the prison, and discharged convicts outside, in a long and well-established trade in drugs, liquor, food, and other special privileges; the excessive punishments by water from the fire hose and by "stringing-up" in the solitary cells; the failure to prevent, if not permitting, certain privileged prisoners exploiting and abusing others, even in the practice of sodomy—these are some of the charges preferred by the judge's report, in attestation of which he has many signed statements. The "routes" by which "dope," hypodermic syringes, liquor, and other articles of trade reached the convicts, are described with great particularity as they have passed on their circuit through the hands of five or more operatives. "Every route is looked upon as the property of some one, just as much as is the route by which your morning paper is delivered." This illicit and highly dangerous trading, which could as certainly include fire-arms and ammunition as other contraband articles, was facilitated by subterfuges whereby the convicts' credits at the prison office for what they earn over and above a certain specified task of prison work were turned into cash, at rates of exchange as high as \$3 in credits for \$1 in cash.

On the night of March 1, Judge Frost was one of five witnesses who saw an ex-convict deliver a bottle of morphine

¹Printed in full in *Nebraska State Journal*, March 19, 1912.

from outside the prison gates to a "trusty" inside and receive articles in return. These he and one other witness secured and hold as evidence of the transaction.

CONDITIONS AT THE STATE PENITENTIARY

An inspection of the prison by a group of experienced men, during the Men and Religion campaign in Lincoln, verified the complaints made against the prison conditions as being inimical to discipline and good administration. Although steel cells have somewhat recently been introduced, each cell, five feet wide, seven feet long and eight feet high, was found to hold two prisoners, though intended only for one, and the cell house lacked any means of ventilating these overcrowded cells. Into these close quarters young, first-term prisoners were indiscriminately placed with incorrigibles and even moral perverts, resulting in demoralization all too amply attested. One of these perverts seems not only to have been given his choice of cell mates, but was virtually in charge of the prison pharmacy, although serving a life sentence for killing his wife by administering poisons of his own compounding. The dining-room, in which nearly 400 prisoners take their meals, is overcrowded and ill ventilated. The kitchen is dilapidated, contracted, and dirty. Its only equipment for cooking is the big soup caldrons—no range or ovens providing for possible variety in the monotonous diet.

The most prevalent and persistent grievance among the prisoners, as attested especially by discharged convicts who are free to speak, is against the food received. Some have charged that it was necessary to buy sufficient food to sustain life; others charged such poor quality of food that a brisk trade was carried on between the prisoners, who have cash or credits, and the convict cooks for better cuts of meat. These are said to be cooked in cells on improvised stoves burning gasoline or wood alcohol. The lack of variety in the diet and the uncleanly and unappetizing way in which the food is prepared, to quote Judge Frost, is "from the convict's standpoint the most

serious thing in connection with the management of the penitentiary." The kitchen and dining-room are overrun with rats and roaches.

The shops are old-fashioned, dusty, and in poor repair. The work in them is done on the contract system, but there is not always enough of it to keep all the convicts steadily employed. They are then confined, two in a single cell made for one, and are relieved only by being marched to meals and having a few minutes' exercise in the yard.

But the worst feature of the situation has been the exploitation of vice and the moral contamination described. Those conditions have been involved in the personnel, appearance, inexperience, and low pay of the wardens and guards. While some of the wardens have been better than others, Judge Frost "doubts if any of them has fully recognized reformation as the great objective end in a penal institution. The best of these wardens have done little more than catch a glimmer of the dawn of better prison methods." With few exceptions the deputies and guards have been men of inferior qualifications and character. Without uniforms, discipline, manners, or speech to distinguish them from the prisoners, they have failed to inspire either respect or fear, but rather have incited resentment and insubordination by irregularity, capricious discipline, profanity, and even intoxication while on duty. Their grade and pay correspond, for the guards received only \$25 a month for outside work and \$35 for inside service, the deputy-warden \$75 a month, and the warden \$1,500 a year, besides their board and lodging.

FEARFUL HUMAN COST OF PRISON AS "SPOILS"

The responsibility for these conditions and their consequences both to the prisoners and to the community at large does not rest on any one pair of shoulders. The warden and his staff stand immediately responsible, but only for the details of treatment and conditions. The governors of Nebraska have been directly responsible for the appointment of wardens. Their appointments are

said always to have been political and partisan. The present governor appointed the murdered warden after the adjournment of the legislature, thus taking the whole responsibility for his selection by giving no chance for legislative interference or confirmation. After the recent tragedy he immediately appointed as warden a man over sixty years of age who is entirely without knowledge or experience in prison management, and whose preparation for this exacting office at this critical time has been limited to service as a sheriff twenty years ago and one term as chief-of-police in Lincoln where he has been proprietor of a livery stable for twenty years. Although well disposed, desirous to learn, and a man of courage, his appointment will be regarded by prison experts as fair neither to him nor to the state, unless a thoroughly experienced and capable deputy-warden is appointed to take immediate charge of the prison. So critical was this situation considered to be by the contractor for the prison shop-work, that in the presence of several witnesses he announced to the governor his refusal to put nearly half the prisoners to work unless his demand for the appointment of a competent deputy-warden was immediately granted.

Since the situation has come to a head, Governor Aldrich has assumed the responsibility of making certain changes upon which any improvement in the acute situation depends. He appointed a capable prison pharmacist in place of the prisoner who so abused his control of drugs. He ordered the cleansing of the kitchen and some improvement in the variety of food, which is to be made possible by installing a kitchen range. He raised the wages of the guards to \$50 a month, the deputy-warden's salary to \$1,250 a year. He stopped exchange of credit for cash. He proposes to include in his platform and his message to the legislature the proposition to build a reformatory, to which can be committed the young men between sixteen and twenty-five years of age, who are sentenced to imprisonment for less serious offenses. Up to the present, all such prisoners who could not be received at the reform school at Kearney, have had

to be indiscriminately associated with the older and more hardened criminals as cell mates and shop mates.¹

In the opinion of those who have reviewed the situation the legislature is still more responsible than the governor for the continuance of bad conditions at the prison and the promotion of better ones. Its parsimony in failing to appropriate funds adequate for the proper equipment and management of the state's penal and reformatory institutions, has led to the low grade service and has put a premium on graft. With the legislature rests the responsibility for ending the spoils system of appointments and the political exploitation of delinquency. It can end both by putting its reformatory and penal institutions under civil service law.

SOME OF THE REFORMS URGED

But the final responsibility for all the consequences of bad administration and for bringing Nebraska's barbaric penal policy up to the standards of the humanity, intelligence, and religion of that great state rests with its people themselves. The spasmodic agitations which have sprung up and died away, with but little to show in achievement, are now likely to take more permanently organized form and pursue more progressive plans. The Social Service Club of Lincoln has appointed a standing committee on "the penal and reformatory institutions of Nebraska," with Judge Frost as its chairman, to study local police administration, to secure needed changes in city and county jails, and to report on the possibility of classifying prisoners under existing prison conditions, on the effect of the contract labor system, on educational and humanitarian reforms, on the need of an intermediate reformatory for younger prisoners, on needed improvements in the reform schools for delinquent minors and on a state labor colony for vagrants and inebriates.

During the recent Men and Religion campaign in Lincoln, great crowds of citizens expressed vigorous approval of the policy of laying more emphasis upon the responsibility for some such progressive

¹THE SURVEY, Nov. 18, 1911. Young Criminals in the Nebraska State Penitentiary, by Luther E. Wilden.

program for legislative and administrative action than upon bringing to account those who may have been responsible for conditions and mismanagement which have disgraced the state and sent its delinquent wards out of its prison, jails, and lock-ups more demoralized and dangerous than when they were committed to its custody.

As a first step in reform, the governor, legislature, and the people of Nebraska received this advice from Warden Charles C. McClaughry, who wrote from the prison so well conducted by him at Anemosa, Ia., in response to Governor Aldrich's request for counsel:¹

The cheap guard who comes between even the expert manager and the prisoner is one of the greatest sources of trouble—the man who has failed in everything else and accepts duty involving twelve and fourteen hours a day for less than living wages and carries vicious habits and lack of principle into the service.

Proper treatment of the criminal is not harshness but strictness, not sloppy sentimentality but wise control mingled with proper and conservative indulgence, the use of patience with weakness, and of reproof with his follies, the use of punishment for his disobedience and teaching for ignorance. I have punished 7,000 prisoners, some by talking to them, playing upon all those chords, always with a hope in my heart, and judiciously displayed to or discovered by the culprit, that he is going to be a better man and deserves better things.

EDUCATION AS SEEN AT CHARITIES CONFERENCE

The Relation of Our Schools to Pauperism, Delinquency, and Crime furnished three full days of discussion at the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction held last month at Orange. Prof. Royal Meeker in his presidential address defined "relation to" as practically amounting to "responsibility for." This point of view dominated the proceedings. Describing the relations of social reformation and individual regeneration, he insisted that public expenditures must be "enormously" increased to achieve "appreciable" results. He declared, however, that:

Many evils laid at the door of the modern schoolhouse are only indirectly or not at all connected with our educational systems. But,

after all is said on both sides, we must hold our schools responsible for [training their pupils] to *do* nothing at all. . . . It is objected that the public schools can not teach "trades." The answer to this objection is the "part time" school, the "continuation" school, the technical and trade school.

That the school does not train its pupils for *practical* life was the contention of Principal McAndrews of the Washington Irving High School of New York city. It tolerates superficiality and slovenliness, and does not cultivate conscious pride in good work well done, was the argument of Virginia C. Gildersleeve, dean of Barnard College. President Humphreys of Stevens Institute criticized the school for failing to exact thoroughness and obedience; while Director Talcott Williams of the Pulitzer School of Journalism declared that fully one-quarter of the children in New Jersey take two years to make a grade, thus getting at the *most but four years of regular training*, which, by delayed entry and premature withdrawal, are often further reduced to *three and even two years of actual progression*. The speaker went on:

Of the 200,000 boys enrolled practically all will go to work, except the delinquent and dependent. Taking the 200,000 as a whole, 8,000, about the number that will go to high schools, will go into professional pursuits and *need not trouble us further*.

Twenty-three thousand will work on farms, and on farms so near a market that there should be intensive cultivation. About one-fourth, 54,000, will go into mercantile life and transportation. About 26,500, one in eight, will go into what we ordinarily call a "trade," blacksmiths, carpenters, and the like; 5,000 will go into trades related to the home,—the butcher, the baker, and the candlestickmaker; 44,500 will go into mills, factories and works; 24,000 will be day laborers and about 15,000 will fill miscellaneous pursuits, domestic, personal, and casual.

Of this array of wage-earners, 170,000 to 180,000 will live in homes that rent for not over \$15 to \$18 per month and will earn about this sum per week, though the family budget, owing to the labor of children over fourteen and of daughters remaining in the family, will be larger.

The schools plainly fail to meet the needs of this great industrial army. There are two precious years at the end of the grammar school in which, at present, the attendance drops to about the number who are going on to high school, or one-tenth of the whole. It is plain that in these years there should be given training in farming and horticulture,

¹Printed in *Nebraska State Journal*, March 21, 1912.

so that the 23,000 who are going to do this will not go on doing what has always been done, and the 100,000 who will live with a little yard will be able to make the most of it.

Look over these occupations and you will see that at least one-third and probably one-half would find acquaintance with the typewriter useful. Why should they not be taught by the public school the use of this instrument, which is superseding the pen in all the walks of life?

Lastly, taking the 26,500 mechanics and adding those to whom mechanical knowledge would be useful, and the demonstration is complete that it is not enough to have manual training taught in a few of the school years in only twenty or so of all the cities and towns of this state, leaving the other share of the state, outside of the cities, almost wholly without it.

Superintendent Haney, Meyer Bloomfield and Calvin N. Kendall, New Jersey's new commissioner of education, declared that the true remedy is "industrial training" with "vocational guidance."

RELIGIOUS TRAINING IN THE SCHOOLS

Superintendent A. B. Poland of Newark, N. J., chairman of the section on public schools, expressed his indignation at what he deemed an unrelieved trend of fault finding. That religious training is a potent and indeed a necessary factor in the solution of the school problems was asserted by rabbi and priest. Said Dr. Foster:

The training in schools is fully abreast of public sentiment. We cannot ignore the weakness of human nature and hold the school responsible for all the degeneracy and delinquency we have so much reason to deplore. The solution lies with the regeneration of the individual.

On the other hand Father Dillon maintained the specific need for correlating religious instruction with physical training and "intellectual" education, and he held that as the public schools neglect this, there is obvious need of Parochial schools.

Half a dozen women teachers were on hand to demonstrate efficient methods and effective achievements in the educational "treatment" of feeble-minded and otherwise "defective" children. In each case it was made clear that personal character as well as professional capacity were responsible for the results achieved by Misses Harriet Johnson, Mary Flexnor,

and Eleanor Johnson of New York, Mrs. Clements, and the Misses Hamilton and Carey of New Jersey.

Speaking on Conservation of Childhood's Purity, Mary Garrett of New York, opposed conventional prejudice and suggested methods of teaching the facts of procreation no less effectively than "innocently."

The general use of school plants as recreation centers and the consolidation of county schools, were illustrated by Clarence A. Perry of the Sage Foundation and Superintendent O. J. Kern of Rockford county, Ill., respectively.

An exhibit occupying the entire auditorium, stage, and balcony of the new Masonic Lyceum drew large numbers of spectators.

9-HOUR DAY IN FURNITURE TRADE

An echo of the Grand Rapids furniture strike of last summer comes in the movement for a nation-wide nine-hour day in the furniture trade.

At the last semi-annual meeting of the National Furniture Manufacturers' Association Robert W. Irwin of the Royal Furniture Company of Grand Rapids moved for consideration by the association the possibility of establishing a nine-hour day. He was heartily backed by the whole Grand Rapids delegation, and a committee of twelve, representing the various furniture centers, was appointed with Mr. Irwin as chairman, to study working conditions in the furniture and other industries throughout the country.

This committee has collected data as to hours of labor in other industries designed to show that the tendency and spirit of the times is in the direction of the shorter work day and that in many directions progress has been made; that instead of pioneering, the furniture industry in adopting the nine-hour day will be falling in step with the general tendency. The data also includes what has been and is being done in the furniture industry itself by the independent action of individual manufacturers toward the reduction of the work day at Jamestown, Rochester, Chicago, and other points.

As soon as the data is completed a

SNAPSHOTS IN THE ANTHRACITE COAL FIELDS—

See article on Conciliation Boards, page 143

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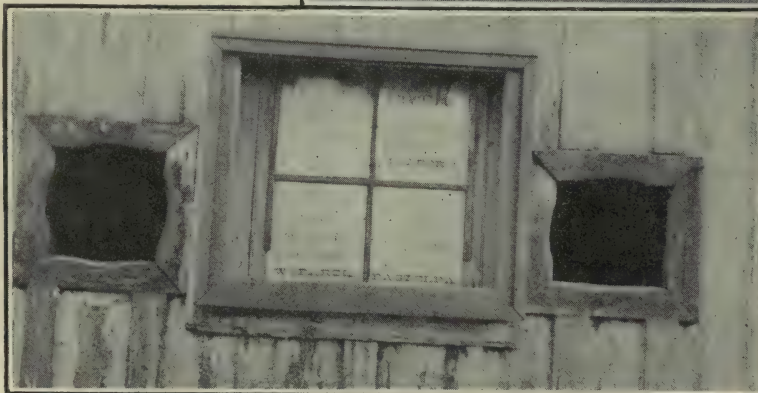
1. Ready for Eventualities—the high board fences around the collieries have been repaired.
2. A full-up checking board—showing that none of the men are in the mines.
3. Pile of old shoes at the door of a bath-house. The miners took out their tools and made a spring housecleaning of their personal belongings.
4. Notices posted at colliery headquarters of United Mine Workers giving warning that benefits will not be paid men who are in arrears in dues.



3

[Photos by The Survey.]

4



WHEN 170,000 MINERS PEACEFULLY LAID OFF APRIL 1



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8

5. Wilkes-Barre: Quitting work for the last time before the suspension.

6. Hazleton: Knot of miners on street corner.

7. Shenandoah: A game of cards to while away the time.

8. Mine Water: If this stream should stop, it would mean that the engineers and pump men had gone out with the pit men, that the mines were flooding, that strike breakers would be called in to fill their places in order to protect the mine property, and that the strike was on to the finish. It was not till towards the close of the 1902 strike that the engineers and pump men went out.

series of "campaign" meetings will be arranged at the various furniture centers and the effort will be made to create such a sentiment in favor of the nine-hour work day that its adoption as the standard for the furniture industry will be certain. The first of these meetings was scheduled to be held in Chicago, early in April, followed by meetings at St. Louis, Rockford, Ill., Evansville, Ind., Louisville, Ky., Cincinnati and Columbus, Ohio, Huntington, W. Va., and Detroit, Mich., to which furniture manufacturers from surrounding towns and cities will be invited to hear the results of the committee's work, and to consider the possibility of inaugurating or at least of working towards a shorter work-day.

CRAFTSMEN AND CRAFTSMASTERS

Meanwhile a nucleus of Grand Rapids manufacturers, including the concern with which Mr. Irwin is connected, the John Widdicomb Company, and five others, some of them prominent in the strike, are organizing a local movement which has as its ostensible object the creating of harmonious relations between employers and employees. This body calls itself the United Furniture Craftsmasters of Grand Rapids and was incorporated in the middle of March.

A brother association which is planned to work in harmony with the Craftsmasters is the United Furniture Craftsmen, made up of employees. Membership is said to be optional and the Craftsmen plan to canvass the factories systematically for employees willing to join and to organize factory branches of twenty-five

or more members which will elect delegates to a general governing body to take entire charge of the finances and management of the association.

The employes will pay 50 cents a month dues and will be entitled to relief of \$5 a week in the event of sickness, for a period not to exceed sixteen weeks, disability benefit of from \$100 to \$500 depending upon the duration of membership, a funeral benefit of \$100 on six months' membership and \$200 on a year's membership or longer, and half these amounts when the wife dies. A member of the Craftsmen may go from one factory to another and still keep up his membership, and under the rules by keeping up his dues can retain his membership and receive the benefits, but leaving the furniture industry disqualifies him from the supplemental benefits that may come to him through the Craftsmasters' association. The Craftsmasters will pay into the Craftsmen's treasury an amount equal to that paid in by the employes and this fund will be administered under their own direction in supplemental benefits and relief. If the Craftsmen's funds run low the funds of the Craftsmasters may be drawn upon to pay accruing benefits. As the funds grow, old age pensions, a clubhouse for the furniture workers and other benefits are contemplated.

One of the conditions of membership in the Craftsmen's association is that the employe shall not belong to any industrial association. This and the element of control by the manufacturers underlying the whole scheme would make it as much a contrivance for keeping the unions out of the industry as for mutual welfare.

A JAPANESE VIEW OF OUR REFORMATORIES

When Takahisa Oshio sailed from New York for Japan a few weeks ago, he carried with him the conviction that this country is "too big, too busy, and too noisy." The same faults, he thinks, afflict our penal system, especially parts of it which have to do with juvenile offenders. And Mr. Oshio is in a position to render a thorough-going Japan-

ese verdict, for he has just completed a two years' study of our reformatories. Previous to coming here he started the first public reform school in Yokohama, nine years ago, and later acted as department superintendent of Katei Gakko, a private home-school for delinquent boys at Sugamo, Tokyo.

Japan has neither a probation system, a juvenile court, nor a grading or merit system in its reformatories, like ours. Neither has it our jury trial. Mr. Oshio believes in the first three reforms and is going back to Japan to add his voice to the many now being raised in their favor. He is not going to advocate our institutional bigness, however. Japan has thirty-five reform schools maintained wholly by the state, several maintained entirely at private expense, and a number receiving money from both public and private sources. In nearly all of these the maximum capacity is a hundred inmates. Mr. Oshio's school had seventy when he left two years ago. Governmental policy favors this maximum, and reforming penologists in Japan, says Mr. Oshio, do not advocate its increase. The close personal contact which is possible between fifteen officers and teachers and ninety or a hundred boys and girls is a reforming influence which Mr. Oshio would not exchange for our larger buildings and numbers.

The first Japanese reform school exclusively for girls was established in Yokohama five years ago. Unless others have been started during his absence from the country, this, says Mr. Oshio, is the only one. About half of the public and semi-public schools for boys have added girls' departments, with complete segregation of sexes in grounds, buildings, and classes. The president of the school for girls is a man and all the other officers, from the superintendent down, are women. Treatment of girls in these schools differs from that of boys in that the former are given more work and less schooling. Mr. Oshio thinks that the experience of his country and ours alike is that girls are more incorrigible than boys. And in Japan, he says, it is easier to find indoor work for girls.

DAILY LIFE IN A JAP HOME-SCHOOL

One respect in which Mr. Oshio thinks his country is abreast if not ahead of ours is that all reform schools there have been conducted on the cottage plan for twenty-five years. Interesting differences in the two countries' treatment of juvenile offenders present themselves at the very outset of the clash between child and law. Take, for example, the method of commitment to a private home-school like Katei Gakko and the discipline imposed. There is no court sentence to begin with. To the Japanese child the law court has all the horror and stigma of a prison. A parent, teacher, or other guardian, therefore, asks the superintendent of the school to admit a wayward child. Youths between ten and twenty-one years of age are eligible. The superintendent requires a written report of the conduct on which the application for entry is based. If there is a vacancy, the child is allowed to enter. After he has been accepted the school investigates the conditions of his home and the character of his former associates, and traces his ancestral lines. The institution doctor examines him, with particular scrutiny as to mental defectiveness. In this phase of reformatory method Mr. Oshio thinks Japan is ahead of the United States. The feeble-minded are immediately changed to proper institutions. There are few mental defectives, he is sure, in Japan's schools for delinquents.

Each teacher and officer makes a report to the superintendent every evening on the day's deportment of all those in his or her charge. There being no marking system, common sense and every-day language are used in grading. Once a week the officers and teachers get together and discuss the different inmates. If it is decided that any one is ready for discharge, the school asks the parents or guardians whether, in their judgment, the discharged should be returned to his home, be placed with a related family, be sent to another school, or be apprenticed to some trade. After receiving a recommendation on this point the school decides it, and then supervises

the discharged inmates until he is twenty-one years old. This supervision consists of requiring a monthly report of conduct. Twice a year—at Christmas and on the anniversary of the emperor's birthday—all former inmates are invited back to attend festivities in their honor. To prevent embarrassment on the part of the graduates, no publicity is given to these occasions.

Daily life in the school begins with a compulsory plunge bath in the morning. After this come chapel exercises. Half the day, in the case of boys, is given to school and half to work. The common school branches are all that is ordinarily attempted. Work consists of making straw hats, laundering, farming, or gardening. The last is the chief labor indulged in. There is some military discipline, but this, says Mr. Oshio, is not regarded as important.

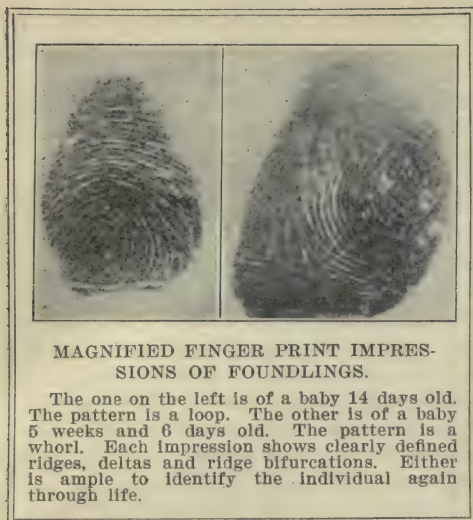
The school supported wholly from public sources differs little from the one just described. Entrance is secured only by an order from the government. In searching for comparisons Mr. Oshio said that the average reformatory in his country is midway between the junior republic here and the stricter institution of the Elmira type.

EDITORIAL GRIST

AN EXPERIMENT WITH TINY FINGERS

JOSEPH T. WILLIAMS

Two women came to King Solomon each declaring herself the mother of a baby boy. One claimed the other had stolen the child in the night and put in its place her own infant, which had died. The king's judgment that each child be divided with the sword and half given to each mother, was, if barbarous, admirably effective. But had the wise king had the benefit of modern methods he would have turned to his file of fingerprint records of all his subjects from early babyhood, and by this means have corrected mistakes of identity.



In the Borough of Manhattan, New York, during the year 1911 more than one hundred abandoned babies were taken to Bellevue Hospital alone to be cared for by the public or passed on to private charities. In the same year this hospital received as maternity cases about five hundred women, unmarried as well as married. Usually a woman leaves the hospital two weeks after her child is born. How many of the babies brought as foundlings to Bellevue were born in this same institution, taken away by the mothers and later abandoned, no one can tell. Nor can it be known which of them were born in the other maternity hospitals in New York. Once in a great while a foundling baby is recognized by the nurses as one of which they already have record, and the mother is thereby discovered. But the identification of the babies and consequently of the mothers can be accomplished in every case and by the simplest possible process—*finger-print the babies*.

Is it possible to finger-print very young babies? An experiment just performed has shown that the tiny fingers of the baby in the earliest days of life afford well defined impressions. The photographed finger-print impressions made to accompany this article were taken recently in the baby ward at Bellevue Hospital. Baby C., two weeks old,

was quite unconcerned in the finger-printing process; Baby McD., however, who had been in the world five weeks and six days, wailed at the intrusion of unexpected guests, but was quieted by the assurance that only in the interest of science were his impressions wanted. All the features which characterize the adult finger-print, loops, whorls, and arches with clearly defined ridges, deltas, terminals, etc., are distinct in the smallest baby's fingers and thumbs. Finger-printing each baby required less than two minutes, and all in the ward could have been accomplished in an hour or two. These impressions can be taken by anyone with a little practice. Classification and identification require special knowledge, but are not difficult to learn. Only an expert, however, is familiar with the thousand ways in which two finger print impressions may be distinguished.

The best results in the identification of foundling babies could be obtained if all public and charitable hospitals sent to a central bureau a record of each maternity case including finger-print impressions of the baby with a description of the mother. When a baby is found abandoned its finger-print impressions also can be taken and sent to the central bureau. If the abandoned baby was born in one of the institutions sharing in the bureau, the impressions would be immediately recognized and the baby and its mother identified.

Not all foundling babies of course are born in institutions. If they were the finding of the mother and the punishment of those implicated in child murder would be a much simpler problem than it is. One day last week within a few hours two discarded babies were found in Brooklyn, one wrapped in newspapers and thrown into the gutter and the other partially buried in an ash heap in a vacant lot. The mother of one of these infants was known to have brought it there in an automobile. Finger-printing the institution babies would have been of no avail in the case of this particular mother; nevertheless it would be a step in the direction of checking a flagrant kind of criminality.

FIGHTING CHILD LABOR IN THREE STATES

A. J. McKELWAY

The Uniform Child Labor Law, adopted last summer by the Commission on United States Laws and recommended to all the states for adoption, embraces, in the judgment of the commission, the best features of protection for working children adopted in any state. This year attempts have been made to have this law adopted in Massachusetts, Maryland, and Mississippi, and a bill embracing the same chief provisions is advocated in Congress for the District of Columbia. The bill is still pending in the Massachusetts legislature. It is hoped that the example of Maryland and Mississippi will influence the lawmakers there to pass the measure. At one bound Maryland has passed from the bottom of the list, so far as the regulation of child labor is concerned, to the top. Her old law had a twelve-year age-limit applying to canneries outside the city of Baltimore, from June 15 to September 15. The new law makes a fourteen-year age-limit for nearly all occupations, though it allows children of twelve years to be employed in canneries, stores, places of amusement, and in the distribution and transmission of merchandise and messages. Such children must secure vacation permits, the provisions of which are carefully guarded. The new law raises the age-limit for messenger service at night from 16 to 18, falling thus behind New York, New Jersey, and Ohio. It does not reduce the hours for children below the ten-hour day. On the other hand, the age-limit for newsboys is twelve years, which is two years higher than in most states. Otherwise the new law follows the Uniform Child Labor Law with but slight modifications, and the appointment of a new chief of the bureau of labor statistics with increased appropriations for the bureau augurs well for the enforcement of the law.

To W. H. Maltbie of Baltimore, chairman of the Maryland Child Labor Committee and a member of the House of Delegates, is due the chief credit for the

passage of this measure. The modifications of the Uniform Child Labor Law were made by agreement with the employers of labor throughout the state or to overcome objections of the members of the legislature. Mr. Maltbie had tentative copies of the bill printed and widely circulated, then with consummate skill he met the objections where they could be overcome and yielded where yielding was imperative. I have just received a letter from Governor Goldsborough announcing that he will sign the bill.

It is worthy of notice that a compulsory school attendance bill was also passed by the legislature, a new bastardy law was enacted, provision was made for the care of the feeble-minded and the principle of workmen's compensation was established. Altogether the legislature made a record in the way of social service legislation.

Mississippi also had a twelve-year age-limit and it protected children only in factories. The National Child Labor Committee issued in the fall a pamphlet entitled *Child Labor in Mississippi*, abundantly illustrated with photographs showing actual conditions, especially in the cotton mills and oyster canneries, and containing the reports of its agents as well as extracts from the recent report of the Bureau of Labor on the condition of child and woman workers. This pamphlet was given wider circulation by means of a weekly press service throughout Mississippi. E. N. Clopper took charge of the campaign. Following his address before the state senate that body voted unanimously for the bill, which closely followed the Uniform Child Labor Law. In the House an amendment was adopted exempting the canneries in the country, though not the oyster canneries on the Gulf. As thus amended the law was passed. Unfortunately, Mr. Clopper was compelled to leave for Kentucky where a fight for child labor reform was in progress, and during his absence the cotton manufacturers' lobby persuaded the House to reconsider its action, and to amend the bill by lowering the age-limit for boys only from fourteen to twelve in the occupations mentioned.

Mississippi takes it place with Ohio in establishing the eight-hour day for boys under sixteen and girls under eighteen in all these establishments, and in the prohibition of night work for boys under sixteen and girls under eighteen.

Kentucky also established a ten-hour work day for women under twenty-one in all gainful occupations except domestic service and nursing, and the law provides that no female of any age shall work in a laundry, bakery, factory, workshop, store, hotel, restaurant, telephone exchange, or telegraph office more than ten hours a day. The amendments to the child labor law were defeated, but a new factory inspection law provides for two additional inspectors, both of whom shall be women.

Unfortunately, the Virginia Legislature failed to respond to public sentiment. The attempt was made to abolish the poverty exemption clause of the Virginia statute, to amend the law prohibiting the sale of newspapers for boys under ten, to make an age-limit of eighteen for the night messenger service, and a ten-hour day for children under sixteen in all the occupations named. The measure passed the House by an overwhelming majority, but met death in the Senate through the unfriendly attitude of the Committee on General Laws. Hearings on the bill before this committee were postponed twice so as to bring the report of the committee before the Senate in the closing week of the session when a small minority was able to prevent action. The committee first amended the bill to suit its peculiar ideas and then reported the amended bill unfavorably. Virginia is again indebted to the cotton manufacturers for this comparatively low standard of child labor legislation.

The new bill scarcely touched the employment of children in factories, simply

providing that the permits for children between twelve and fourteen should be issued by the judge instead of by the magistrate. Yet these manufacturers employed a lawyer from Lynchburg, who took up most of his speaking time in extolling the virtues of his employers. A cotton manufacturer from Danville continued at greater length in the same vein. The only point he made against the bill was that on Saturdays his employees went to work at six-thirty instead of seven o'clock in the morning, as was provided for in the bill. The cotton manufacturers have thus virtually put themselves in the position of opposing any advance to child labor legislation in Virginia whether it affects them or not. It seems to me, in view of the recent report of the tariff board concerning the wages paid in the cotton mill industry as compared to those paid abroad, and the information that no protection is needed to equalize the cost of production at home and abroad, that the cotton manufacturers not only of Virginia but all other states which have so uniformly resisted attempts to give protection to children are in poor position to be petitioning Congress for the continuance of a protective tariff for themselves. At the very moment that the Danville manufacturer was making his dreary harangue concerning the benefits of the cotton mills to the poor people of the rural districts, I was shown a letter from Danville giving the names of several people whom he had discharged because they had attempted to form a labor union.

The Virginia legislature did pass a ten-hour law extending its benefits to a few other occupations, but an amendment was made in the Senate exempting laundries. The legislature also passed a good birth registration bill and made an initial appropriation for an institution for the feeble-minded.



WATER FRONT AND HILLSIDE AT LYONS

CIVICS

GOVERNMENT BULLETIN BOARD

FLORENCE BOLTON

Talk of the referendum, the recall, and of rule by the people makes pertinent this question: What opportunity has the ordinary citizen to get into touch with the men whom he has helped to put into office, or of knowing anything of their efficiency? The American citizen commonly feels little personal responsibility in the matter of public service. Usually he is only aroused when something calls forth general indignation, or when some special subject is worked up to the proportions of a sensation by the newspapers or party orators. The newspaper is the only general source of political information and great areas of this country are under the influence of sensational, biased journalism. The wide circulation of excellent magazines does much to develop interest in good government, but they cannot deal with local problems.

As a rule in state or town the holders of offices, below those of governor and mayor, are nameless to most citizens. There is general ignorance as to the duties of various offices. Is there no way to meet and overcome this ignorance?

There are two government institutions in every community—the postoffice and the school house. In each of these there is un-

used wall-space. Could not the government use some of this space to advantage in bringing the people into closer touch with the work that it is trying to do for their benefit? Why should not school children absorb from a government bulletin board hanging in the hall-way, the knowledge that there is a health officer, a city attorney, etc., and what they do? Through the children the school has a marked influence on the home, especially in the case of foreigners. Parents are keenly alive to everything that the children bring into the home from their school environment. Now that school houses have become in some places active social centers, the school has an even wider sphere of influence than ever before.

In country towns the postoffice is a proverbial lounging place, and "mail time" draws long lines of waiting people, who might be less profitably employed than in letting their eyes wander over a government bulletin board. In the city the postoffice is not so frequently visited, but the main office and the sub-stations in each important district would make centers easy of access, which would very soon be depended upon for the sort of information that such a bulletin board might furnish. The

Public Library would also be an appropriate place to spread such knowledge.

Acquaintance with the name of a public servant, or a knowledge ever so slight of an office and its duties, develops interest in that office and in the person who fills it. The interest is doubled if each citizen feels that he must help develop the efficiency of the office. One obstacle which prevents Americans from getting the admirable public service found in England is our innate objection to making a fuss which will make us disliked. Let me give a homely example.

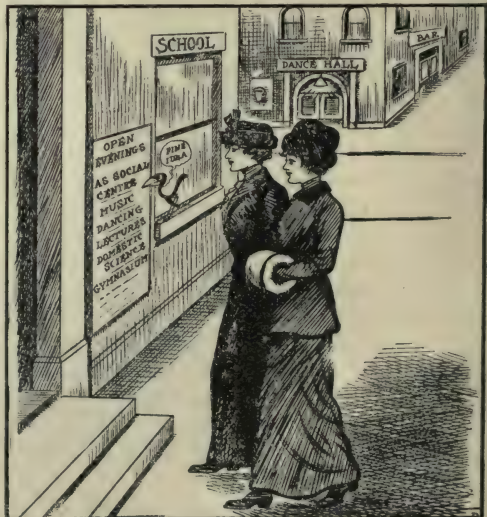
In a town of 5,000 inhabitants there had been irregularities in the postoffice for some time. Parcels and letters disappeared, causing annoyance even where the money loss was small. A new comer who lost two packages was astonished to find that the trouble had been going on so long that a tradition had grown up to the effect that "it was just as well not to send, nor have sent, through this office, anything that one cared about." Complaint at the postoffice had been futile. Yet people were scornful of the pettiness of this man, for writing to Washington on a matter so trifling. Experience had taught this citizen that a letter to headquarters quickly righted the wrong without working harm to any one who did not deserve it. No one else seemed to know to whom to turn for a remedy, nor to consider that it was his business to set the postoffice straight.

Often we hear remarks such as these: "Our breakfast cream was sweet this morning, but perfectly solid, what do you suppose was the matter with it? Was it safe to eat? Do you know anything about the dairy?" Or a neighbor says: "Every now and then we get a bottle of milk that is ropy or stringy, and we have changed dairies several times. We don't know what to do about it." It surely would not be difficult for the milk commission or the health officer to answer these questions, and tell the inquirers what to do, and set the dairies straight. If only a simple connection could be set up between questioners and public servants, townspeople would soon wake up to their duty and responsibility; office-holders would know that their work was watched and supported and the dairies would wake up to the fact that communities were demanding better milk. There is already an awakening, but as yet the gap between the people and the public servant is too wide.

Undoubtedly such a Bulletin Board as we have suggested would lose interest if the same dusty statements remained by the year. It would have to be a live thing, an organ of communication between the government and the people, planned to bring them into closer touch with each other. There might be such announcements as these: first, the names of local officers, their duties and their place of office; second, the names of those



THE PROBLEM



—Phifer in Trenton, N. J., *Evening Times*.
THE SOLUTION

state officers whose work more intimately touches local needs, such as the chairman or secretary of the state board of health, and the secretary of the state horticultural society; third, a few names of those offices at Washington which would have special significance for a given district or community, such as the Department of Agriculture, with a statement of what they stand for. In each case should be given the name and address of the person in the department to whom communications should be sent. Below these more permanent notices, there might be a free space for posting notices of local interest, to be changed from time to time. Here the health officer of the town might have a chart showing the relation of vaccination to the death rate in small pox, or the name of the dairy that had lately come up to the standard. The farmers' association could announce its next meeting and its program, or post the latest government recipe for the destruction of some pest. The state pure food laboratory might have its placard warning people against the use of headache powders, or an announcement of its willingness to test doubtful foods or medicines. The state dairymen's association could post the latest bulletin on bovine tuberculosis or the success of pasteurized butter, and here also might be placed the latest list of bulletins from the Department of Agriculture.

In the development of this plan many questions are bound to arise. First and most important is, Under what federal department would its administration come? Could the postmaster general be empowered to establish such a system of bulletin boards? There is also the question as to who should be deputed to do the collecting, sorting, tabulating, and changing of the announcements relating to more or less local matters. Could the postmaster have this added to his duties, or should there not be appointed in every state a special agent, primarily interested in the education of the people and in economic problems, with a training calculated to help him appraise the comparative importance of the various welfare movements going on about him and asking for representation. For there are many more or less private associations which are doing work so closely connected with public welfare, that they can only be considered as assisting the government. Among these are the state dairymen's association, the play-

ground association (which has already in some places become a municipal institution), and the farmers' association. All would have just ground for asking to have certain matters published in this way.

It is by meeting the intimate daily needs of the people, by answering their questions, and helping to solve their problems, that the government can most quickly educate them, and give them a sense of a "government for the people"! With education and an appreciation of what the government is trying to do, will come a better co-operation between the people and their public officers, the election of proper public servants and ultimately a nearer approach to a "government by the people."

SALARIES AND PROMOTION

LEONHARD FELIX FULD

Examiner Municipal Civil Service Commission,
New York

[Though this article on Salaries and Promotion explains the efficiency record system installed by a New York corporation, the specialist mentioned in it to whom they turned for help in formulating the plan was Dr. Fuld of the Municipal Civil Service Commission.]

As the "Municipal Journal and Engineer" pointed out, referring to the circular of instructions prepared for carrying out the scheme, the system, with perhaps slight changes, is equally applicable to the municipal departments in our larger cities.

Charter changes would often be necessary to make it possible to increase annually the salaries of clerks and other employees, but that principle is applied quite generally in the case of teachers, policemen, and firemen. Municipal employees would have one protection which apparently is not guaranteed them in this system. They cannot usually under civil service rules be discharged for inefficiency without being given a chance to be heard in their own defense.]

"When I was a young man, I received \$5 for \$500 worth of work, and now I receive \$500 for \$5 worth of work," said a prominent New York lawyer recently. Co-relation between the value of the service rendered and the compensation paid is seldom carefully or well adjusted. This leads frequently to dissatisfaction on the part of the employees, and to positive injury on the part of the employer. Dissatisfied employees do not perform their duties as efficiently as those who are contented and ambitious. The employer also loses the services of trained and experienced employees who become dissatisfied.

To remedy this condition, a New York corporation recently appointed a committee on salaries and promotion, consisting of superior executive officers, which made a study of this subject with the assistance of a specialist. The committee began its work by collecting on

cards a complete record of each employe. This included the date of his appointment and of each promotion. Every increase of salary and its amount was noted. The cards contained, also, a full descriptive account of the nature of the duties performed by each worker and a brief statement by his immediate superior regarding the character and quality of his work. This committee next provided for a system of efficiency records. Efficiency record systems commonly fail to be of distinct value because of one or more common defects. Often they are prepared too frequently. Other systems attempt to grade the employes on a percentage scale. Sometimes there is lack of uniformity between the different rating officers. In other cases no attempt is made to control the power of the rating officers. The committee tried to overcome each of these weaknesses. It provided for efficiency reports every three months by the superior officer most closely in touch with the work of the subordinate. On each report the employes are to be divided into three classes: those whose work has been satisfactory, those who have failed to give satisfaction, and those whose service has been distinguished for its excellence. In the last two cases, unless definite and specific reasons for the opinion expressed are given, they are disregarded.

These quarterly reports are considered by the committee on salaries and promotion, and the employes are rated in accordance with them. The satisfactory employes are graded B, the unsatisfactory C, and the specially meritorious employes A. The promotion committee reserves the right to disregard any recommendation for an A or a C rating if it believes the reasons given are insufficient. Employes who are rated C are notified that if their services are reported unsatisfactory a second time they will be dismissed. The corporation gives automatic increases in salaries to employes who earn an A four consecutive times. Employes are limited to ten automatic increases in any one position.

The work of the committee seems to have a beneficial effect upon the personnel of the corporation. The descriptive quarterly reports give the executive officers valuable information regarding the services performed by the employes. The officers were astonished at some of the reports of unsatisfactory service and of specially meritorious work.

Those who were reported as notoriously unfit were promptly dismissed and equally prompt action was taken to promote those specially recommended. The automatic annual salary increases of 10 per cent for specially meritorious employes has proved to be a desirable incentive for good work, and the letters of warning addressed to unsatisfactory employes have had an equally good result in checking and correcting careless and indifferent habits.

WISCONSIN STUDIES HER SCHOOLS

Field work for the training of men for public business is being tested in Wisconsin, where a thorough-going study is now being made of the public school system, particularly the rural schools and those of smaller cities. The men who are being trained are measuring the indoor and outdoor accommodations of rural schools, methods of ventilation, time given to different subjects, regularity of attendance, success in promotion, etc.

From the stand-point of tax-payer and pupil they are comparing results in sections where a number of school districts combine to support one central graded school with other districts where a number of ungraded small schools are still being maintained. The nature of school supervision given by county superintendents of rural schools, the way in which the State Labor Board enforces compulsory attendance, and how teachers are trained in the normal schools are some other questions which are being studied and threshed out by students of the National Training School for Public Service established through the interest of Mrs. Harriman in co-operation with the State Board of Public Affairs. This board was constituted by the last legislature with sweeping powers to subpoena witnesses and records and to investigate every official body which spends public money in Wisconsin.

Dr. E. C. Elliott, in charge of the University of Wisconsin's work in school administration, has detailed a number of men to devote their time to this joint inquiry. William H. Allen of New York, director of the National Training School for Public Service, has arranged to send three men, two of whom were formerly city superintendents of schools, to start this study of the public school system. Dr. Allen has said that the Wisconsin field is a particularly favorable one in which to prepare men by field analysis, for the following reasons:

"The school study is part of a general study of every manner of administrative problem, involving the smallest as well as the largest public bodies in the state; a state-wide demand for information means a state-wide interest in results; the men must deal with the country school, the city schools, the normal school, industrial training, agricul-

tural training, county supervision, state supervision, and the relation of the public schools to the university; something is going to be done about it right away for the benefit of the whole state. The opportunity is so obvious, the responsibility so immediate, and the co-operating forces so many that more quickly than any other field we know it would give varied experiences and varied tests which men in training need. Then, too, it emphasizes the underlying theory of the training school that its instruction should be through doing things that need to be done."

JOTTINGS

"JAY WALKING"

Kansas City has decided that as a city grows it is very evident that all traffic on foot as well as on wheels must be controlled. It believes that the "jay walker" is a menace to traffic in a busy city and will not permit him to stray all over a street on which the movement of vehicles is strictly regulated and so increase the danger of accidents, nor will it allow him to cut corners.

The *Kansas City Star* says of the new ordinance: "It is not so bad for Kansas City to be setting the pace in such matters. Incidentally, the police force, which is enforcing the ordinance with vigor and discretion, deserves a large share of the credit for ushering in the new regime of orderly traffic."

SURVEY OF CITY'S FUN

To furnish San Francisco definite, comprehensive, and co-ordinated knowledge of the provision now made by public, semi-public, and private institutions for the recreation of young and old of both sexes at all times, the Commonwealth Club of California has appropriated funds for a complete survey of the Golden City's recreational facilities. This club, composed of business and professional men, has conducted social and civic investigations which have won for it a reputation throughout the country. Wise action on the part of citizens in providing for social centers, playgrounds, and the wider use of the school plant depends, in the opinion of this club, upon accurate knowledge of conditions. Those planning the survey expect to make it wider in scope than any which has yet been conducted. It will not be limited to any phase of the problem such as commercial amusements to which so much attention has been devoted in many cities, but will include a study of saloons, motion pictures, dance halls, skating rinks, schools, playgrounds, ball grounds, baths, aquatic parks and concerts.

The Commonwealth Club will have assistance in this work from the Pacific Coast office of the Playground and Recreation Association of America and intends to work in co-operation with the Associated Charities, the Juvenile Court and other institutions and organizations immediately interested in the subject.

The report is to be well illustrated with pictures, charts, and diagrams. It is hoped that through this report a municipal appropriation will be obtained to carry out the work more intensively.

CITY PLANNING CONFERENCE

Several hundred engineers and architects and others interested in city planning will meet in Boston late in May to discuss the progress of city planning, how to finance city planning, studies in the planning of specific areas, the German principle of "Zones" or differential building districts, and various aspects of the transit problem. These are the subjects which the executive committee has selected for consideration at the Fourth National Conference on City Planning, the exact date of which has not yet been fixed. In order to save the program from being too stereotyped at least one session is to be devoted to unclassified questions proposed by members of the conference and others interested in the subject. Activity in city planning in the United States has but just started. In the last two years eight cities have appointed city planning commissions, making a total of ten in the United States. Keeping pace with this growing interest, the membership of the National Conference on City Planning between 1910 and 1911 increased over threefold, and the executive committee expect a still greater attendance this year.

WHERE "WHITE WINGS" STAY WHITE

Garbage in the city of Denver is removed from the premises of citizens without cost to them or to the city, through a contract made by the municipal authorities with the Hog Growers' Association. Employees of this association at regular intervals make the rounds of the city and collect about 100 tons per day.

In the business section sanitary rubbish cans are placed on every block. Each stands thirty-six inches high, and has sides nineteen inches wide. Within the can is a large sack fastened to hooks directly under a removable top, so arranged that when the top is down and locked the sack cannot be taken out. The removable top is really a cover chute through which the waste passes to the receptacle sack within. Perforations in the bottom of the sack permit the escape of moisture and this, together with the free circulation of air through the can which has an open bottom, keeps the contents as nearly dry as possible.

"A great point in favor of the sanitary can," as pointed out in the *Dallas News*, "lies in the removal of its contents. The top is taken off, the sack or pouch lifted from the hooks supporting it, the draw-string at the top pulled, thus closing the mouth, and the whole is thrown upon the wagon which bears the rubbish away. There is no possibility that the contents may be blown through the streets, thus undoing the work of the can, and the man in charge of the wagon may do his

work in trim uniform, or even in a dress suit."

THE LOAN OF HONOR

A decidedly novel form of charity and perhaps the strangest of the many practical experiments in the world-wide war against "loan sharks" is described in a report from the American consul at Lyons, France. A society called the Loan of Honor has existed for several years for the purpose of lending small sums to clerks, operatives, and others in need who are unable to give security of any kind. Sums ranging from \$6 to \$60 are lent to borrowers promising on their word of honor to return the amount loaned within a certain time.

Loans are not made indiscriminately but only after the borrower has been interrogated, and investigation made as to the merits of each seemingly favorable case. Since its establishment, as a result of the care and judgment used, the society has lost only about \$200 in loans that were not repaid.

During the last fiscal year 384 persons were aided, comprising clerks, small trades people, teachers, mill hands, mechanics, etc., and sixty-eight women occupying humble positions. Some of the causes for the applications are stated to be: Sickness 119, lack of work eighty-three, debts eighty-four, starting housekeeping twenty-seven. All but twenty-seven of those granted loans were married people.

Recognized as a public benefit the society has small subventions from the city and departmental governments to eke out its receipts from the dues of members, occasional private donations, and an annual bazar. Oddly enough the consul's report does not say whether interest is charged on the loans but it leads one to infer that it is not.

100,000 ROSE SLIPS FOR TACOMA

Commissioned by the Tacoma *Evening News* and the *Morning Ledger* to be at the beck and call of improvement clubs, school principals, and home builders, for three days each week E. R. Roberts, landscape artist, has been able to start several city beautiful movements of promise in the Puget Sound city. Through Mr. Roberts' articles in these newspapers, both of which are owned by S. A. Perkins, and through his personal co-operation with the Tacoma Rose Society, 100,000 rose slips were gathered for free distribution by the newspapers in March.

Mr. Roberts not only gives his services to improvement clubs and other societies devoted to the up-building of the community, but prepares plans for the beautification of the grounds around school houses and other public buildings. He even gives advice and assistance in the laying out of parking strips and the grounds about private residences. Hundreds of school children have volunteered to furnish plants for school grounds, and a great many have undertaken home gardening as a result of the zeal aroused.

When the newspapers established this novel



—Courtesy of American City.

A MINNEAPOLIS GARDENER.

department they believed there was considerable demand for it. The expectation has been realized, for on each of the days that Mr. Roberts is in his office, he has been unable to keep up with the demand for information.

HOUSE CLEANING IN BRIDGEPORT

Bridgeport, which passed the 100,000 mark in population in 1910, is charged with continuing to conduct its affairs along lines laid down a generation ago when the city was small. The present administration aims to put the business of the city upon a more modern basis. As first steps a Board of Contract and Supply has been established to take charge of the purchase and distribution of supplies for all city departments. A Committee of Audit has also been appointed with full power to investigate, and charged with responsibility for the installation of a uniform system of accounts. For this purpose \$20,000 has been appropriated and the work has been assigned to Peter White, consulting accountant of the Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency and of the Milwaukee Bureau of Economy and Efficiency.

The scope of the work to be undertaken under the direction of the Committee of Audit, which consists of John Taylor, W. P. Allen and J. H. Breen, is "to investigate and examine into the whole financial system of the city to the end that a uniform system of audit and account for the financial affairs of the city may be provided."

HEALTH

EXAMINATION OF EMPLOYEES FOR TUBERCULOSIS

THEODORE B. SACHS, M. D.

CHICAGO TUBERCULOSIS INSTITUTE

The gradually growing appreciation of health as the greatest asset of the worker points to the ultimate adoption by all industrial concerns of the policy of periodic medical examinations of employees, financed either by the employer, employees' associations, the state, or all three combined. At the present time, provision for examination of employees is in existence in comparatively few establishments and this is either limited to cases of sudden illness or accident or is one of the conditions of admission to employees' benefit associations which generally include only a part of the working force.

It is a matter of common experience that in the majority of working places at present little or no cognizance is taken of cases of tuberculosis until they are far beyond the curable stage. The plan of examination of employees for tuberculosis, previously described in *THE SURVEY*,¹ is recommended for adoption, first, because of the economy of its administration (as compared with the cost of periodic examinations of the entire force), and hence greater possibility of its general acceptance; second, because the operation of this plan draws the attention of the employer, superintendent or foreman to the health of individual workers, thus tending to greater solidarity of interests and hence greater efficiency of the entire force.

Since the submission of this plan to the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute a year ago, a systematic campaign for its adoption by industrial concerns in this city, has been carried on by the Committee on Factories of the Institute. At present the plan is in operation in shops and offices of the International Harvester Company, Montgomery Ward & Company and the Chicago Telephone Company, and it has just been adopted also by Swift & Company. The firm of Sears, Roebuck & Company have for some time given special attention to tuberculosis in their examination of employees.

The campaign among employers is being continued and the prospects are bright for a more universal co-operation from them.

The details of the plan are as follows:

First, provision for a physician to examine all suspicious cases. In places with established medical service, this task may be assigned to the physician on the staff of the firm. In large establishments a special "tuberculosis" examining physician may be necessary. In either case, possession of special experience in the diagnosis of tuberculosis is highly desirable.

Duties of the physician include: examination and diagnosis of cases; disposition of those found tuberculous; instruction of the sick in the essentials of treatment and of the "predisposed" in right living and in measures tending to increase the general resistance; frequent noon or evening talks to the entire working force on maintenance of health and prevention of disease.

The hours of work of the physician are determined by the extent of the problem; one, two or more afternoons a week; or a regular daily service. Compensation should be graduated according to the amount of work and the individual qualifications.

Second, a trained nurse to assist the physician. Duties: to assist the physician during clinic hours; to visit and study the homes and living conditions of employees pronounced "tuberculous" or "predisposed"; to instruct in the fundamentals of right living and in the methods of care and prevention, by actual demonstration in the employee's home; to gather in each individual case information essential to its right solution.

Compensation should be that of a visiting tuberculosis nurse, regulated by the responsibilities of the position and individual qualifications.

Third, classes of cases to be examined. At a conference between the superintendent, the physician, and the nurse it is agreed that the working force is to be watched for the following classes of cases:

- (a) employees in whom diagnosis of tuberculosis was previously made;
- (b) employees whose poor general condition (malnutrition, anaemia, or weakness), in connection with other suspicious symptoms, suggests the possible presence of the disease;

¹A preliminary article on this subject by Dr. Sachs was published in *THE SURVEY*, October 21, 1911.

- (c) employes with histories of protracted (or recurring) cough and expectoration;
- (d) employes in whose families or homes a case of tuberculosis exists or in which a death from tuberculosis occurred.

In large establishments, a circular letter may be sent, previous to the conference, to all superintendents or foremen, calling attention to the above-mentioned classes of cases and explaining the object and scope of the proposed examinations.

Fourth, a tuberculosis clinic. With the compilation of a list of suspicious cases, a tuberculosis clinic is established on the premises of the firm, in which all such cases are subjected to thorough medical examination, and classified: (a) according to diagnosis,—"tuberculous" or "non-tuberculous," "active" or "non-active," "open" or "closed"; (b) according to necessity for change of occupation or discontinuance of work; (c) according to need of hospital, sanatorium or home treatment.

The solution of each case is considered after a full analysis of all its medical and social aspects.

At times some difficulty may be encountered in persuading individuals to undergo the examination, but diplomacy and kindness will usually overcome that obstacle.

Besides serving as a diagnostic station, the clinic maintains continuous supervision over (a) employes classed as "predisposed," (b) employes returned to work, with the disease "apparently cured" or "arrested" by institutional or home treatment, (c) employes taking "home treatment" and assigned to the clinic by the employer.

Some of the important problems, which will usually arise in the course of operation of the plan, are as follows:

The first is the insufficiency and inefficiency of the present institutional provision for the tuberculous in some of our cities. The number of curable cases of tuberculosis in need of sanatorium treatment in a community generally outnumbers the existing sanatorium facilities. In addition to this, the administrative and medical standard of most of our hospitals for advanced cases is such as not to appeal to the average workman unless driven

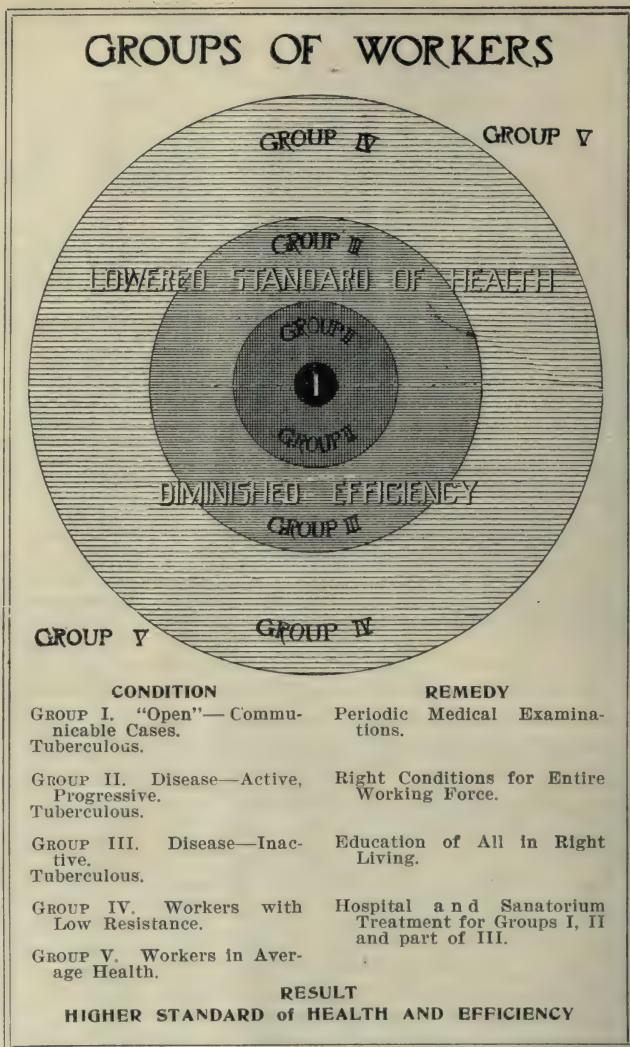


DIAGRAM BY DR. SACHS ILLUSTRATING THE TUBERCULOSIS PROBLEM IN A WORKING PLACE.

there, as a last resort, by the utter hopelessness of his condition or by absolute destitution. This situation, unavoidably results in the continuous infection of homes by a large number of tuberculous cases where institutional care would have best safeguarded the interests of the patient and his family. It is hoped, therefore, that, with the gradual realization on the part of the employers of the extent and importance of the tuberculosis problem, their influence will be exerted in favor of more comprehensive and more efficient institutional care of the tuberculous.

Second, the lack or insufficiency of financial provision for employes in case of illness, may be encountered. Excepting provision through membership in an employes' benefit associa-

tion found in a small number of concerns, or a policy in an industrial insurance company, the average employe is generally thrown on his own resources in case of illness. The attitude of some industrial establishments has been very liberal in supplying funds for the care of their employes in sanatoria and hospitals and even for the maintenance of the families during the illness of the wage-earners. The interests of the employes as well as of the employer demand, however, the further development and extension of the principle of workmen's sickness and disability insurance, which is only partially realized at present in the employes' benefit associations.

A system of examination for tuberculosis, efficiently operated in a working place, will tend to materially reduce the financial burden imposed at present on a workman and his family by delayed diagnosis of the disease, for early detection of tuberculosis, made possible by a system of periodic examinations, shortens the period of treatment and increases the likelihood of "cure" and restoration of the working power.

Third, co-operation with the family physician, the city tuberculosis clinics and other organizations, in effecting efficient supervision and care of cases of tuberculosis among employes, if lacking, should have attention.

Under the present conditions length of service or other personal considerations determine the active interest of an employer in an employe stricken with tuberculosis. The employe may have no resources of his own and the weekly allowance supplied by the benefit association may be insufficient to carry him through the required period of treatment and provide for his family during that time. Co-operation with other organizations is frequently necessary in order to effect the right kind of an arrangement for the care of the employe and his family.

As previously stated, diagnosis of all suspicious cases in a working place is of great importance to the employe and employer. A satisfactory arrangement by which the family physician of the employe may co-operate with the firm in this respect should be put into operation. If an employe is able to pay for medical care, a notice of his illness should be sent, with his permission, to his family physician.

Abuse of medical charity should be avoided in any arrangement made by the firm for the care of its tuberculous employes. Under the present conditions, however, a large proportion of working people find themselves, unfortunately, with inadequate means, when confronted with a chronic disease. This necessitates close co-operation between the tuberculosis clinic in the working place and the municipal tuberculosis clinics, as well as with tuberculosis associations, in order to assure proper supervision and care of all discovered cases.

The question is frequently asked what disposition should be made of the various

groups of active and inactive cases of tuberculosis discovered in the course of examinations. An answer to this question is very important, as the laity is under the impression that sanatorium treatment is the only effective solution in all cases of tuberculosis, no matter how slight are the suspicious physical signs or how inactive is the disease. Such a procedure is of course impossible, with our present limited institutional facilities and, fortunately, is unnecessary under any conditions.

To make this clear, we shall consider, in a general way, the various groups of cases encountered in a working place and suggest a policy to be followed in each group:

1. "*Open*" cases of tuberculosis (*tubercle bacilli in the sputum*). All stages of the disease. Unless under control, this group is a prolific source of infection.

Hospital or sanatorium treatment of the majority of cases of this group is the ideal solution from every standpoint. Treatment at home should never be attempted unless conditions permit of absolute control of infection. While the majority of "open" cases are beyond the incipient stage, "arrest" of the process and full or partial restoration of working power takes place, with proper treatment, in a considerable proportion of this group.

Discharged hospital or sanatorium patients, in possession of sufficient working power, but still "carriers" of infection (*bacilli in the sputum*) may be given light outdoor employment. Indoor work is permissible in very few cases of this kind and then only under the condition of perfect control of the infection on the part of the worker, in well ventilated rooms and not in contact with other employes.

Consideration of the welfare of the entire working force demands detection and control of the group of "open" cases, as the first step in any system of medical examination established in a working place.

2. "*Active*" cases of tuberculosis, *without tubercle bacilli in the sputum* ("closed"). Chiefly incipient, favorable cases (exception: a small number of cases reaching the advanced stage, without bacilli in the sputum). Unless given timely and efficient treatment, a large percentage of these cases pass into group 1 (become "open," communicable).

Sanatorium treatment is the most efficient method in dealing with the majority of these cases. Home treatment may be attempted in surroundings affording all the essentials of sanatorium life and with patients possessing the necessary power of self control. A large percentage of this group recover health and working capacity and continue to maintain it under proper conditions.

When "cure" or "arrest" is attained, decision as to proper occupation in each individual case should be based on a thorough study of all its conditions. Arduous labor, insufficient night rest, lack of air (day and night) and

insufficient nourishment lead to "breakdowns"; but with avoidance of 'unhealthy' occupations and proper regulation of home life (plenty of rest, air, and food), maintenance of health is possible in the majority of these cases discovered and treated in the early stages. It is the function of the physician and the nurse employed by the concern to guide these men and women in the essentials of proper living and in the avoidance of all injurious influences.

While from the standpoint of safety of a working force the division of all cases of tuberculosis into "open" and "closed" is of greatest importance, the chances of recovery in the individual case are influenced by other factors, equally important, viz.: extent and activity of the process, degree of constitutional disturbance, general condition, etc. The more recent the disease, the smaller its extent and the less active the process, the more favorable is the prospect of ultimate recovery. Hence "early diagnosis" should be the slogan in all examinations for tuberculosis.

In arranging institutional treatment for employes showing signs of "active" tuberculosis ("open" or "closed") the institutional resources of the city are drawn upon and any expense connected with treatment in private hospitals or sanatoria is borne according to conditions, either by the employer, the employe, employes' benefit association, or some other organization.

3. *"Inactive" cases of tuberculosis.* Signs of "healed" lesion revealed by examination; no symptoms. A proportion of these cases come from tuberculous families.

4. *Workers predisposed to tuberculosis* (by malnutrition, anaemia, or any debilitating condition).

Cases belonging to the last two groups (particularly group 4) form a not inconsiderable part of those found in any working force. Most effective work can be done among this class of employes by the physician and the nurse, with the co-operation of the employer. Contrary to the method applied to the first two groups (cessation of work followed by institutional treatment), the majority of employes of the last two groups may continue to work under certain conditions. Attention should be given to the character of work, and place of residence of the employe; very laborious or dusty trades, for instance, should be avoided as well as work in poorly ventilated quarters. Education in right living (sufficient amount of rest, air and food, avoidance of all injurious influences), will tend toward improvement of the state of resistance in the majority of these cases and is bound to reflect itself in the attitude of the entire working force toward the problem of health.

The work of the physician and nurse should be to a great extent educational, extending beyond the factory, office or store, right to the home of the employe, where their guidance should be in the direction of better health with the resulting greater efficiency.

To sum up, the aim of the proposed plan

of examination of employes for tuberculosis is: first, detection and suppression of sources of infection in the working place; second, detection of cases of the disease in the curable stages; third, guidance of all employes predisposed to the disease and of those who are re-employed after having recovered their health by sanatorium or home treatment; fourth, guidance of all employes in right living and methods of prevention. The watchwords should be: education, detection, control. The hand of the engineer is on the throttle of the manufacturing machinery; the hand of the physician should be on the health of the working force; a higher standard of health means greater efficiency.

PREPARATION FOR SOCIAL SERVICE

SARA E. PARSONS
Massachusetts General Hospital

When a college graduate wishes to prepare for social service, medical social service especially, would she prefer, if it were possible, to take a two or three years' course which combines the necessary theoretical foundation and the actual experience with physiological and pathological conditions that would enable her to detect and alleviate the physical disabilities of those whom she would serve, or would she prefer a regular nurse's training, after having had the theoretical preparation in a school of philanthropy? The latter would mean a four years' training, probably, but the student would have not only the so-called "social service field" in which to exercise her talents, but many other avenues of usefulness would be open to her which are of equal value to humanity. The various institution and teaching positions in hospitals and training schools are extremely necessary, interesting, and remunerative as well.

My own feeling is that the college graduate who inclines to social service would be wise to take the nurse's training and the sociological preparation as well, on account of the broader field it would open to her; but I want to suggest that if she has a positive distaste for the idea of actual nursing which is involved in the preparation, it seems to me that there might easily be created a compromise which would evolve a medical social worker who would be neither nurse nor social worker as she is now known.

Personally I know so little of just what, in a theoretical course, would be necessary for social work that I will only venture to guess that a year of theoretical preparation outlined by an expert would probably make a good foundation. As to the medical preparation, after talking with nurse social workers, and with lay social workers who are seeking to augment their usefulness by necessary hospital experience, I have concluded that the schools of philanthropy might meet a real need by affiliating with hospitals and dispensaries for some such course as outlined below.

Assuming that the college girl has studied psychology, anatomy, physiology, hygiene, bacteriology, and chemistry, I venture the following outline for a medical course:

Actual nursing in medical and surgical wards under close and skilled supervision, such a course to be accompanied with practical demonstrations of nursing methods and bed-side clinics; six months.

Obstetrical nursing with lectures on prenatal and post-natal care, infant feedings, etc.; two months.

Children's nursing, including orthopedic and general illnesses, with lectures on predisposing conditions, prevention, and care; two months.

Dispensary work in connection with eye, ear, nose, throat, and skin diseases, with course of lectures on causes, prevention, and cure of same; two months.

Dispensary work in connection with a tuberculosis clinic, and lectures on the causes, prevention, and cure of tuberculosis, home visiting included; two months.

Dispensary work in connection with a nerve clinic, with lectures on cause, prevention, and cure of these diseases, visits to homes and hospitals; two months.

Field work in the way of visiting manufacturing, milk stations, settlements, etc., lectures on relief agencies, etc.; two months.

The course outlined above would cover an eighteen months' period. Added to a year of theoretical work the course would cover two and one-half years. It would not by any means make a trained nurse of the student, but it would certainly give a good practical knowledge that should enable a social worker to get very close to the people whom she would help. The six-month course should be procured in a medium-sized hospital with an active service and ought to be paid for. In it the student should learn the worker's relation to the medical profession.

This little paper is written because so many social workers come to the training schools seeking an elementary course in nursing—

comprehending sometimes vaguely, sometimes definitely, how deficient they are in many things that are vital for the earnest social worker to know—and because nurses who have taken up social service work also lament their ignorance of sociology, and their inability to co-operate efficiently with the various relief agencies.

I am not afraid that any intelligent woman who takes such a course as I have outlined will usurp the nurse's rightful position nor that she will become a menace to society—although others who are eminent in medical circles may think so—on account of her superficial knowledge; the latter is also said of nurses.

At any rate, allowing that if the suggestion has any merit it should be modified or amplified as experience proves necessary or as more competent authorities deem wise, I give it for what it is worth. If it even provokes discussion I shall be satisfied.

POST-GRADUATE TRAINING FOR RED CROSS NURSES

JANE A. DELANO

Chairman National Committee
Red Cross Nursing Service

Since the very inception of the Red Cross one of its chief functions either in time of war or great calamity has been to supply nurses for the care of the sick and wounded. In some countries, notably Japan, training schools for nurses are conducted under the auspices of the Red Cross, but in America, with our training schools well established, graduating yearly a small army of nurses, such a procedure has not seemed necessary. Knowing, however, that when a sudden need arises there is no time for careful selection, a little more than a year ago the War Relief Board appointed a national committee whose duty it should be to establish in connection with the American Red Cross an adequate nursing service. This committee, co-operating with the organizations of nurses throughout the country, have selected over six hundred representative nurses to serve on state and local committees charged with the responsibility of investigating the qualifications of nurses desiring to enroll for service under the Red Cross. All appointments are sent out by the chairman of the national committee in Washington, but they must first have the approval of a local committee, thus guaranteeing to the Red Cross a carefully chosen nursing personnel.

The president has recently issued a proclamation making the enrolled Red Cross nurses the actual nursing reserve for the army in the event of war, and they are also available at all times for any emergency service. We already have on file in Washington the

names of 2,600 graduate nurses and are continuing to receive an average of over 100 applications monthly.

In order to maintain the interest of enrolled nurses and to give them an intelligent understanding of the work and purpose of the Red Cross, a special committee, with Mary E. Gladwin as chairman, was recently appointed by the national committee to formulate a plan for their instruction. It seemed desirable that a series of papers should be written by people actively connected with the various departments of the Red Cross, and that these papers should be printed and issued as required for use at assemblages of nurses throughout the country. At a meeting of the committee held in Washington, December 7, 1911, it was agreed that papers should be prepared embracing the following subjects:

- I. History of Relief and of the Red Cross:
 - (a.) Before the Crimea; Florence Nightingale. By Solferino and Jean Henri Dunant.
 - (b.) The Treaty of Geneva; The American Red Cross. Mabel T. Boardman.
- II. The Red Cross in other Countries. Mary E. Gladwin.
- III. Relief Work during the Spanish-American War. Jane A. Delano.
- IV. Military Hospitals and the Red Cross in times of War. Major Charles Lynch.
- V. The Red Cross Nursing Service. Mrs. Wm. K. Draper.
- VI. First-Aid Department of the Red Cross. Major Charles Lynch.
- VII. The San Francisco Disaster: (a.) the Disaster; (b.) Immediate Relief; (c.) Rehabilitation and Reconstruction.
- VIII. The Italian Earthquake: (a.) the Disaster and General Relief Work. Ernest P. Bicknell.
 - (b.) Relief Work such as Road-making, Shoe-making, etc. Katherine B. Davis.
- IX. The Chinese Famine and Plague: (a.) Description and Causes; (b.) Famine Camps; (c.) Relief Measures, etc. Major-General George W. Davis.
- X. Relief Measures in Time of Floods, Famine, Forest Fires, Mine Explosion. Ernest P. Bicknell.
- XI. Relief Work for Celebration and Parades. Mrs. C. G. Stevenson.
- XII. Notable Medical Achievements of the United States Army. Major Charles Lynch.

As stated by the chairman of this special committee, it is hoped that these papers may serve the following purposes:

1. To keep alive the interest which already exists and to bring to the attention of the young graduates the desirability and importance of being identified with the Red Cross Nursing Service.
2. To be a means of education and preparation for future work either in time of peace or war.
3. To give enrolled nurses more knowledge of the history, aims, and achievements of the Red Cross, a better understanding of relief problems in general and of the modern humanitarian movements which so closely concern nurses.
4. To furnish a pleasant and useful object for bringing enrolled nurses together in lo-

calities where it is seldom possible to provide military or Red Cross speakers. To give to nurses in such places a community of interests which shall make them more valuable to the Red Cross.

INTERNATIONAL INFANT STUDY

In a late fall number of *Progress*, London, Jeannette Halford presented a resumé of the third international congress for the study and prevention of infant mortality, which met in Berlin in early autumn. The sittings of the congress were divided into four sections. "The first section," to quote from Miss Halford, "was devoted to teaching and training, the papers having special reference to the instruction and higher education of doctors in hygiene and infantile diseases; the teaching and training of midwives in infant care and hygiene; the training of nurses and welfare workers for institutions, local authorities, or private families; and popular instruction in the care and feeding of infants. Great stress was laid on the importance of including hygiene and infant care in the curriculum of all girls' schools; but it was pointed out that such theoretical teaching in itself would be of little use, unless it was supplemented by practical instruction from time to time at infant consultations or similar institutions.

"For the social as distinct from the medical worker in the cause of infant welfare the numerous papers on infant welfare work in practice, read in the second section of the congress, proved the most attractive of the four sections. There were in all thirty-eight separate papers on the following subjects: the care of expectant and lying-in women; welfare institutions and nursing propaganda; milk depots and their results; day nurseries; the care of infants in institutions, hospitals, homes, etc.; and infant welfare work in rural districts. The question of milk depots aroused a lively discussion, in the course of which it was made clear that unless they are intimately connected with, or indeed simply supplementary to, infant consultations, they are likely to do more harm than good, both by discouraging breast-feeding and by conducing to over-feeding. It was, however, encouraging to learn from a Hungarian expert on this question that most satisfactory results had been obtained at Budapest in a combined milk depot and infant consultation center, which has now been at work for ten years. Whereas during the first year 200 breast-fed and 290 artificially-fed infants were dealt with, nine years later the proportions were 850 breast-fed to 100 bottle babies, the portions of milk distributed decreasing similarly from 107,000 to 30,000 in a year. It was nevertheless generally conceded that if milk depots by themselves have not proved a great success, they have at any rate exercised considerable influence in raising the standard of the general milk supply of the towns in which they exist.

"Another very opportune paper in this exceptionally hot year was that on the influence

of heat on infantile mortality. In this connection, housing conditions came in for much adverse criticism, as indeed they might, more particularly in those towns in which huge tenement houses, imposing enough externally, but showing a lamentable deficiency in light and air for rooms facing the inner courtyard, are the fashion. Under these circumstances, the removal of infants to cooler underground rooms or cellars during the hottest part of the day was advocated, as was also doing away with the greater part of their clothing. A point brought out in the discussion was the need for less food during hot weather—milk should be much more freely diluted with water at that time than at others. Another practical suggestion was to the effect that at the beginning of the summer and at frequent intervals all possible means should be employed to teach parents how to guard against heat dangers. It has been found that occasional paragraphs in the daily press are much more efficacious and more likely to be read than leaflets, which are apt to be indiscriminately distributed.

The third section dealt with legislative and administrative measures for the protection of infants, including the endowment of motherhood (which has reached an advanced stage in Germany), accommodation for and care of, syphilitic children, the supply and control of milk intended for infants, the treatment of foundlings, and guardianship generally, with special reference to illegitimate children. Guardianship being considered a matter of international importance, a recommendation was adopted to the effect that the governments and welfare societies of all countries should create and support an international information bureau to deal with questions affecting the legal position of infants.

Those who attended the fourth section devoted themselves to statistics, the papers relating mainly to the death-rate and birth-rate of the various countries, the need of a uniform system in the compilation of international statistics on infantile mortality, and the statistical results of welfare measures. Except in Roumania, Bulgaria, and Russia, there has been a marked increase throughout Europe in the birth-rate during the last thirty years; but unfortunately the decline in the infantile death-rate has in most cases not kept pace with that in the general death-rate. As might be expected, the west of Europe shows up better than the east in respect of infantile mortality, but Germany comes a good way down the list. These two factors, the decrease in the birth-rate and a high infantile death-rate, led the German government and local authorities to take the matter seriously in hand within the last few years, so that now most of the towns, and Berlin in particular, are well equipped with institutions for infant welfare.

"Infant consultation centers on a strictly medical basis are becoming more and more recognized in Germany as one of the most potent weapons in the fight against infantile mortality. Up to 1900 there were only four such centers, but the last decade has seen the creation of no less than 251, situated in 163

different towns. Hamburg heads the list with thirty-five centers, then comes Cologne with thirteen, Breslau and Berlin with seven each, Charlottenburg and Nuremberg with six each, while 157 other German towns have from one to five centers. In thirty-seven towns the municipality is responsible for the consultations. The other consultations are run by various unions of women workers, by infants' homes, and hospitals, and, in the case of six, by industrial firms, for the benefit of their women workers.

"One other aspect of the work of the congress must here be briefly referred to—the international consolidation of infant welfare work. In a report presented to the annual general meeting of the International Union for the Protection of Child-life, held during the course of the congress, of which it was the organizer, it was shown that this union is now a federation of national unions, many of which were formed at the instigation of the international body. Germany, Belgium, France, Holland, Italy, the United States, Bulgaria, Spain, Norway, Denmark, Russia—to mention only a few of the more important countries—now have flourishing national associations for the study and prevention of infant mortality. The United Kingdom is conspicuous by its absence from this list, but there is reason to believe that the Berlin congress will lead in the near future to the formation of an active, practical, and homogeneous body, representative of all schools of thought, of all interests concerned in carrying on infant welfare work, and of every part of the empire."

The fourth international congress is to be held at the Hague in 1915.

LIBRARY ON PULMONARY TUBERCULOSIS

The National Association for the Prevention of Consumption, London, is engaged in forming a library and bureau for the collection of data relating to pulmonary tuberculosis in all countries. It intends that such information shall be available to the public at large. Valuable assistance would be rendered if health officers, school physicians, and superintendents or secretaries of hospitals, sanatoria, tuberculosis dispensaries, and open-air schools would place the association on their mailing lists for annual reports or other documents. Books, pamphlets, and reprints of articles by physicians and social workers in general would also be gladly received. The address is 20 Hanover Square, London, W.

CHEMISTRY AND CONSERVATION

The International Congress on Applied Chemistry will meet September 4-13, 1912, the first session to be opened by President Taft in Washington, the remaining sessions to be held in New York. The discussions will cover analytical, organic, and inorganic chemistry, all applications of chemistry to industry and agriculture, legislation affecting chemical industry and political economy, and conservation of natural resources. Dr. William H. Nichols, of New York, is president and Dr. Bernard C. Hesse, 25 Broad Street, New York, secretary of the conference.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

POLICE EFFICIENCY THE FIRST EFFECT OF VICE INQUIRIES

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The effect of local investigations of the social evil upon the discipline and reorganization of police departments is already assured and country-wide. To this end the report of the Chicago Vice Commission is epoch-making. Other inquiries preceded it and effected certain reforms in local conditions, but this most thorough investigation and most fearlessly frank publicity of actual conditions, some of which are to be found and faced everywhere, struck so straight at the sources of the evil that more initiative and achievement are likely to come out of it than from any other attempt to find and meet facts.

CHALLENGE AT PITTSBURGH AND ELSEWHERE

Everywhere the demand for inquiry into local conditions is met by the challenge, "What good results has the Chicago investigation accomplished?" At the hearing given by the Pittsburgh City Council to the petitioners for a vice commission, the first impressions of certain councilmen were so typical as to describe the attitude of the official and public mind which is sure to meet every attempt to face facts and improve conditions. One of these councilmen, "failed to see any good that resulted from the vice investigation of Chicago which ended with the publication of a big book"; was "opposed to being told what we already know, that vice in Pittsburgh is not so bad as in other large cities, and not as bad as it is in some smaller cities"; "doubted whether all the commissions that ever existed can furnish the police with any information that is not already in their possession"; was "told that the police had a list of all houses that are disorderly and prohibited by law"; so concluded that "with this list and six hundred policemen and sixty detectives and plain-clothes men the city can get all the information it wants."

So, in declining the requests of certain citizens and civic organizations, closer to the facts than they, the councilmen did what an editorial leader described as "an act of good judgment." It congratulates the people of Pittsburgh that there is to be "no waste of public money in the uncalled-for method" "to draw unenviable notoriety to the city." That there is "a plenitude of vice in Pittsburgh is not to be denied." Moreover, "the authorities are perfectly informed as to the nature and distribution of the evil." Nevertheless, "it is not amiss that the whole foolish proposition should have died aborning." Another editorial devotee of "the god of things as they are" profoundly asserts the serio-comic affirmation that "sensible citizens will be disposed to object strongly to any such superfluous performance. The existence of vice here is conceded. Its exploitation and illustration are unnecessary."

A protest against allowing stores to open on Sundays was immediately heeded, however, by Pittsburgh's City Council. The evidence adduced by "the purchase of trifling articles in stores going full blast at three o'clock Sunday afternoon, full of customers who were waited upon by clerks in their regular every-day aprons," incited one councilman to address these indignant inquiries to the director of police: "Don't you know what is going on in these places Sundays? Aren't your policemen instructed to close the stores they find open? What are your detectives and plain-clothes men for? We have been appropriating money for them. I don't see why a citizen should be asked to do this work." Whereupon the aforesaid editorial wiseacre gravely asserts, "the decision to enforce the sale of other than necessities on Sunday also meets with approval. There should be no discrimination in making effective the statute for Sunday observance." Consistency has rarely been crucified on a sharper juxtaposition.

These solemn conclusions as to the futility of any intelligent attempt to ascertain the facts of actual conditions as a basis for public policy were reached in utter disregard of the information given respecting the effects of such inquiries in Chicago and elsewhere. Singularly enough, while these facts were thus being officially ignored, the "deadly parallel column" put in its effective work with public opinion. For the report of these discussions in the morning's newspapers was accompanied in the very next column by an associated press dispatch summarizing the startling results of further investigations at Chicago in the most drastic and revolutionary discipline in the history of that city's police department.

CHICAGO'S ANSWER IN POLICE TERMS

The report of the Chicago City Civil Service Commission on the discipline and reorganization of the police department follows the report of the city's official Vice Commission, with illuminating promptness and definiteness. The sequence, of course, is not officially noted. For the Vice Commission was appointed by and reported to the previous city administration of the former republican Mayor Busse; and the civil service commission's investigations, police discipline and report on the reorganization of the department were undertaken at the request of the present democratic Mayor Harrison. The connection between the two reports however is not wholly ignored. The vice report is referred to by the commissioners as "that remarkable public document." But more to the point is the fact that the order regulating vice issued by former Chief of Police, Le Roy T. Steward, while awaiting the recommendations of the Vice Commission's

report, was re-issued by Mayor Harrison and made the test of police efficiency, by which so many officers of all grades were dismissed from the force. A comparison of the vice commission's report on "The Social Evil and the Police" and its "Recommendations to the Police Department" as well as many other points, with the Civil Service Commissioner's report shows how often they intersect while being independent in their investigation of facts and in reaching conclusions.

While the credit of authorizing the vice investigation is due Mayor Busse, Mayor Harrison deserves the greater credit for the courage to act on its charges against the police. His civil service commissioners indeed refer only to the mayor's initiative, as the origin of their effort, and he, in turn, only to the charges of police corruption made by the press. But there is every reason to trace the investigation and the discipline of the police to the demand for the reform of the department created by the body of authentic facts presented to the citizens by the Vice Commission. Without this popular demand, there would have been little incentive and less hope for this politically perilous undertaking. Still less can Mayor Busse be imagined to have created the Vice Commission without such initiative and agitation as the united Protestant ministers gave the proposal. And yet it is admitted, to the credit of both of these executives, that neither of them was obliged to yield to the pressure for reform had they chosen the worse part.

Assured of the mayor's support, the city Civil Service Commission perfected a highly original method of procedure. Having learned from experience how difficult if not impossible it is to convict police officers of conspiracy or bribery, upon evidence to be obtained only from each other, the commissioners depended upon their "department of efficiency" for disciplinary use. To this end three things were essential: the discovery of specific derelictions, the determination of the personal responsibility for the same,—and a staff of investigators whose evidence could be depended upon. A staff of ten was found equal to any test, after trying fifty men. In less than ten instances errors were found in the investigation of two thousand places, and but very few important inaccuracies in five thousand distinct reports.

Three questions sufficed to convict delinquent officers of inefficiency. Had they received the orders from headquarters to suppress gambling and regulate vice? Did they know of the violations cited specifically by the commissioners? If they did, why were the violations permitted? If they did not know, why not? In either event, the charge of inefficiency had to be acknowledged, and the test worked with the precision of the guillotine. Three inspectors, five captains, seven lieutenants and forty-one plain-clothes men were thus arraigned. Of these, three inspectors, long entrenched in inaccessible security, three captains, one sergeant, and six plain-

clothes men were discharged; nine plain-clothes men were fined, one captain resigned under charges and three more without waiting to be arraigned. Another inspector had already been tried, convicted, imprisoned in the penitentiary—and pardoned. Among other results were the full proof that "a criminal conspiracy existed between certain commanding officers and certain gamblers whereby money had been paid to secure protection for illegal games of chance"; 999 arrests and 248 convictions which virtually wiped out public gambling; notwithstanding their estimate of 15,000 professional prostitutes (the Vice Commission having reported only 5,000), the commissioners assert, "if the police department of the city did its sworn duty to enforce the laws of the state of Illinois and the ordinances of the city of Chicago, there could be no open houses of prostitution"; "evidence has accumulated showing beyond question that in the sections of the city where prostitution prevails, it has been commercialized, with the police as active agents of those in control"; since this investigation started, practically all openly disorderly houses have been driven off the street car lines, street solicitation has been practically stopped, the segregated districts on the west and north sides of the city have been greatly restricted, the inmates having been driven into the south side district, or out of the city; outside of the south side segregated district, it is claimed that vicious dance halls have been so far eliminated that not more than ten are now in continuous operation; the police are shown to have been in collusion with physicians, falsely certifying freedom from communicable diseases; in one month's time, at a cost not exceeding \$1,000, the commissioners' investigators broke up in large part the open sale of cocaine, opium, and other drugs in violation of law, against which the police had made but little intelligent or concerted effort, for which protection one illicit dealer is known to have paid \$3,000 per annum; the commissioners challenged any man of ordinary experience to prove that saloons can be kept open all night without the knowledge and tacit consent of the police.

In all this work "the commission regrets that it is compelled to say that in spite of the support given it by the press, it has received active help from but few of the so-called reform organizations engaged in moral uplift, which naturally would be expected to join in an effort to correct police evils and thereby to clean up vice conditions in the city of Chicago." Leaders in one of these organizations appeared in court as character witnesses for accused commanding officers and in defense of their administration, although they proved to be among the most derelict of those who were discharged. The one exception to the "moral uplift" organizations thus criticised, which is noted by name, is the Juvenile Protective Association, for access to whose "very complete index of public dance halls" the commission gratefully acknowledged its indebtedness. By designating these organizations as they did,

the commissioners evidently wished to exempt from their criticism others organized for broader civic purposes, from whose officials and members they received all the support it was possible to give. From the official and authoritative nature of the work undertaken by the commission the co-operation which it was possible for voluntary organizations to give was strictly limited. Moreover, the very vigorous and effective way in which the commission went about its arduous task gave the impression that the sources of its information opened by its own investigators were entirely adequate. The reluctance of citizens either to offer evidence or to testify in support of complaints anonymously made must have been very trying.

Although the Vice Commission had long since disbanded, its members were foremost in supporting the civil service officials, both publicly and privately. When the city council delayed its final appropriation to finish the investigation of the police department, and its continuance seemed to be in doubt, one member of the Vice Commission privately sent word to the commissioners through a third party, that an unnamed citizen stood ready to furnish them with all the funds they needed to carry on and out their work to the very end. In view of the very generous and just credit and support thus and in many other ways extended to the civil service commissioners, their ungenerous and unsupported slight upon the vice commission for having "based conclusions, available to the public, upon inadequate information" is to be regretted. This is alleged, so far as any citation is concerned, only upon the under-estimate of the number of prostitutes in the city, which is to the credit of the conservative and cautious spirit in which the vice inquiry was conducted. That the vice commission could not have carried further its investigations without the authority to subpoena witnesses and administer oaths, and with less than one-fifth of the funds furnished the civil service commission, should at least have qualified, if not eliminated, the invidious comparison which these commissioners went out of their way to make and still further emphasized by their slighting silence regarding the very real and great public service rendered by the inquiry and report of the vice commission, which made their own investigation possible. Some credit might well have been given the Civil Service Reform Association for its independent work on the development of efficiency tests and for its active co-operation.

But this partisan littleness should in no way detract from the very great public service rendered by these three civil service commissioners, H. M. Campbell, J. J. Flynn and Elton Lower, Major James Miles, chief examiner of the efficiency department, and their attorney, William W. Wheelock. During the six months through which this most strenuously exacting investigation has been unremittingly prosecuted, the three men last named lived together at a down-town hotel continuously, scarcely

seeing their families, by day or night, except for a few hours each week. And they thus served the city on very small salaries at sacrificial rates. Already, however, their distinguished services are both recognized and in requisition. For, at the summons of the civil service commissioner at Oakland, Cal., they have gone to that city to help set up an efficiency department by the advice which their experience and success so well qualify them to give.

REORGANIZATION OF POLICE DEPARTMENT

Great as are the results thus far achieved in Chicago by the disclosure of the widespread complicity of the police with the criminal classes and by the discharge of so many of the suspected officers, they are rightly regarded by the commissioners themselves as temporary and only preliminary to the further and permanent work demanded by the situation. Nothing less will prevent an early and inevitable recurrence of the same corruption than what the commissioners describe as "the complete reorganization of the department of police along logical and scientific lines, retaining everything of value, remedying existing faults and removing the service as far as possible from the influence of politics. This last demand is made especially significant by the assertion and proof of the existence of "a bi-partisan political combination, or ring, by which the connection between the police department and the criminal classes is fostered and maintained."

Half of the civil service commission's report is devoted to recommendations and arguments for the reorganization of the department of police, which have been submitted to the mayor and are now pending before the city council. The scheme proposed for discussion abolishes both the larger districts and divisions and retains only the precincts. This change has already been made in part by the decision of the city council to make further appropriations for the salaries of inspectors of police. This action abolished the inspectorship and reduced the incumbents of that office to captaincies. The staff proposed consists of a single commissioner of police to be the executive head of the department; three deputy commissioners, the first to be entrusted with the enforcement of the laws and ordinances, the prevention of crime, the apprehension of criminals, the assignment and distribution of the active force, and the regulation of traffic; the second deputy commissioner to be charged with maintaining the discipline, efficiency, and equipment of the force, together with the care and custody of property and expenditures involved; the third deputy commissioner to supervise the police regulation of public morals, saloons, dance halls, moving pictures and performances, the sale of drugs, and the ambulance service. It is recommended that the second and third deputy commissioners be civilians.

Among the policies recommended are the study of secret service methods in other cities

and in the federal service to create a detective force adequate to the needs of Chicago; assignments to "special duty" to be discontinued, to the end that every available patrolman may be on a beat; transfers as punishments, or at the requests of outside parties to be discontinued; efficiency to be determined as automatically as possible; schools of police instruction to be established at stations and also in one or more of the city's universities or training schools; the revision of the rules regarding vice and street walking, to provide for a graded increase of fine for each offense, eliminating judicial discretion as far as possible; a body of women inspectors to be assigned to the supervision of dance halls, picture shows, and other exhibits, supplementing the service of patrolmen "of unquestioned moral character, sober, firm and gentlemanly"; the disbandment or restriction of the "United Police Society" and the prevention of any other organization whose influence and tendency are to break down department organization and efficiency; a card index system to be installed in every precinct station, describing as accurately as possible the haunts, habits, and associates of every known bad character residing in or frequenting such precincts. Toward such a system, a substantially complete history of vice conditions in each precinct has been collected from the systematic canvass made by the investigators, and has been reduced to a card index so that the actual situation can be seen at a glance, if such a system is kept up to date.

It remains to be seen what immediate action and permanent result all this thorough-going, and so far effective, work will produce in Chicago. In marked contrast with his attitude in four previous terms is Mayor Harrison's firm, steadfast, and progressive support of the advanced position taken by the civil service commission in insisting upon and providing for the absolute control and strict repression of vice and crime by the police. The city council, likewise, will continue to support the administration in reconstructing the police system.

But whatever effects the fundamental work of the Chicago Vice Commission and Civil Service Commission may achieve in Chicago, its influence is being registered, far and wide, in other cities throughout the entire country and abroad.

In Pittsburgh, a strong voluntary organization is insisting upon the appointment of a vice commission, since the city council refused to act favorably upon the petition for it. The reversal of the long continued policy of segregating vice in Minneapolis was effected by the deservedly well-known and influential report of the Vice Commission published last year. The next most extensive inquiry and report were made by the Research

Bureau of the Board of Public Welfare in Kansas City, Missouri. By its concise text and illuminating tables such facts of the vicious population are shown as their marital and parental relations, whether they were brought up in town or country, whether at the time of their first act they were living at home or in boarding and rooming houses, why they left home, what were their previous occupations and wages, what their age when they left home at the time of first act and at present, the number of years in vice, the cause and occasion of entering and continuing in a vicious life, their education, church relation, and patronage. The recommendations with which this report concludes are selected from the Chicago report. At Rochester, N. Y., the policy of the city administration gradually to eliminate the segregated districts, which has been pursued for two years, was summarily completed last summer by a raid of the state excise commissioners upon the remaining resorts, for the illegal sale of liquor. The mayor assures the city that "this movement is not to be confined to Hill Street, but will cover the whole city and will be aggressively continued as long as such places are known to exist." The Chief of Police has all along claimed the ambition "to make Rochester one of the cleanest cities in the country." Des Moines, Ia., which was one of the first of the smaller cities to wipe out its segregated districts and all known disorderly resorts, refused by an overwhelming referendum vote to permit the introduction of sex education in the public schools, but by the same majority elected the first woman to be seated in its board of education, Flora Dunlap, head resident of Roadside Settlement.

PORTLAND, ORE., IN ADVANCE

One of the most distinctive, because most highly specialized of all these inquiries, was that made by the Vice Commission of the City of Portland. Its first report rendered last January was devoted exclusively to the prevalence of diseases in that city. It is based upon consultation with five specialists, a questionnaire which elicited replies from one-third of all the physicians and surgeons, reports from school superintendents and physicians and from public institutions and hospitals. The data thus authentically and very concisely stated, in a little pamphlet of only

seven pages, emphasizes the fact that twenty-one per cent of all diseases treated by physicians is due to vice; that seventy out of one hundred and twenty-eight doctors insist that venereal disease be made reportable; that there is no legal protection of the public from infection. As in the judgment of the commission the time is not ripe to advise the official report of all such diseases, it recommended a vigorous campaign of education, as the first and most necessary step, to teach the public something of the prevalence and danger of these diseases and the necessity of reporting the same. The enactment of a law is recommended, however, requiring reports of such diseases as are encountered in hospitals, dispensaries, juvenile municipal courts, maternity hospitals, rescue homes, and all penal institutions, requiring also all persons so reported to be treated, and providing for the establishment of special clinics and hospital wards for the treatment of such diseases. This vice commission, in answer to questions addressed to one thousand parents, found that a very low percentage of the children of Portland are given any instruction by their parents in sex relationships, but sixty-five per cent of those replying approved public school instruction on this subject, provided it be properly safeguarded. The commission thereupon advised the board of education that "public sentiment is becoming insistent that sex hygiene become a part of the instruction in the public schools."

Duluth, Minnesota, adds to its progressive theater ordinance an equally advanced ordinance "to license and regulate public dance halls and public skating rinks and to prohibit immodest dancing and other disorderly conduct therein." The application for license must be made to and granted by the common council and shall not be issued to any person of bad character or evil pursuit, or to any one who has within one year been convicted of a violation of this ordinance. This includes keepers of gambling houses and all places frequented by disorderly persons. The hall must not be connected with any room in which intoxicating liquors are sold or given away. It must be not less than fifty feet from any street entrance of any place in which intoxicating liquors are sold or given away. No intoxicating liquors shall be sold or given away in any licensed public dance hall or

skating rink nor shall any token, check, pass or other thing entitling the holder to receive any intoxicating liquors be sold or given away therein. All indecent and immodest dancing, such as is minutely described and designated, is forbidden. No persons under twenty-one years of age are allowed in such halls. All dancing and attendance is prohibited between midnight and six o'clock in the morning. Supervision by police officers and matrons, together with revocation of license and punishment by fine and imprisonment for violations are provided for.

Philadelphia is moving for the appointment of a vice commission. Four hundred members and guests of the City Club unanimously voted for its creation after hearing Dr. Prince Morrow, James B. Reynolds, and Maude E. Miner of New York and Jane Addams and Dean Walter T. Sumner of Chicago. Mayor Blankenburg welcomed the organization of the vice commission, favored the appointment of an equal number of men and women upon it, disavowed any inclination toward segregating vice and announced the administration's "very best effort to exterminate it." The director of the department of public safety declared how impossible it is for the police to cope with the vice situation alone, and that only as it is helped by the citizens to do what the public wanted done, can the department do its best to make the bigger and better Philadelphia.

New York city is moving in the same direction. One of the recommendations made by the "white slave" grand jury, of which John D. Rockefeller, Jr., was foreman, was the appointment of a vice commission. This followed a similar recommendation by the research committee of the Committee of Fourteen in its published report on "The Social Evil in New York city, a Study of Law Enforcement." These recommendations were not adopted by the constituted authorities, but the Committee of Fourteen now announces that it has broadened its field of work from the suppression of the Raines law hotels to the suppression of commercialized sexual vice. Its members have assumed this wider work because, in the successful accomplishment of the work originally undertaken, the committee had come into possession of valuable information and was able to exercise considerable force for the improvement of conditions.

In order that an assurance of permanence

might be given to the larger work, a successful effort was made to secure a reasonable guarantee fund for a minimum budget. While the committee will continue to be known as the Committee of Fourteen, it has been enlarged and strengthened by the addition of new members, including several persons prominent in social betterment, who have been asked to join the committee not only because of themselves but also because of their relation to similar movements, that there may be a better co-ordination of effort.

But the city administration reverted to the "old order," which had been the policy of the town for twenty-five preceding years. It lasted only a year or two until recourse to the mandatory existing laws could be rallied. Then since 1910 the city administrations, old and new, have more and more conformed to the popular demand for the repressive policy. Law is sure to prevail over this lawlessness here and everywhere, as the law-abiding majorities assert themselves. The honesty and public spirit of both volunteer and official movements to better conditions are sure to be challenged, and not always without cause. In one city, for instance, the abolition of a segregated district is said to have been due

to the designing effort of a railway to depreciate the property so as to purchase it at greatly reduced rates. In another, a notorious proprietor of dives was temporarily permitted to reap large profits by renting and purchasing all property available for immoral purposes on the next streets to those from which disorderly resorts were driven by the police.

SET OF THE TIDAL MOVEMENT

But whatever the back-sets and undertow may be, here and there, now and then, a great tidal movement has certainly set in, which is sure sooner or later to sweep away officially recognized, commercially managed and publicly tolerated vice, until the social evil is reduced to the clandestine, individual type, which can be eradicated only by education and religion. To that great end, the very first step to be taken everywhere is to discover, punish, and destroy the connection between police administration and the public practice of vice. That this needs to be done is shown by the report of the Chicago Vice Commission. That it can be done, and how it may be attempted, is as conclusively shown by the report of the Chicago Civil Service Commission.

WHAT WENT YE FORTH TO SEEK?

E. W. KRACKOWIZER, M. D.
DIRECTOR OF BOYS' CLUBS

As discussion at the Louisville Child Labor Conference turned on "education" as a remedy for the social evil sought to be cured in that quarter; as the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association at St. Louis considered the more insistent current demands upon the public school systems in mitigation of certain pressing social and economic evils—so the program of the recent New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction held at Orange¹ concerned itself with the Relation of Our Schools to Pauperism, Delinquency, and Crime. This may be considered an encouraging advance in consideration of the problems demanding selection in the councils of constructive philanthropy. The National Conference at Cleveland might do well experimentally to create a section on "Education" after the manner of the Committee on the Church and Social Work whose discussions created so deep an impression at the Boston meeting.

The Germans have a proverb, *Was man in den Wald hinein ruft schallt heraus*—"What you shout, you hear; what you look at you see; what you seek you find." The u- or

fu-tility respectively of this procedure depends largely upon the point of view adopted, and the sense of perspective and proportion available. In the contemplation, let alone the counting of individual trees, one may lose sight of the forest itself.

At the St. Louis meeting, Professor Wood of Columbia declared that "of the 20,000,000 school children in the United States 1,100,000 suffer from organic heart trouble; 1,000,000 either have had or have now some disease of the lungs; 1,000,000 are suffering from curvature of the spine or some other deformity that is interfering with their general health. More than 1,000,000 have defective hearing and 5,000,000 defective vision; 5,000,000 more are suffering from malnutrition; 6,000,000 have enlarged tonsils, adenoids, or cervical glands; 10,000,000 [and in some schools as many as 98 per cent] of the children are suffering ill-health because of bad teeth."

Moreover, according to Dr. Goddard, "300,000 persons in the United States are feeble-minded; 500,000 have not sufficient intelligence to compete with their fellows on equal terms [for a living], and a still larger number have not sufficient will power to do the

¹See page 114 of this issue.

right thing when it is pointed out to them. . . . Actual tests in our reformatories for girls and boys show that at least 25 per cent of them are distinctly feeble-minded. Fifty-two out of fifty-six Massachusetts Reformatory girls on parole are feeble-minded. . . . Of 105 children [born during a period of five years in one of the best county alms houses to be found] 102 were feeble-minded [according to the superintendent's testimony]."¹

Reporting on 100 "white" inmates of the Bedford reformatory, ranging from 16 to 29 years, examined in the order of their admission, Superintendent Davis declares: "Were the Binet tests in themselves conclusive . . . there is not one who is normal mentally. If these tests accurately measure their mentality these young women with the physique, the strength, the appetites and passions of grown women, with the experience of life in the underworld, have only the average capacity of little girls of ten to guide their own lives."

Accepting such facts and figures without critical discrimination or even with superficial comparison, the schools were held responsible by their critics, most of them school masters at that, for this maelstrom of statistical anarchy. But let us not be discouraged, the remedy is simple: concentrate on the "3 R's" as essential tools of common humanity and specialize on "industrial training" for "economic efficiency." This demand was formulated in simplest terms by the Director-elect of the new Pulitzer School for the boys and girls of New Jersey under the predestination of her educational statistics as quoted by Dr. Williams. Jersey needs so many butchers, bakers, and candlestickmakers. Let the schools turn 'em out, and each boy thus get the job he is best fitted for.

But, reverting to the complementary figures of Doctors Wood, Goddard, and Davis, somewhat more would yet remain to be done. Here, too, the solution is simple enough, once we share the courage of our conviction, that by the Binet-Simon tests our moral potentialities are determinable by our mental capacities as reflected in our physical infirmities. Let us establish plenty of "stations"—a Binet center, so to speak, in every school district, if possible, where *all* children may be carefully and critically "studied," so that the courts and other immune authorities may be enabled to act intelligently upon the "facts" in their socially appointed task of separating the sheep from the goats.

To the latter short shrift should be given. The best plan doubtless would be to kill them off; but humane consideration, the common human failing, may content us with their "sterilization."

As to the sheep, let the black ones be promptly separated from those merely bearing Labanite stigmata, as well as from those potentially white. The latter may then be turned over to the schools for scouring and shearing after having had their "adenoids" cut out;

but the former should be "colonized" for their natural lives so as to be perfectly happy under the guidance of wise and intelligent shepherds. The first group, however, the black sheep, after thorough fumigation, must be kept in quarantine until it is certain that their vaccination has "taken" and that the serum injected has effected complete immunization to delinquency and degeneracy.

For the rest let the medulla oblongata and the spinal cord, both, be thoroughly habituated to "good" automatic reaction, and the kingdom of man will be at hand when the demands of "duty" shall have become obsolete as even now human "will" is obsolescent.

HOW ST. LOUIS USES A SCHOOL PLANT

The first definite experiment in St. Louis in social uses of the public school plant is now being made by the Neighborhood Association under the active direction of Joseph B. Riddle—one of the first group of Chicago probation officers, a Hull House worker, and promoter and former manager of the very successful Boys' Farm of Kalamazoo, Mich.

Neighborhood Association is an organization formed by the union of Self-Culture Hall Association and Neighborhood House. There were many reasons in favor of this amalgamation. Self-Culture Hall, established in 1888 through the efforts of the Ethical Society of St. Louis, was organized primarily for the education of wage-earning young men and women. This was before the days of the public evening school and before the library movement had expanded in its neighborhood work. Later, all the activities characteristic of settlement work developed. Neighborhood House began its work in 1895 and, after several changes of location and much enlargement of its field, moved years ago three blocks north of Self-Culture Hall.

A growing feeling that greater effectiveness would result from a merging of the two organizations terminated in the consolidation accomplished early in 1911. Then in view of the increased use the country over of the school-house, plans were made to secure by rental from the Board of Education the use out of school hours of a fine new public school building in the immediate neighborhood of the former Self-Culture Hall and Neighborhood House. The Board of Education granted the request. Further, in order that necessary office work might be done during school hours, the association acquired an office across the street from the school.

The former clubs and classes of both Self-Culture Hall and Neighborhood House now meet in the Franklin school; the neighborhood knowledge possessed by both organizations is added together; and the expected greater efficiency through union of the budgets is now resulting. Last but not least in importance, say many St. Louis citizens, is the light ahead, through the occupancy of a public building, pointing to the "inevitable change from private philanthropy to municipal management."

¹See THE SURVEY, March 2, page 1852.

²See THE SURVEY, March 2, page 1851.

INDUSTRY



NINE YEARS OF THE ANTHRACITE CONCILIATION BOARD SHELBY M. HARRISON

[Mr. Harrison's article is the first comprehensive review by an independent observer of this remarkable grievance board which for well nigh a decade may be said to have made industrial peace practicable in the hard coal fields.]

In preparing the article Mr. Harrison read through the board's findings in 173 cases and spent ten days the first of this month in Scranton, Wilkes-Barre, Hazleton, Shenandoah, etc., interviewing board members (representing both the coal roads and the miners), independent operators, and interested citizens.

It is significant that of the sub-committee appointed by the joint conference between operators and miners in Philadelphia, April 10, five out of eight were members of this conciliation board who, in the ordinary course of the industry, had been accustomed to meet together and adjust differences.]

The Board of Conciliation in the anthracite coal region was invented to meet a specific need. Its work has been of the highest industrial importance. Yet one of the demands made by the 170,000 miners who quit the pits on April 1, was for a "more convenient and uniform system of adjusting local grievances within a reasonable time limit," and at least two others out of the nine demands bore an intimate relation to this one. These things, together with the fact that the board now has nine years' experience behind it, justify a brief inventory of the views held by men in the anthracite region who, from different angles, have been in touch with its practical workings. Such an inventory will throw light on certain phases of the negotiations this month between operators and miners, but it will also be of practical interest to those who in other industries are wrestling with the problems of industrial relations.

The older machinery making for fair play was fashioned to meet the needs of an agri-

cultural district. It did not suffice when the valleys filled up with wage earners and the means for livelihood were modified by the growth of so different an industry as anthracite coal mining. Matters came to a head in the great strike of 1902 and the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission as part of their award established this Board of Conciliation "to the end that strikes and lockouts may be unnecessary."

The board is composed of six members, three representing the coal operators and three representing the mine workers. The region is divided into three districts, and in each district one member of the board is appointed by the organization representing a majority of the mine workers of the district. Similarly the operators appoint one person from each district to represent them. While the membership of the United Mine Workers of America has never included a majority of the mine workers in any of the districts, it is practically the only organization among the

workers. It has named the workers' representatives on the board and has assumed half of the expenses.

This group of conciliators was given power to consider grievances or disagreements arising under the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, either as to its interpretation or application, testimony to be heard from both sides of the controversy; and the decisions made by a majority of the board were to be considered binding and final upon all parties. The board being composed of an even number, provision against deadlock was made by giving it power to refer undecided questions to an umpire to be appointed, at the request of the board, by one of the circuit judges of the third judicial circuit of the United States. The umpire's decision is final. In all cases except one the umpire has been the federal commissioner of labor,—first, Carroll D. Wright, and later his successor Charles P. Neill. It was further provided that at hearings before the board the parties could be represented by whomsoever they selected and that no suspension of work should take place pending the adjudication of any matter. Among the rules which the board itself early adopted was a provision that decisions should be retroactive: for example, an increase in rates for difficult work, if allowed, governs from the time of the complaint and not from the time of the board's decision. Otherwise the men of a colliery would lose through the possible delay of a favorable decision. Thus practical backing was given to the award that they should not quit work while grievances were being considered; and it is to the financial advantage of all to go ahead without stoppage.

The six conciliators also ruled that a grievance must first be presented to the foreman in charge of a mine; that, if a satisfactory adjustment is not arrived at, the employee or a committee of employees shall take the matter to the superintendent or manager of the mine; and that, if that fails, they shall present it in writing to the member of the board representing the district in which the mine is located. Complaints arising on the part of employers may be presented to the board member representing the district in which the mine is located. In all cases the party complained against must be given an opportunity to make an answering statement. If the board deems it necessary, both parties may be asked to appear in person before it, bringing witnesses. Hearings before the board have not been seriously limited or qualified by rules of evidence or red tape, the employee usually being represented by one of the three labor men on the board, and the employer by one of the company members.

In practice, the representatives of the operators and of the miners in each district endeavor to settle grievances before they are formally presented, in other words, the members act informally as district sub-committees of the board.

RANGE OF CASES

In the nine years of the board's existence 200 cases have come up for action, 150 of them being brought in the first three-year period (1903-06), twenty-three in the second three years (1906-09), and twenty-nine in the last three years. Action has been taken upon all except two. The most recent classification of the figures covers 193 cases and shows that 181 of these were grievances against employers brought by workers, that eleven were grievances of employers against workers, and one a grievance of an employee against a labor union. Of these 181 grievances, fifteen were sustained, thirty-four were not sustained, thirty-two were settled by mutual agreement, thirty-two were partly sustained, fifty-three were withdrawn, nine were held to be beyond the board's jurisdiction, four resulted in a tie vote with no further action, and two are still pending. Of the eleven grievances brought by the employers, two were sustained, two were settled, six withdrawn, and one was decided to be beyond the board's jurisdiction. Twenty-five cases were carried to an umpire for decision because of a tie vote in the board.

In addition, it is reliably estimated that from two to three times as many cases have been settled by the district members of the board as have formally come before the whole body.

The basis of decision, strictly adhered to, has been the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, with a few slight amendments which have been agreed to in the three year agreements since entered into between the operators and miners.

Although the board is a voluntary organization without legal basis or governmental authority, it has been able to enforce its decrees. It is pointed out that individual workers who might disregard the board's action would be readily subject to discharge, and on the other hand a strike, sanctioned by the board itself, is conceivable as an instrument for bringing a recalcitrant colliery to time. As a matter of practice, however, the general interests at stake in the orderly carrying out of the anthracite agreement have so far transcended any personal or local irritations that the internal pressure of the operators' group has been altogether sufficient to bring any member into line; while the miners' representatives act similarly through the United Mine Workers.

So much for the structure of this piece of machinery invented for adjusting industrial grievances. Nine years of its use show results and reactions which will be most readily understood if taken up from the point of view of the operators and then from that of the mine workers.

AS THE OPERATORS VIEW THINGS

Managers and men and, quite as much, the mining communities, have profited by the first of these—the influence of the board in obviating strikes. It must be borne in mind

that in the anthracite veins the conditions under which coal can be loosened and loaded are subject to endless variation and change, and that payment is made by output. Adjustment and readjustment of rates are the result. Before 1902, if the men in a coal pit could not agree with their foremen or superintendent, on some matter which affected them as a group, they struck. When they believed they were being gouged, that seemed the only effective way to stand up for themselves. On the other hand, such a situation inevitably led to strikes over trivial matters and to outbreaks provoked by trouble makers for their own benefit. These sporadic strikes meant not only friction and ill feeling, but large financial loss to the companies. On the other hand where the men were strong enough to strike, the continuance of peace locally might mean nothing more nor less than an area of injustice and bad feeling. Since the creation of the board local strikes have been practically eliminated by offering the men another avenue for settling just grievances and by enlisting them in a scheme of self-imposed restraint which tends to clear away hot-headed misunderstandings and to discourage trouble-breeding for trouble's sake.

These last are no small advantages when it is remembered that through the conciliation board an operator can reach in an effective way a body of workers made up of many nationalities and speaking many languages,—a very large proportion of them being recent immigrants, bringing from the four corners of Europe varying customs, hopes, fears, ambitions, beliefs, and prejudices. Upon the miner's organization is laid the responsibility for helping, at least, to keep the men in check. This was illustrated in an unorganized strike at one of the Pennsylvania Coal Company's collieries last August—the largest of the local strikes to break through in the entire nine years. Dissatisfaction had arisen over a number of questions, among them the matter of dockage for slate and unusable coal loaded on the coal wagons. About 12,000 employes went out, of whom the labor leaders say not 100 were union members. The Pennsylvania Company, an Erie property, immediately called upon the Board of Conciliation to straighten out the difficulty. In view of its rule not to consider grievances unless the complainants remain at work, the board sent its district representatives to urge the return of workers to the coal pits. The strikers were largely Italians, blood was running high, and there was no responsible organization among them through which the rank and file could be reached. The fearlessness of the United Mine Workers' leaders in mixing in the situation, calling meetings, and getting the men to organize by collieries and to formulate their demands, is spoken of appreciatively by the non-partisan secretary of the board. They succeeded in getting the men back to work after a very brief period of idleness of mine and men. Something like sixty questions were involved in the strike, and the two

district representatives of the board were able to settle all except two, which later were acted upon by the whole board.

As pointed out by one of the operators, the board not only tends to prevent interruptions, and to bring men into line when a local strike does occur, but it offers something of a guarantee to a company against demands which it can demonstrate are extravagant, impossible, or unwarranted by the conditions of the anthracite award. One of the many cases in point occurred early in the board's history when a committee representing the contract miners in one of the collieries of the Delaware and Hudson Company presented a grievance alleging that in November, 1903, in violation of an award of the Anthracite Commission, the company had cut the rate paid for opening the first seven yards of chambers, from \$22 extra to \$10.45. The grievance was carried to an umpire, and on the way evidence was presented to show that the \$22 rate had applied to opening chambers sixteen feet wide, while conditions in the mine roof had so changed since as to allow chambers to be opened at a width of thirty-two feet,—an entirely different situation. The umpire decided for the company.

Out of the first 181 grievances brought by workers against employers, they did not get all they wanted in 166, or over ninety per cent. In sixty-four grievances the resulting action was, to be sure, a compromise, but eighty-eight—practically one-half of the total—were either totally unsustained or withdrawn by the workers. How many of these purported grievances were too flimsy to have provoked strikes in the old non-union days it is not easy to say; nor how many would have grown into concerted and determined union demands under a closed shop regime; nor how many were provoked by the very existence of the board. It is therefore difficult to gauge the extent to which the latter has protected the operators against groundless or exorbitant demands; but that it has done so in an appreciable number of cases is a fairly reasonable conclusion.

Few or no drawbacks to the work of the board are cited by the operators. There is some restlessness that the unions do not in all cases hold the men in line, pending the settlement of grievances, but this is doubtless regarded as a lesser evil than a super-powerful union. In given instances, of course, the very existence of the board limits the authority of the individual superintendents and managers and sets up a court of appeals to which the workers can go. There may be "mind-my-own-business" executives of the old type in the anthracite field who regard this as an interference with property rights, but I did not run across them. In given collieries, also, the decisions of the board may have raised the labor cost of getting coal to the surface above what the workers might have been able to force by a try of strength, locally. But from the standpoint of the industry as a whole, these things do not weigh heavily in

the balance against the stability and even-tempered relationships which are bound up in the larger team-play of the board. However, the operators may have regarded the conciliation plan when it was launched nine years ago—and apart, also, from its strategic advantages to them in their frontage on unionism which will be taken up later,—they are today for it, strongly.

THE NON-UNION MEN

From the standpoint of the non-union men who represent so large a part of the labor force of the hard coal basins—something like 130,000 out of a total of 170,000—what have been the results? They have profited along with the union men by the general terms of the Anthracite Commission's awards—and by the succeeding three year agreements. Wherever the rulings of the conciliation board applied to conditions affecting a given colliery or line of work, they have profited in kind. [These gains have cost them nothing.] The original belief was that the board would serve a still further function and stand between unorganized laborers and abuses at the hands of foremen in the same way that a labor union does. Their grievances would be heard by the board, even though they had not the backing of the unions in filing them.

This, however, has not worked out in practice. The non-union man finds himself about where he was before the board was created. It is significant that few or absolutely no grievances have ever come to the board from non-union men. One member of the conciliation board stated that there never had been a grievance presented before the board by a non-unionist; neither could the secretary of the board recall any. With nearly 200 grievances brought before the conciliators by union men, it is hardly reasonable to believe that the great majority of the men in the region, who in normal times are without standing in the unions—three or four times the number of men in the union—have had no occasions for asking redress. One of the union members of the board holds that not one-third of all grievances ever go even as far as the mine foreman. The individual worker usually feels at a disadvantage with a foreman, and having nobody to fall back on, even if he carries his protest that far, is likely to accept an unsatisfactory settlement of a complaint, which, with stronger backing, would have gone to the board. The unions spread a knowledge of the board among their own members through printed matter and at their meetings; but judging from the amount of vagueness and hazy ideas regarding the conciliation plan which were found among many English-speaking and English-reading people in the region, it is almost certain that recent immigrants without union affiliations know little or nothing of it.

Nor would a non-unionist have a "friend at court" if his case actually reached the conciliation board.

THE UNION'S POSITION

Turning to the trade unionists, the benefits secured by the conciliation scheme have been substantial but, as we shall see, subject to what are regarded by the labor men as very definite abatements. Like the operators, they have saved much in the long run by the cutting out of local strikes. Whatever were the cordial relations in many collieries, it apparently took idleness and wage-loss and a struggle to get a hearing elsewhere. Today considerateness of the work rights of the men seems to have become more widespread. In the view of one manager the independent operators represented the best and the worst of the old regime—the most friendly relations in some instances, the most arbitrary in others. It was a matter of managerial temperament. The effect of the conciliation board has been to raise the general minimum standard. In this it has been in step with the effect of large scale production generally. The large corporation has too much at stake to gamble with fire risks, or to take chances on mine dangers, or to get at loggerheads with its men. Similarly with the coming in of the conciliation board, issues between managers and men are settled on a broader basis, in which the opinion of the group counts. There are things which a mine boss or superintendent would not care to have come to light before a public hearing. Some of the independent companies take pride in never having any grievances go to the conciliation board and in others it is stated that it is not an advantage to a superintendent's standing to be called before the board often as defendant. A recent annual report of the president of one of the large operating companies cited that there had been no cases carried to the board from its collieries in twelve months.

But the case of the workers, under the conciliation board, rests on something more compulsory than the pride of their employers. It provides them with a means for threshing out grievances before a court in which the union miners are equally represented with their employers; and if that case in the view of court or umpire has merit, their claim is upheld quite regardless of their ability to enforce their demands had the matter been put to a test of strength.

Moreover, when a grievance involves wage rates, a favorable award is retroactive; and the men secure, what even a successful strike precluded,—wages at the final rate from the date of protest on.

On the other hand, the disadvantages of the plan in the eyes of the trade unionists are several. The expenses of the conciliation board including the salary of its secretary are divided in two, the operators paying half, and the men half. This is met by the United Mine Workers although not more than one out of four or five of the men in the anthracite district pay dues to the union between strike times. Labor's three representatives on the board are officers of the unions and their services on the board are thus paid for by

the organization; and in addition the wages of laborers who appear before the board either as complainants or witness are taken care of by the unions. Moreover, the whole plan of conciliation is predicated upon the existence of some kind of an organization wielding sufficient control over a majority of the workers to secure acceptance of its findings. Operators and non-union men alike profit by the plan; yet year in and year out the upkeep of this organization is shouldered by less than a quarter of the men. The others shirk the payment of their dues between strikes after the manner of tax dodgers from the beginning of time.

In the second place the board is charged with delay in acting upon grievances, and the records to date give some force to the charge. Of the 200 grievances that have come before the board, action was taken within one month on fifty, within two months on seventy-four and the number which consumed a longer time was seventy-four.

Thus one-fourth of all the grievances received final attention within one month while over one-third required two months or more for settlement. Twenty-one cases hung fire for over a year, two of them spanning a period of over two years; and one ran for more than three years and four months. The counter-charge is made that in a majority of cases the delay is due to the mine workers themselves, who are granted time extensions in order to strengthen their cases by additional testimony. As many of the complaints are highly technical, the evidence first introduced by the complainants is often wholly inadequate and the board takes pains not to throw out cases on such a showing. It must be remembered also that the retroactive feature of the board's decisions protects the complainants' interests in spite of delays. Thus far, however, the vast majority of decisions have gone partially or wholly against the complainant, and in all such cases the retroactive feature has, of course, been of no advantage. Whatever the causes of delay, dissatisfaction on account of it is found among both leaders and men.

QUESTIONS OF POWERS AND SCOPE

Closely tied up with the matter of delays in final settlements and throwing additional light upon the mine-workers dissatisfaction over long drawn-out cases, is, from their point of view, another and third range of questions. These relate to the jurisdiction of the conciliators and here matters become so technical that an outsider hesitates in drawing conclusions.

In the first place, the miners contend that the wage base upon which the conciliation board must build its decisions is a veritable quick-sand. In the bituminous field, coal seams are enough alike so that detailed and definite rate scales are agreed upon. In the anthracite field, the thickness of seams, pitch and physical difficulties of mining differ in different workings and in different parts of

same workings. The Anthracite Commission felt that these conditions made it impracticable to attempt to untangle the rates paid for work under these varying conditions. It merely required all the companies which had agreed to the original submission of issues to the commission, to file a schedule of wages prevailing in their mines on April 1, 1902, the same to be the basis for judging the merits of later grievances involving wages. Mine workers charge that the rates paid by different companies, often for apparently the same kind of work, varied before the strike of 1900 and 1902. There was no uniform scale, but merely the rates which had grown up in the different mines. The award of 1903 raised these rates an even 10 per cent all around, but did not untangle them and establish uniformity. If in a given colliery where the company managers dominated the situation rates were disproportionately low the board's award did not change matters. It is contended by managers, on the other hand, that labor in the anthracite region is comparatively foot loose, and that this makes for equivalence of rates by the law of supply and demand. Yet obviously a resident miner will put up grudgingly with what he considers a shaving down of his earnings rather than move, storing up a feeling of grievance meanwhile. And, moreover, the men point out that the rate statements were in the first place turned in by the companies themselves, and not by independent auditors of their pay sheets; and that where disputes occur over customary rates or classification, the same method is employed. The board has made no non-partisan compilations as a basis for its work.

New mines and new workings have been opened since 1902 and apparently in the early years the board considered that it was not within its power to sanction rates in them, as in these cases there was no base at all to begin with. Under the agreement of 1909, this fault was rectified and the board empowered to apply rates which should not be less than rates paid under the 1903 award for work of a similar kind or character.

In the second place, many matters which have been brought before the conciliation board are essentially not grievances, the merits or demerits of which were up for adjudication. They have been either new bargains altogether, new adjustments of the wage scale to fit new work conditions, or matters on which the anthracite award did not touch. Several cases can be cited by way of illustration.

A number of years ago employees of John Bowen and Richard Roderick, rock contractors, claimed that their wages had not been advanced in accordance with the award of the commission, and went on strike. The contractors appealed to the board, and the umpire decided that since rock contractors had not been parties to the original submission of issues to the commission, and had not agreed to abide by its award, these men had no standing before the conciliation board.

In another case certain employees of the

Gunton Coal Company complained that the men were not receiving wage advances awarded by the Anthracite Commission. Mr. Gunton denied that he had ever agreed to abide by the decision of the commission, and the Board of Conciliation decided that it therefore had no jurisdiction in the matter.

In 1903 the contract miners in two collieries of the Pennsylvania Coal Company carried a grievance to the board reciting that a change had been ordered by the company requiring the men to lay the road along the side of the mine chamber instead of in the center as formerly, and that this necessitated much more handling of both coal and rock, cutting down their output by one-third. The matter having been carried to the umpire, Mr. Wright ruled that "the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, in all its deliberations and throughout its hearings, declined to take into consideration the physical conditions in the different collieries. . . . The only way in which such matters as that involved in Grievance No. 110 can be adjusted is by agreement between employer and employee. They can not, and are not, in the very nature of things, the subject of an award, because physical endurance, individual capacity, cannot be measured, and as the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission made no award relative to such conditions, I am obliged to decide that Grievance No. 110 is not sustained."

In another case the mine runners of the Delaware & Hudson Company at Plymouth claimed that while most of them did "first class work," five-sixths of them were given the pay of third class runners. One colliery, it was said, paid only one class and that the third. They asked the board to establish some system which would grade work and pay understandably, so that men who did first class work would be entitled to pay for it. The superintendent maintained that wages and classes were the same as before 1902 and that the anthracite award merely called for ten hours' pay for nine hours' work, the conditions to remain the same; and that the company had met all requirements of the award by reducing hours. The case was carried to the umpire. Mr. Wright held that "while it must be considered a matter of justice that their classification should be arranged in accordance with their work, nevertheless the award of the commission has been thoroughly carried out by the company. . . . It is the clear duty of the company to pay its runners ten hours' compensation for nine hours' work. This duty has been discharged. The classification of the work of the runners is another matter and one which cannot be adjusted by any rule laid down by the board or established by the umpire. The Anthracite Coal Commission did not undertake to deal with the character of the work performed, this being left to adjustment in each colliery in accordance with the prevailing conditions." But the reason the men went to the board with their grievance over the classification of runners was because the matter had *not* been satisfactorily adjusted

at the collieries. The company made a certain ruling affecting sixty men. They regarded it as unjust but could get no redress from the superintendent. They could accept it or quit. The recourse of wage-earners, under such circumstances, from the beginning of time, has been to strike. But the conciliation board was created to make "strikes unnecessary." They carried their case to the board which admitted the justice of their demand but washed its hands of it.

It should be said that Commissioner Neill's rulings have been much more acceptable to the men than those of his predecessor; and one of the operator's representatives is authority for the statement that the 1909 agreement has brought within the scope of the board not only new mine workings, but troubles of any sort in the mines which need adjudicating. The statement of a representative of the miners on the board ran counter to this. But, however this may be with respect to matters of a calibre (and affecting enough men) so that they would in ordinary course be carried to the board, there remain a great ruck of workaday adjustments which the men feel ought to be negotiated directly and upon which they hold that the workman ought to be able to bring the machinery of collective bargaining to bear, in case he feels he is not getting a fair deal from his foreman. Where the hardness of the coal, the thickness of the seams, the amount of water to be contended with in the pits, or the quantities of slate and rock to be handled, are likely to vary from month to month or even from week to week, the workers see the importance of some kind of machinery within call of the job, instead of "going to court" and having the matter slowly threshed out there. That is to say, they think the board of conciliation needs supplementing. In addition to a court of conciliation they want a system of beforehand negotiating.

CONCILIATION AND UNIONISM

Finally, union men talked with believe that the conciliation board, as at present carried on, militates against a strong labor union in the region. While the district representatives of the United Mine Workers sit on the board, their organizers cannot go to a colliery and act as a go-between, between a union member and his foreman, and thus protect him from retaliation. On the other hand, a non-union man profits by any general adjustment of grievances affecting a colliery, when a case is brought up by the Mine Workers. The conciliation board stands in the minds of the union leaders as the symbol of this organization dilemma. With the great mass of unskilled and foreign-speaking laborers to muster into line, with racial antagonisms acting as a disrupting force, and with peace itself making union membership less vital, they desire above all things some handy, easily grasped advantages by which the average man will see that union membership is going to mean something for him. They justify this, of course,

by maintaining that without the union neither the anthracite award, nor the conciliation board would ever have come into existence; and that in turn it is the individual workman's surest defense for the future. The rank and file of the men appreciate the value of the organization at the time each new three-year agreement between employers and employees is to be entered upon; membership rises by leaps and bounds; and they lay off work to a man. But in the between-periods, only the more public-spirited and conscientious keep up their dues and personal interest. Not more than one in four of the men are regular union adherents.

This, together with the attitude of the umpire toward questions of discharge, has caused the men to feel that the conciliation plan has been an asset for the operators, making for company control in the region. In an early case, Mr. Wright decided "that the employer has a perfect right to employ and discharge men in accordance with the conditions of his industry; that he is not obliged to give cause for discharge," although "he should give proper notice." Continuing: "The right of discharge must therefore be sustained." Later on in the decision, however, Mr. Wright qualified this opinion somewhat by urging all parties to adhere to the spirit of the Anthracite Commission's award and by urging that "every employer ought to consider very carefully all conditions before resorting to discharge." Progressive operators talked with regard the decision as sustaining only a limited power of discharge. They say that subsequent cases brought before the board, or settled before reaching it, clearly make it necessary for the operator to show sufficient cause whenever a discharge is challenged through the regular channels. The Haggerty case, in which the board reinstated a worker whom it regarded as unjustly discharged is cited as an illustration. Also, the agreement of 1909 specified that an "employee discharged for being a member of a union shall have a right to appeal his case to the conciliation board for final adjustment." But where reasons for discharge are purely industrial, the managers maintain that it is absolutely essential that they have a free hand. Anthracite coal mining is one of the two or three most dangerous of all occupations, and under weak discipline, a careless worker might place the lives of all the men in jeopardy. In the early days of the board, a great share of cases involved charges of discrimination of one sort or another against strikers or union leaders; and it is obvious, where men and management are at cross purposes, that trumped up claims and trumped up charges are bound to crop out. The story is told of one militant unionist who was discharged for frequently absenting himself from work. He claimed he was being persecuted and in accounting for one of his absences said he had had to go to town to sign a deed. The company proved that it was his wife who signed the paper. His quick Irish wit did not forsake him. "Aren't the

two of us, wan?" he said. The board grinned but his case was quashed. On the other hand, representatives of the union maintain that unscrupulous managers do not hesitate to take advantage of the situation. If unionists are too active in preferring grievances, or in organizing a colliery, the workers say it is an easy matter for a superintendent or foreman to find a cause for discharge. And it must be noted that while in some workings, the locals keep up their membership between years, in others the shifts are practically all non-union men and from among these no complaints are sent up to the board. The very fact that the operators hold that their right to discharge should remain untrammelled because of the hazards of hard coal mining, could with some logic be advanced by the mine-workers as justifying the existence of a stronger union organization, to give the individual worker a solid foothold outside his job.

THE BITUMINOUS SYSTEM

With these bearings of the conciliation board upon the question of union strength in mind, the miners' demand this spring for a change in the board is seen to be bound up with other demands which are now the subject for negotiation; namely, for the recognition of the union, for a method of collecting union dues, probably through the "check-off," by which a company subtracts the dues from each member's pay envelope and turns them over to the union; and for annual instead of triennial agreements. What the union leaders doubtless have in mind is a development along the lines now in vogue in the organized bituminous fields.

Bituminous veins present fairly uniform conditions, and the rate scale is worked out in much detail, to cover all probable cases that may arise; and it is agreed to by the operators and by the miners' union.

There is a "pit committee" of the United Mine Workers at every mine, to which complaints that arise are first presented. The committee then takes the matter up with the mine foreman, and, if not settled satisfactorily with him, they go with it to the superintendent. In case they cannot agree, the committee sends for a representative of the district organization of the union who negotiates either with the superintendent or, in some districts, with a commissioner who represents all of the employers. In other words, grievances are taken up immediately by responsible men on call for the purpose. In some districts, at least, if no settlement is reached, the men can, under the general agreement, go on strike.

The advantage of this scheme, as the union workers look at it, is that it provides quick bargaining machinery without increasing the likelihood of strikes over small grievances, that it gets all the men into the union and indirectly distributes the expenses of conciliation, and that mine workers, through the backing of a stronger union, can wield a much

greater influence on wages and work conditions.

The operators on the other hand view the bituminous system from the reverse side. They see, in the "check-off," the piling up of a formidable war fund in the union treasury to be used for future encroachments; and they see in it a "closed-shop" situation rendered far more complete than in the bituminous field because the anthracite miner is a licensed man, with two years' experience. As things now stand when the skilled anthracite men go out on strike there is no chance to fill their places (except from their own ranks) as may be done in the ordinary manufacturing trades. The operators interpret the proposed activities of local organizers as a scheme whereby labor politicians can make themselves solid with the rank and file by acting as go-betweens, in the same way that district political leaders look after their followers in the civil courts, and with a similar end in view—a chance for soft-snaps for themselves if not for grafting on both employers and the big union funds. Instead of decisions by the board, "on the merits of the case," based on the anthracite award, the operators anticipate bargainings over rates in which sheer strength will decide. And back of these bargainings they see the threat of local strikes involving great financial loss to the companies, and called by an association which can not be sued if it fails to live up to its contracts. "Such a strike," the bituminous leaders reply, "seldom or never happens as a matter of fact, for both sides negotiate until a settlement is reached in the same way that in the printing trades grievances are successfully referred to an evenly balanced board representing both sides." For at least two reasons, some operators see a menace in even the mere strengthening of a union, in which immigrants without knowledge of hard coal mining and immature laborers have equal voting power with experienced miners. Taking into account the "ignorant condition of many of the employees," to quote one, they see "great danger to the trade" ensuing if "this heterogeneous mass were to secure a strength that would come with a larger membership and treasury." On this point the answer of the Mine Workers' leaders is clearly put: that conservatism comes with strength; that experience in organization is the surest safeguard against sporadic action on the part of massed men; and that the insurrection of the 12,000 employees of the Pennsylvania Company last August was provoked by speakers of an outside organization which stands for neither collective bargaining nor time agreements—the Industrial Workers of the World. The second menace referred to is seen by some operators in the increased power of a national organization of coal miners, dominated by the bituminous men and interests, but operating in the two competing branches of the industry and able, in renewing short term agreements, to play one region off against the other through strikes and suspensions.

This then is the situation: the present conciliation board is the king pin of the machinery by which a balance of control has been struck in the anthracite fields—a compromise, if you will, between the more or less company domination which preceded the big strikes of ten years ago, and the union regime which governs in the more highly organized bituminous regions. The workers feel that the arrangement is still a lop-sided one and needs further adjustment.

POSSIBLE CHANGES IN THE BOARD

But apart from these questions of control, involving the large strategy of the labor situation, it is generally recognized that the anthracite board has in the long run performed an industrial function of the highest importance in preventing many individual abuses, in settling many grievances between companies and groups of men, and in making for continued peace in the collieries. Progressive employers in the district feel that it is altogether too valuable a piece of machinery to be destroyed. "No machinery works perfectly," said one; "the conciliation board should unquestionably be kept up to date by any changes that seem necessary for its more perfect working." With this open-mindedness apparently one of the features of the negotiations now in progress, it is possible to indicate certain developments which it would seem would meet the criticisms lodged by the miners against the immediate operations of the conciliation plan, and would improve it as a piece of social-economic machinery.

First, with the advances of scientific management and unit costs in other lines of industrial production, it would seem reasonable to an outsider that some definite steps might be taken toward identifying and equalizing rates of pay throughout the anthracite district; and that the board should independently collect and publish this wage data as a basis for its intelligent work. Such publicity would in itself overcome persistent inequalities and discrimination and go a long way toward establishing mutual feelings of confidence.

Second, it would seem that the issues hanging on the smooth, prompt workings of the board are so important that the members should be in position to give right of way to its demands upon them, even if it meant giving up full time to the work, or designating certain members so to do, compensation being provided equally by operators and men.

Third, on the basis of past difficulties and present needs, it would seem that the scope of the board's jurisdiction should be extended and clearly defined, so that just grievances will not, on technical points, be ruled outside its action.

To meet the contention of the workers that machinery of negotiation should be near at hand in every day adjustments, pit committees, such as are to be found in some mines, could be established in all, speaking the prevailing languages and guaranteed from dislodgment from their regular jobs, because of activity

on the committee. The mine workers' contention that district organizers of the union should be allowed access to all pits and should be empowered to take up grievances with superintendents in behalf of workers is a harder nut to crack. The men claim that without this provision, miners who are afraid of their foreman, will put up with long continued abuses; but, with the provision that discrimination would be effectively blocked, as the complainants would not be in the power of the bosses. A similar demand was met in the cloak, suit, and skirt trade in New York, when the Joint Grievance Board provided, not that walking delegates, but that sub-clerks of the board should have such access to shops and that they could lodge grievances without formal complaint of particular men.

The general campaign for the prevention of mine accidents suggests a further method by which the existence and usefulness of the conciliation machinery could be brought within the grasp of every miner in the district. By signs and leaflets in all languages a better and wider knowledge of the board could be secured. For it is to be remembered that the decrease in cases in the past nine years may mean either that justice is being done automatically or that the under current of feeling among the men is that the conciliation route is not the way by which justice can be gotten without too much risk and trouble for the pains. And the board was created, of course, not to reduce complaints but to solve grievances.

Finally, it is generally considered possible to devise some means for distributing labor's half of the board's expenses over the whole working force. Two cents a man a month would produce, at least, \$30,000 annually. This would overcome the complaint that the whole expense of the miner's side of the conciliation board now falls on the union, but it would not, of course, meet the position of the union, that while the presence of a compelling labor organization is essential to the enforcement of the board's rulings, the expense of that organization is shouldered by the one man out of four who pays dues. The union men, as we have seen, want this support to be practically compulsory under a "check off" system, just as in other lines of employment this is one of the ends men seek to gain by the "closed shop." The demand has come up at every three-year negotiation. Whether some middle ground can be arrived at remains to be seen, perhaps the most interesting invention in that direction being the "preferential shop" in the garment trades in New York city, by which operators, in hiring new men, or in giving out new work, give preference to members of the union as long as the union can furnish them. Some such plan might make union membership so desirable in the anthracite fields that dues would be kept up voluntarily, and that, between strike periods, the mine workers' organization would not sag.

THE SITUATION

So it is that the question of the continuation or modification of the conciliation board,

as it presents itself in the present negotiations, is not one which can or will be settled as a thing by itself, or on the board's success or failure in the cases brought before it. The miners believe the board is a factor in giving the operators their vantage ground in the present situation, enabling the companies to deal between negotiation periods (save for the general terms of the anthracite award) on practically a non-union basis with 130,000 or more unorganized men; keeping the union, meanwhile, at an ebb too low to serve its own interests in the way it wants to, but just strong enough to serve theirs in holding the workers in line and dampening such flare-ups as that at the Pennsylvania Company collieries. The situation is the outcome, of course, of the anthracite award of 1903, which was not a trade agreement but the decision of an arbitration commission; and which did recognize the union but provided an unofficial basis for conciliation between managers and men which has lasted nine years. Stated in its extremes, the present suspension is a clash between, on the one hand, a regime predicated on a weak union and the decisions of a tribunal, and on the other a regime founded on a strong union and collective bargaining. Yet while the conciliation board is thus seen to be bound up with these larger issues of industrial control, there is reason to believe that however the fresh balance is struck, the idea and working principles embodied in it will find a place. It has gone a long way towards bringing into the relations underground of 200,000 men and 129 operating companies something of the independence and just relationship which civil government gave to the old farming communities above them. And as a piece of industrial machinery, the anthracite conciliation board has piled up nine years of experience of value to the whole country.

JOTTINGS

EFFICIENCY SOCIETY

The Efficiency Society whose organization meeting was recorded in *THE SURVEY* of April 6, has elected the following directors: Bion J. Arnold, Chicago, Ill.; Roger W. Babson, Wellesley, Mass.; Theodore Hetzler, Fifth Ave. Bank, New York City; James G. Cannon, Fourth National Bank, New York City; M. E. Cooley, Ann Arbor, Mich.; W. W. Freeman, Brooklyn, N. Y.; John R. Dunlap, of the *Engineering Magazine*, New York City; Luther H. Gulick, M.D., New York City; William McConway, Pittsburgh, Pa.; H. R. Hatfield, Berkeley, Cal.; Melville W. Mix, Mishawaka, Ind.; Isidor Straus, New York City; Henry R. Towne, New York City; Schuyler Wheeler, Ampere, N. J.

James G. Cannon has been elected president; Henry R. Towne, vice-president; H. F. J. Porter, secretary, and Theodore Hetzler, treasurer.

Plans have been made to hold a round-table conference in the near future on the method of educating young men for positions as business administrators.

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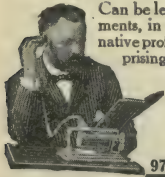
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THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC

PROPHECY

Statement by ANDREW FURUSETH

President of the International Seamen's Union of America

Bearing on the Seamen's Petition to Congress, February 23, 1910

Safety at sea! What a lot of rot has been written and spoken on this subject! Safety at sea is promoted, first, by a good vessel, staunch and well found; second, by good boats and enough of them; third, by a crew sufficient in number and skill to handle the vessel while she is afloat, to lower, man and handle the boats when the vessel must be abandoned. . . .

Now, let me intrust you with a very deep secret. There is not sailing to-day on any ocean any passenger vessel carrying the number of boats needed to take care of the passengers and crew, nor a sufficient number of skilled men to handle those boats which are carried. If there were, the seamen's condition would be much better than it is now. There would be men enough on board to do the work without overwork. Men would not be kept four or six hours at the wheel. . . .

The average ship-owner knows this, but he must keep up with the procession—he must carry passengers as cheaply as the other fellow; he must compete with the railroad, or he must go out of business.

If vessels are lost, the insurance—that is, the public—pays the loss.

If passengers are lost that's very bad; but there is God to be blamed!

If seamen are lost, why there are plenty more idle men to be had on shore. They cost nothing, not even in the training, because they need no training, no skill being required by law.

As to the passengers, are they satisfied with these conditions? The passengers do not know; they are told a lot of rot about bulkheads, water-tight compartments, vessels so built that they will not sink or burn. Of course, we seamen know this to be the veriest nonsense.

But the passenger reads this in the papers, or reads something that looks like it, and being a fatalistic optimist and wishing that this may be so, he promptly believes it. . . . And then the cabins and state-rooms are well fitted; the dining-room, the social hall, are veritable dreams of luxury and comfort, and surely when so much is expended on comfort and convenience the owner must be presumed to have taken equally good care of that rather important matter—safety!

Let me tell you one more secret. Vessels that cannot sink and will not burn have not yet been built. The art of shipbuilding has not reached that far as yet. If you wish more safety you must insist . . . that there shall be a standard of individual efficiency provided for the crews; that at least 75 per cent of the deck crew, exclusive of licensed officers, must be up to that standard before the vessel shall be permitted to proceed to sea. Insist that those men shall have a decent place to live, eat, and sleep in, and that it shall be so placed that they can all come on deck quickly when they are needed.

Thus you will improve safety at sea; you will help to save thousands of human lives and millions of dollars' worth of property every year, and you will help the seamen; you will bring the American to sea.

THE PITH OF IT

When the Men and Religion Movement wound up its country-wide series of campaigns in New York last week, there was fresh stock-taking of achievements. Many cities are hard at work conserving the renewed efforts for human welfare started during the past eight months. A survey of Manhattan's lower East Side. P. 155.

Samuel McCune Lindsay has resigned as director of the New York School of Philanthropy, after holding the office for five years. Edward T. Devine, the new director, will continue to be connected with the Charity Organization Society. P. 176.

Oliver Twist dramatized—a nineteenth century analysis of human character for twentieth century up-builders of human welfare. P. 164.

From the necessity of relieving an overcrowded hospital, Philadelphia has gone on to a recasting of her charitable institutions. P. 162.

Charles F. Weller resigns as secretary of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities. P. 178.

The Dillingham immigration bill, with a literacy test added, passed the United States senate last week. Religious refugees are exempted from its provisions.

Professor Patten in a communication gives his views of the difference between a social program and a political program, taking as a text a recent article in THE SURVEY on Mr. Roosevelt's Charter of Democracy. P. 173.

The broken, heavy laden bulletins filtered through the air from the North Atlantic, bringing fragmentary news of the sinking of the Titanic on her first voyage, drove home the fact that safety engineering—the human side of mechanical invention, where such elementary equipment as life-boats are concerned—has not kept pace with our ability to put forth turbines and boilers and marine engines. If these things are so where the security of the first-class passengers is concerned, what is the situation with respect to the men in the crews? Have the laws, customs, health conditions of seamen kept pace with naval construction? Have new strains been put upon old rules of the sea which no longer fit? What, humanly speaking, do the boats bring into the community life of the American water front? These are some of the points discussed in a series of three remarkable articles by the Rev. George McPherson Hunter, secretary of the American Seamen's Friend Society, which begin in the May 4 number of THE SURVEY.

Miles M. Dawson, analyzes the Norse safety code, showing that the modern descendants of the old North Sea raiders have, as a matter of fact, set standards of safety which

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE, EDITOR
GRAHAM TAYLOR, JANE ADDAMS, ASSOCIATES

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SOCIAL FORCES

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the rest of the shipping world has yet to measure up to. P. 169.

The failure of either national or international regulations to safeguard steerage passengers in matters other than safety in boats entering and leaving American ports is illustrated by Dr. von Borosini's article on page 166. His correspondence with the French Line is an apt illustration, also, of the inertia and cocksure resistance which the lay observer encounters in endeavoring to get conditions improved. P. 171.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

IN THE SHADOW OF DEATH¹

For three days we have been walking, groping our way, in the valley of the shadow of death.

Here where death casts its shadow the events of our lives take on new proportions. Things which have come first and ordinarily fill our minds, and with which we shall be concerned again by and by, seem trivial and unimportant.

And yet, my friends, the two things which do not yield their place in our hearts and minds in a dark hour like this, if we think at all of their true significance, are the very things which this little company has come together to discuss: that is to say, religion and the social welfare. Religion speaking in a clarion voice through the ages anticipates the agony of this time, declaring: *Though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death I will fear no evil*. The social worker, sharing in this confident hope, this glorious heritage of the generations, steadfastly scrutinizes the ship—the ship of state—on which humanity is embarked, with an eye now on the life boats, now on the riveting of the plates, now on the wireless warnings of the presence of icebergs, now on the speed at which we are moving in the presence of danger, and now at last, a piercing, searching, and unflinching eye, on the conduct of the individual when the moment comes for the supreme test of his character as to whether he will go down to his death, though he be strong, that the weak and the unprotected may have a chance to live.

We have heard much of late of the biological problem of eugenics and an exceedingly important problem it is. The conservation of desirable qualities through the encouragement of wise marriages, the elimination of undesirable qualities through voluntary or compulsory celibacy of those who are so unfortunate as to have them, are no doubt policies to be encouraged. There are those, however, injudicious apostles of a partially assimilated idea, who have been making extraordinary applications of this eugenics idea, who have been telling us that philanthropy, the improvement of social conditions, the prevention of child labor, the elimination of infectious disease, and the like are to be condemned as contrary to the fundamental and vital interests of the race. Just as, in the past, war and famine and pestilence were essential to progress, because they weeded out and destroyed the weaker elements, thus promoting natural selection of the fit—so now, under modern conditions, we have the slums, tuberculosis, typhoid, industrial accidents, child labor, a twelve-hour day and a seven-day week, the natural successors of nature's former agents of elimination, performing in our day the same beneficent functions.

It is high time that religion and social work got together to consider this strange philosophy. There are others here who have ecclesiastical authority to speak in the name of religion. Knowing as I do something of the spirit of social work, I venture to say on behalf of those of us who have interested ourselves in the protection of women and children from the hard conditions of modern industry, who have taken up the new crusades against tuberculosis,

¹From an address at the dinner meeting of the Academy of Political Science, April 18, 1912, the evening on which the Carpathia arrived, bringing the survivors of the Titanic disaster. Previous addresses were given by Rabbi Hirsch, Bishop Hendrix, Monsignor Mooney, and Dr. Grenfell.

insanitary housing, and congestion, who regard a high infant death rate not as a beneficent agent of natural selection but as a deep, damning disgrace to any city, who, gathering inspiration and experience from many a partial and local campaign, have finally discovered that whether we knew it or not we are enlisted for life in a great campaign against the social causes of poverty—speaking for these whom I know, many of whom are in the churches, though some are not—I say to these philosophers of eugenics, who tell us that parents will not take care of their children unless they can get wages from them at ten or eleven years of age, who tell us that we must protect and give increased advantage to the strong in the interests of natural selection, who tell us that we must asexualize or segregate the feeble-minded, chiefly in order that their degenerate strains may not contaminate the strain of life, I say to them: You have not yet mastered the kind of arguments that appeal to men. It may be that you are right—that if we protect our women and children, if we protect the weaker among us, we shall go down to defeat and death. If so, we go down. A society which can survive only by crushing the weak is not worth saving. We do not expect to go down; we think you are wrong. But whether we survive or perish, we propose that the strong shall bear the burdens of the weak. We intend that compassion and fraternity shall not perish from the earth. We believe that love and sacrifice are greater conserving agents than brutal power and unrestrained competition. We too would care for our sister, the feeble-minded girl—but not primarily in order that the race may be saved from a race of Jukes or a tribe of Ishmael. Not so much to protect society against her contamination, as rather to protect her from criminal assault we would offer her the tender and humane care of a custodial asylum. Not fear of her, but compassion for her infirmity, love for her humanity, concern for her as an individual, are the motives that prompt us. These, we are not ashamed to say, are the motives to which we appeal. These are the underlying and permanent motives in social work: a passion for social justice, a yearning, brooding love for the children of men. Tell me, men of religion, Rabbi, Monseigneur, Bishop, Doctor, are not these also the underlying motives of religion? Is it not to proclaim the infinite value of the individual soul, the supreme satisfaction of self-sacrifice for the sake of others, the obligation to do justice and to love mercy—that your synagogues and cathedrals and churches exist?

You have said that it is. Unless tomorrow morning the survivors of the wreck bring us words which belie the scraps of news which we have had, and belie the expectations of our hearts, the officers and crew and passengers of the Titanic have acted in the moment of peril as men of our religious traditions and our social instincts should act. They have stood the supreme test. They have conserved the strength of humanity by protecting its weakness. The moral hardly needs pointing; the lesson hardly needs reiteration. As we believe that they have acted when the ship was wounded to death, so it is for us to act for the saving of lives, for the protection of the weak, for the rescue of the lost. Only—our ship is not sinking. Our last word is not of sacrifice. *Thou dost not require sacrifice, else would we give it.* By our surplus resources, by our strength, it is given to us to snatch from the sea his prey, to make our port with human kind on board. Our last word is of rehabilitation, reintegration, redemption.

April 27, 1912.

THE COMMON WELFARE

MEN AND RELIGION IN NEW YORK CITY

With only four days in which to deliver its message, the campaign of the Men and Religion Forward Movement in New York began with an address by Raymond Robins at the Hippodrome on Sunday, April 14, and closed Thursday, April 18. This campaign concluded the series of seventy-five visits which have been made during the past eight months to various cities up and down the country. All three of the teams of experts took part. With their time cut down to half that spent in nearly every one of the other cities they made little attempt to present, in the institutes or in the more popular meetings, facts about New York's life gathered the past winter by Men and Religion workers.

The chief contribution to social service of the New York campaign was a set of minute recommendations drafted by the local social service committee and adopted by the men of the churches. These had been put into final shape before the social service experts of the movement reached the city. In covering ten topics the resolutions themselves number 175. *Federation*, published by the New York Federation of Churches, will print them in complete form.

In the course of these recommendations definite stand is taken on many specific proposals in the fields of immigration, housing, justice and probation, the police, recreation and amusements, industries and industrial welfare, education, municipal and social agencies, health and sex instruction. Though aimed at local needs, many have a wide application. Urging not only that finger prints be taken of all persons brought under arrest to police stations in New York, the men of the churches volunteer to have their own finger print records made by the police department. It is advised that the executive committee of the movement arrange with the Federation of Churches, or for a new organization, to study the characteristics of

present immigration in New York, its distribution, what may be done for its best assimilation, and ways and means for regulating it in accordance. A permanent municipal congestion commission is recommended to carry on the work started by the New York City Congestion Commission. The attitude taken by the local workers toward trade unionism is shown by the suggestion that each church provide regularly a room where trade union locals may meet and that the churches "enunciate unequivocally their belief in and their harmony with the cardinal principles of organized labor." In the matter of workmen's compensation it is recommended that the men of the churches "advocate changes of the state constitution in accordance with newer humanitarian and economic ideals." A solution of the controversy regarding the closed or open shop is believed to be in the preferential shop.

HOW THE WORK IS TO BE CONSERVED

Industrial and vocational education are urged and the schools are bidden further to undertake vocational guidance. Regular instruction in the facts of sex hygiene and reproduction is urged upon the grammar and high school grades; and the churches themselves are encouraged to present courses by experts in these subjects. The following recommendation is made:

That in view of the success of the authorities in such pioneer schools as the Carnegie Technical Schools of Pittsburgh, the men of the churches urge that a thorough-going system of examination and treatment, with the temporary elimination of those who are sources of contagion, be introduced in the colleges, universities and graduate schools of New York city.

The task of carrying out these promptings to a newer interest in community living will rest, in large part, with the Laity League of the New York Federation of Churches. Upon this body is put the responsibility of following up the lines of work projected by the Men and Religion campaign. This league is the

outgrowth of an affiliation between the Laity League for Social Service and the New York Federation of Churches. William J. Schieffelin is its chairman and two secretaries have been engaged to devote full time to carrying out its program which is in effect the recommendations above described. Orrin G. Cocks is secretary for Manhattan and the Bronx and Leslie Willis Sprague for Brooklyn. The league has been instructed to call an annual layman's convention composed of delegates from churches which shall elect the members of the Laity League of the Federation of Churches in classes, one-third of such members to be elected each year and to hold office for three years

FACTS ABOUT NEW YORK'S PEOPLE

Slight reference was made during the campaign in New York to an intensive study of the lower end of Manhattan carried on by the social service committee. Yet one of the interesting facts brought out by this inquiry was that in a population below Houston street of 419,420, there are but 17,011 native white persons of native parents, or but one in twenty-four. These figures together with others taken from the sheets of the 1910 census at Washington, and not yet made public by the government, supplement those which appear on page 161 and which were gathered independently. In an irregular district which extends from the Battery to a few blocks north of Houston street the following were found to be the six main nationality groups: Russians, 147,071; Italians, 107,186; Austrians, 83,801; Irish, 22,224; Hungarians, 11,723; Roumanians, 4,536. The total increase of population in this district is 5,050.

There is a large increase of Italians south of Houston street, according to the Men and Religion figures. Marked as this tendency is many of the churches themselves are said not to be aware of the change going on about them. The total population east of the Bowery and south of Houston street is 270,562, and 46,201 of these are Italians. Between the Bowery and Broadway, south of Houston street 44,044 Italians live.

Within the last five years a settlement of Italians has grown up at the east end of Grand street where it is crossed by Cannon street. Here over 4,000 Italians live today. In the region of Forsythe and Christie streets, approximately 16,500 Italians have come in so suddenly as to change materially the problems confronting a social settlement established there just a few years ago to carry on work among Jews.

The nomadic character of the peoples in this general neighborhood is shown by the decrease and increase in particular sections. The sheets of the 1910 census show that the coming of Manhattan bridge displaced 11,000 people from the region bounded by Canal street, the Bowery, and the East river. No such influence can be held responsible for the decrease of over 5,000 in the population between Clinton, Division, Scammell streets and the river. The district bounded by Norfolk, Rivington, Ridge, and Grand streets, having a population in 1910 of 25,169, has lost 569 people, while the district next to it and bounded by the Bowery, Rivington, Norfolk, and Grand streets, with a population of 37,766, has gained 1,566.

Against all these population pictures stands out the fact that the twenty-four active Protestant churches in the neighborhood can no longer find the sorts of people with whom they have dealt in the past. On Palm Sunday a total attendance at ten of these churches including morning and evening services was 1,440. On the same day Trinity Church alone, in the same district, seated at three services 1,454 people. The result of this situation, it is pointed out by those making the Men and Religion survey, has been that these Protestant churches have either become dead institutions of valueless service or, as in the case of fourteen of them, have developed strong social work among the foreigners. With the many Catholic churches, synagogues, social settlements, missions, and philanthropic agencies in the neighborhood, the Men and Religion workers declare their conviction that no part of the city has its social and religious needs better cared for than the lower East Side.

It is shown also by this survey that

for Manhattan and the Bronx, liquor tax certificates have been issued in the proportion of one to every 448 of the population, and saloon and hotel licenses in the proportion of one to every 476. In the district below Houston street a liquor tax certificate has been issued for every 231 of the population and a hotel and saloon license for every 273. The inference which many would be tempted to draw from these figures is not substantiated by an intensive study made this winter by the University Settlement. Observing the great number of saloons which dot the business and wholesale sections south of Houston street, this settlement canvassed the thirty-five residence blocks east of the Bowery between Houston and Grand streets. Here, among a population of 70,000, there are only sixty-nine saloons or one to every 1,014 of the population.

FOLLOW-UP WORK IN MANY CITIES

The concluding week of the national campaign of the Men and Religion Movement has been taken up with the Christian Conservation Congress, described as being "in behalf of a World Christian Brotherhood." From April 19 to 24 sessions of this congress have drawn militant churchmen from all over the country to New York.

Practical steps to continue through the year the work of the campaign are already under way in some of the seventy-five cities. Buffalo is planning to extend the movement for another year in charge of a competent paid secretary. Active follow-up work has taken the form of a Men and Religion seminar which has met every Monday evening since February 12 to study social conditions under group leaders who are counted among the strongest men of the city. The subjects studied include the social work of the churches; health and housing; immigration; living wage; hours and conditions of labor; safety, health, and insurance of labor; municipal government.

Eighty-three Protestant churches in Buffalo have appointed social service committees, which have held weekly meetings every Wednesday since Jan-

uary. The first work done was in support of the items for health, education, and recreation in the city budget for 1912. These church committees in all parts of the city can influence many aldermen. The Men and Religion Movement itself has voted unanimously to continue the work for another year with a budget of \$5,000 for a secretary and office expenses.

The Buffalo Charity Organization Society is planning to engage immediately a competent church secretary to develop its elaborate church district plan, which dates from 1895, and to develop church co-operation in general community social work. This secretary will work with Protestants, Catholics, and Jews, while the Men and Religion secretary, although limited denominationally, will include boys' work and the other divisions of this movement as well as social service, and can include also some social work which is less appropriate for a charity organization society.

Buffalo thus promises to bring forth substantial fruits of church social service, chiefly because the social workers, under the leadership of Frederic Almy, secretary of the Charity Organization Society, saw the opportunity and grasped it. Mr. Almy bears this witness:

I consider the Men and Religion movement the most fortunate and important thing socially that ever came to Buffalo. In the most conservative churches and in hostile quarters there is a new feeling that social work is God's work, and that it is the duty of the church to inspire and support it. Many said to me of the Charity Organization Society for instance: "We have never appreciated its work; we must get behind it more." I think that the successful campaign of the society to raise \$40,000 in March was made easier by the movement.

Although I am a Unitarian, and that denomination is omitted in the Men and Religion movement, I was made chairman of the social service committee in Buffalo, and was social service leader of the campaign in Washington. In that way I saw the movement intimately in two cities, and I am confident that in both it gave an opportunity and a God-speed to social work from the church such as it has never before had. This church backing is what social work lacks and needs. Incidentally, although a layman, I have been made a member of the Ministers' Association of Buffalo, and this again gives opportunities.

I have always believed that social work

has neglected the religious appeal, and that it will never prosper as it should, and as the Young Men's Christian Associations have prospered, until it has the full support of the church. For that reason I went to the Men and Religion Conference at Silver Bay, Lake George, last July, to get them to come to Buffalo; and for the same reason I worked to get and to organize the church and social work section of the National Conference of Charities and Correction in Boston, in June, 1911.

The present century is often called material. All centuries are material, and ours, perhaps, as much as the rest, but I think it will be most known as the age of charity. In being charitable it is also essentially religious.

I do not think the world has ever been so religious as today, not in the sense of forms and creeds, but in the sense of loving its neighbor. There has been a renaissance of this religion, both in the churches and out of them, but the church does not seem even yet to realize fully its opportunities and its duties towards the new and often bad social conditions which an age of machinery and science has brought upon us.

STIRRINGS IN SEATTLE

In Seattle the movement took a very practical turn on account of the non-partisan municipal election which immediately followed it. The anti-tuberculosis bond issue and the charter amendment in regard to public welfare were thoroughly talked over in the Men and Religion institutes. Further discussion of immigration, housing, and sanitation, comparatively new issues on the Pacific Coast, led promptly to proposals for taking the National Conference of Charities and Correction to Seattle in 1913. A committee was appointed to co-operate with other agencies in bringing this about. Seattle's case is well put by Virginia



RELIGIOUS ADVERTISING: MEMPHIS.

THE SURVEY for April 6 showed forms of religious advertising in a number of cities. The Memphis device, reproduced above, portrays the Men and Religion campaign as resting solidly on the Bible.

McMechen, secretary of the Charity Organization Society, speaking for the social workers of the city:

Five years ago, comparatively few people in this city knew what the National Conference of Charities and Correction stood for. Today the movement that began with a small group of social workers has been taken up by our various social agencies, commercial and professional bodies, and women's clubs, all of whom are alive to the necessity of getting this conference in order to treat intelligently the questions that we must solve if Seattle is to offer to the American republic not another city of huddled slums but the American city of the future.

In many cities the question has been asked: What new sorts of people have been reached by this Men and Religion proselyting to whom the gospel of social service was yet but little known? Miss McMechen not only answered this question for many cities but struck on the very essence of the Men and Religion contribution to active social service in the following characterization:

The spectator, familiar with social conditions in this city, who was searching in these audiences for hints of future social possibilities, could not fail to be impressed by what proved to be the distinctive feature of the Raymond Robins gatherings—the fact that they represented a new group. With few exceptions, these were not the faces that the social worker was accustomed to see at the meetings of the Social Service Club, a body of over a hundred members, including the leading professional workers of the city. These were not the faces that gather at our state conference, or that took part last fall in the social service conference of the Pacific Northwest. They represented a new element, a new group, alive with interest as if it felt the vague stirrings of the social call which had as yet found no opportunity for active expression. They were busy men, most of them, who had left work in their offices to attend these meetings.

NEW ATTITUDE AMONG BALTIMORE CLERGY

In Baltimore there is a real eagerness among many clergymen and their parishioners to get into practical social work, a complete change of front in some cases which, according to J. W. Magruder, secretary of the Federated Charities, amounts to nothing less than a brand new mental attitude on the part of churchmen. With this goes a sense of social responsibility which found its first public expression in the protests of a big church delegation against vicious amendments to the building code about to be railroaded through the city council. Mr. Magruder says:

A mass of inertia is yet to be overcome. Now that the enthusiasm of the campaign is over and the period of conservation has come, the question is whether the inter-church federation as the logical heir to the movement is going to accept the responsibility and put through the program left by Mr. Stelzle and the other experts. The presumption at this time (three months after the campaign) is that the work will be undertaken, though it is too much to expect that all of the more than 250 Protestant churches will be a unit. Meanwhile, some of the churches, large ones among them, are planning individually to relate themselves to all the activities of their neighborhoods and of the city at large.

CHICAGO: A SURVEY

The eight-day campaign in Chicago ended April 15, one of the last in the country. The social service committee, after careful study, found it impracticable to make a useful statistical study of the whole city in accordance with the detailed outline prepared for general use. The time and expense involved in applying it to so large a city were too great. It therefore recommended investigations of neighborhood conditions by groups of churches in three sections of the city.

To afford a working program for any church, a concise and definite social service chart was prepared, divided into eight fields: child welfare, charities, health, labor, immigrants, the prisoner, law enforcement, and civics. In connection with each field, the agencies at work and the urgent needs are shown in columns. The purpose is to show very plainly the concrete things a man may do and the



RELIGIOUS ADVERTISING: BALTIMORE.

The program for the Men and Religion meetings in Baltimore was trimmed the shape of a big B. The cover, here shown, carried the portraits of Fred B. Smith, campaign leader of the whole movement, and of Charles Stelzle, social service expert.

organizations which will put him at work. For example, the measures and agencies to help prisoners are listed as adult probation, prisoners' aid associations, the Parting of the Ways Home and the Central Howard Association; and the urgent needs are "improvement of penal institutions—visit them, learn the prisoner's history, sign parole papers, get him a job, be his friend." A "social service first aid" card which may be carried in the pocket gives concise suggestions as to what to do in a score of

emergencies, starting with the homeless man who begs on the street. The name of the social agency to be brought into play, its address and telephone number, and a few other essentials are indicated.

CONSERVATION IN PITTSBURGH

As in New York, so in Pittsburgh it is suggested that the work of the movement be conserved by an affiliation of bodies. A report of the Committee of One Hundred says of the social service program:

For social service there is probably no existing agency which would at this time naturally centralize these efforts, although there are two existing committees: the social service committee of the Committee of One Hundred and the College Men's Committee recently formed which should be used as a nucleus for the development of a social service agency. It is recommended that the social service continuation program be committed to the social service committee of the Committee of One Hundred of the Men and Religion Movement plus the executive committee of the college men's social service group and a representative from the social service agencies of Pittsburgh, which are not already represented on the above named committees, and that this committee be called the Social Service Union of Pittsburgh.

To co-ordinate all these organizations which are to take up the several branches of the work, the Committee of One Hundred recommend a central council consisting of five representatives selected by each of the agencies mentioned in charge of the six departments of work which shall officially accept the proposals stated.

This will constitute a council of thirty men which it is recommended be empowered to adopt its own by-laws, elect a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary, treasurer, and executive secretary and which shall stimulate, promote and safeguard all the work, and make sure that no department is neglected or under-emphasized.

This council is to be known as the Continuation Council on Men and Religion.

This plan will provide at the same time a simply constructed federation of church men. Whenever the council considers it necessary or advisable, all representatives from the local churches, together with the pastors, may be convened for the consideration of questions of importance.

The departmental agencies could also call together for their own purpose their representatives from the local churches, together with the pastors and the men on their committees for the consideration of departmental questions and problems.

It was also recommended as the sense of the Committee of One Hundred that later on when the Inter-Church Federation of Pittsburgh is more thoroughly organized the Continuation Council on Men and Religion shall become a department of the Inter-Church Federation.

Of this plan Chairman H. D. W. English writes:

We believe in this way we have best effected the conservation of this great work. It presents a program for future work which with the splendid offer of the college men's committee to furnish us with college men with which to do social service work makes this united force a power for righteousness in this community which must have a vital influence upon its social and communal life.

KALAMAZOO AND NEWARK

In Kalamazoo, Mich., one of the smallest cities visited by a Men and Religion team, there will be a social survey of the city under municipal auspices, the committee in charge having been appointed by the mayor. The plan of work is given as yet only in general terms:

First, to ascertain whether in Kalamazoo there are injurious conditions; second, to learn their causes; third, to seek for help and apply the remedies.

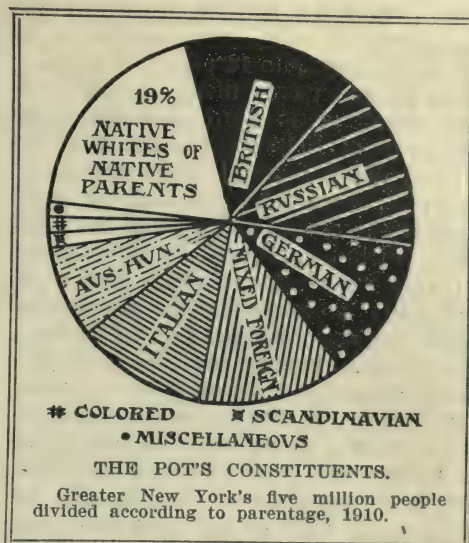
Tuberculosis, housing, health, wages, and standards of living are mentioned as probable lines of inquiry in the announcement issued for the commission by H. L. Stetson.

Kalamazoo has an opportunity to take a social inventory which will be of practical service to many cities of similar size and like conditions. Founded in the '30s by pioneers from New England and New York state, it grew slowly and substantially, without booms, to be a wealthy, conservative, cultured community. On this was superimposed, almost suddenly, a large working population employed in rapidly multiplying manufacturing plants. Growing pains, social

and civic, have been the inevitable result. There are said to be 200 cases of tuberculosis in the city; the late winter and spring developed a small epidemic of smallpox; the socialists have invaded the city council and came within less than 200 votes of electing their candidate for mayor, and there is now in progress a strike among women workers in a Kalamazoo factory which has brought to light ugly charges concerning the sort of protection the community gives to women wage-earners.

In Newark, N. J., some tangible results have come out of a very unpromising start. Only twenty-two churches responded to the advance requests for information to be used in a church survey, and of these only twelve made returns complete enough to be used. A. W. McDougall, secretary of the Newark Associated Charities and chairman of the Men and Religion social service committee, held that "the attitude of many of the ministers preceding the eight-day campaign apparently indicated that they were unwilling to have put before them their own peculiar problems or did not care to stand the test that would come with the results." Tangible results were secured nevertheless. The Ministerial Union has taken action providing for delegates to the labor union meetings and the juvenile court bill is now a law. Plans are making for an all day social service conference under the auspices of the churches of the city for information and inspiration. The meeting is to be divided into three parts—the morning for diagnosis, the afternoon for remedies, and the evening for inspiration.

These are scattering notes from a few of the seventy and more cities visited by the four teams. Results have varied greatly. There is a general consensus of opinion that, at the very least, the Men and Religion campaigns reached thousands of men who had before had no conception of social service or social responsibility; that the social workers will find among these men many new recruits, especially in times of stress when the blocking of a bad measure or the passage of a good one hangs on the number of earnest advocates who can be mustered in.



WHAT'S IN THE MELTING POT

Announcement from decade to decade of the number of people of English, Irish, Scotch, German, Scandinavian, French, Russian, Italian, Austrian, or other parentage, within the borders of Greater New York, America's biggest "melting pot," is always awaited with interest. The numbers for 1910 have just been computed from the figures of the Census Bureau by Walter Laidlaw, executive secretary of the New York Federation of Churches. He finds more persons of Irish parentage in New York in 1910 than in Dublin and Cork put together; more English and Welsh than in all of Halifax, England; more Scots than in Shetland County, Scotland; more Germans than in Dresden or Munich; more Scandinavians than in Malmo, the third largest city of Sweden; 200,000 more Russians, Poles, and Finns together than all the people of Odessa, or enough to make a city two-fifths the size of St. Petersburg; within 50,000 Italians of the number in either Rome or Milan; half as many Austro-Hungarians as reside in Budapest; half as many Roumanians and Turks as the population of Jerusalem today; and some Chinese, Japanese, Hindoos, Australians and native-born whites and blacks left over, all, as above

stated, within the borders of New York city.¹

Putting them into terms of American cities, there were more people of Irish parentage in 1910 than the total population of Baltimore; more of English and Welsh than all of the people of Nashville; more Scots than all the residents in the capital cities of either Alabama, Michigan, Texas, or Wisconsin; 45,000 more Germans than people in Cleveland; a Scandinavian population larger by 5,000 than the city of Springfield, Mass.; French and Swiss immigrants equaling about half the population of Troy, N. Y.; 35,000 more people in the Russian group than individuals in St. Louis; only 2,000 Italians less than enough to populate a city the size of Pittsburgh; and more Austrians and Hungarians by 30,000 than the population of Jersey City.

Interesting increases and decreases have occurred. New York's population of British parentage, according to Dr. Laidlaw's figures, decreased in the ten years, 1900-1910, by 197,000 and the number of those of German parentage was reduced by 193,000. The population of Scandinavian parentage in New York was the only northwestern European group that made any substantial increase in the decade. The gain in people of Russian, Polish, and Finnish parentage, however—over 416,000—more than made

¹The actual figures for the different population groups are as follows:

BRITISH PARENTAGE		1910
Ireland	562,303	
England-Wales	114,322	
Scotland	38,414	
Canada-Newfoundland	33,484	
Australia-India	1,046	
	749,569	
NORTH-WESTERN EUROPEAN		
Germany-Luxemburg	607,088	
Scandinavia	93,965	
France	24,726	
Switzerland	13,629	
	1,488,977	
SOUTH-EASTERN EUROPEAN		
Russia-Poland-Finland	724,112	
Italy	532,064	
Austria-Hungary	398,079	
Roumania	32,210	
Greece	8,745	
Turkey	9,982	
	3,194,167	
MIXED PARENTAGE		
2 Foreign Parents	24,703	
1 Parent Foreign	528,990	
	3,747,862	
BOTH PARENTS NATIVE		
Negroes	921,318	
China-Japan	91,709	
	5,994	
Total	4,766,883	

up for these decreases. The increase in people of immediate Italian descent was over 302,000 and of Austro-Hungarian parentage, over 230,000. The number giving Yiddish as their mother tongue would indicate that the people of immediate Jewish descent in the city number above a million. Further analysis of the figures developed the significant fact that 48.3 per cent of the Russian gain of Greater New York and 34.6 per cent of the Italian gain are found in the borough of Brooklyn.

A CITY RECASTING ITS INSTITUTIONS

Every so often every growing city in America is faced with the necessity of enlarging its public institutions. This is not merely a matter of size but of organic makeup. The process is not unlike the breaking up of single cells which comes with biological growth. The larger the city, the more completely differentiated and developed is the system which it is in position to install. The Philadelphia Hospital in West Philadelphia, popularly known as Blockley, long since outgrew its confines. Between five and six thousand persons have been crowded together on less than five acres of land. It has been insisted for some time that the different divisions of Blockley must be removed one by one and re-established as separate institutions in other parts of the city. Recent administrations have prepared the way for this change by purchasing tracts of land in other parts of the city, chiefly in the northeastern section.

The smallest of these sites is in Holmesburg, adjoining the House of Correction; the next in size, containing 135 acres, is known as the Brown farm and adjoins the filter beds in Torresdale. The most northerly and largest of the tracts is the so-called Byberry tract, near Somerton, comprising approximately 1,000 acres. The first of these sites, the Tacony race track, was fixed upon as the most available site for a home for the indigent; the Brown farm at Torresdale was thought most desirable for the home for the feeble-minded; while it was hoped to develop the large Byberry farms

as a hospital for the insane on the colony plan. No further plans were made for the breaking up of the ill-assorted collection of institutions at Blockley, other than a somewhat hazy plan to establish a home for women indigents on the Brown farm with the home for feeble-minded.

At the beginning of the present administration the question of the development of the city's charitable institutions was taken up anew by Director Joseph S. Neff and his assistant, Alexander M. Wilson. Representatives of different charitable societies were invited into conference to go over the city's plans and to make suggestions; officers of charitable societies visited the sites mentioned above and gave considerable time and thought to the problems involved. After several conferences, it was pointed out in a letter to Director Neff, signed by representatives of most of the leading charitable societies, that the site selected for the home for male indigents was exceedingly objectionable. The objections to this site and to the Brown farm were summarized as follows:

1. The site for the home for male indigents is undesirably located, in that it adjoins the house of correction and imposes unnecessary stigma upon the beneficiaries of the city's charity.

2. The site itself is unsuitable in character, being on low and swampy ground.

3. The available space for buildings on this site is not sufficient to provide suitably for the male indigents' division and much too small for both the male and female departments of the home for the indigent.

4. The size of this site will be reduced still further by the extension of Holmesburg avenue to the Delaware river, which is now on foot. This extension will have only a few feet of space between the street and the buildings of the home for the indigent, a most undesirable feature of the present plans.

5. There is no provision for heating the



PHILADELPHIA COUNTY.
Map showing present and proposed locations of the city's charitable institutions.

buildings of the home for male indigents when completed, which condition would justly render the city liable to severe criticism because of the investment of a large sum of money in buildings which would stand idle until a suitable heating plant could be constructed. In this connection the plan for securing heat from the house of correction is undesirable and also impracticable because of the inadequacy of the heating plant at that institution.

6. The present plan for separate institutions for the men's and women's departments of the home for the indigent in widely separated locations involves the city in increased expense for the maintenance of these institutions and for their supervision, and also for maintaining an increased number of units in the city's system of charitable institutions.

7. The policy of joining the city's charitable with its correctional institutions is against public policy and contrary to the best practice in other cities at the present time.

8. The Brown farm selected as a site for the home for the feeble-minded is insufficient in size for that purpose.

9. The extension of a boulevard through the Brown farm impairs the usefulness of that property as a site for the home for the feeble-minded to an appreciable degree.

The representatives of these societies recommended a modification of the city's

plans, whereby both male and female indigents would be cared for in separate institutions on the Brown farm, and the Holmesburg site devoted to other uses.

Their second suggestion was that the home for the feeble-minded be established on a section of the Byberry tract where additional land could be secured at a minimum expense.

Further consideration of the matter developed the fact that the breaking up of Blockley would involve the city in an expenditure of some seven to ten millions of dollars, and that up to the present time no carefully worked-out plans of sufficient scope have been presented to the public or been given thorough consideration by the city's charitable societies. Accordingly, it seemed wise to bring the matter to a head by organizing a citizens' committee of one hundred to consider this question in all its aspects, and to prepare a thorough-going plan for the development of the city's charities along modern and scientific lines. Meanwhile various charitable societies and civic organizations have held meetings on the subject and have adopted resolutions, calling upon the director of health and charities and the mayor to modify the present plans for these institutions, and to abrogate the city's commitments in this direction so as to clear the ground for a more careful consideration of the matter by the citizens' Committee on Municipal Charities.¹

Sub-committees will doubtless be appointed to outline plans for municipal agencies which will care for the classes of dependents now sheltered in Blockley, notably the male and female indigent, the insane, feeble-minded, the tuberculous, and general hospital patients. It will be the function of these committees also to consider the extent of the city's responsibility for the various classes of dependents and its relation to state and

private activities in the same fields. The committee intends to make a thorough study of the whole situation and when an effective plan for caring for each particular class of dependents has been outlined it will be consolidated with other similar plans into a thorough-going and presumably well-adjusted scheme for a series of modern municipal institutions adequately officered and equipped with such arrangements for supervision as will offer a constant incentive to the highest type of scientific work.

EDITORIAL GRIST

MR. GRIMWIG AND THE REST

FRANKLIN CHASE HOYT

Justice assigned to the Children's
Court of New York City

Dickens has never been credited with being one of the originators of the children's court movement, but he must have dreamed of its realization when he wrote of *Oliver Twist*. With his deep insight into human nature he understood as thoroughly as we do to-day the dangers and perils to which the unprotected child is exposed, and he recognized the utter lack of sense and humane feeling in the attitude assumed by the state and the community of his time towards neglected children.

In witnessing the centenary production of *Oliver Twist* in New York one instinctively feels that the various characters are but prototypes of the forces with which we are so familiar to-day.

Oliver Twist himself is merely the unfortunate victim of his environment—the representative of so many children who can find no natural outlet for their activities, and who “never have had anyone to teach them what was right and what was wrong.” The stain of his birth in itself implanted no depraved instincts in his nature, but all the misery he was forced to suffer was chargeable to the social conditions in which he was born and bred.

As one grows familiar with the hideous figure of Fagin he becomes simply

¹The committee comprises one hundred of Philadelphia's most representative citizens and has been organized with George Vaux, Jr., as temporary chairman and William B. Buck as executive secretary. Offices are in the Morris Building. The following executive committee has been appointed: J. H. Musser, M.D.; Max Herzberg; John S. Newbold; George Vaux, Jr.; Walter George Smith; John Wanamaker; George Woodward, M.D.; B. Franklin Pepper; Theodore J. Lewis; Charles Frazier, M.D.; Cheesman A. Herrick; George Wharton Pepper; C. Lincoln Furbush, M.D.; Stevens Hecksher; D. J. McCarthy, M.D.



Oliver Twist at New Amsterdam Theater, New York.

LITTLE OLIVER'S RETURN TO FAGIN'S DEN.

From left to right: Alfred Gray as Barney; Constance Collier as Nancy; Percival Vivian as Charlie Bates; Charles Rogers as The Artful Dodger; Marie Doro as Oliver Twist; Nat C. Goodwin as Fagin; Lyn Harding as Bill Sikes.

the personification of the evil influences, the corrupting associations, and the debasing suggestions which constantly beset the children of our cities.

In the actions of Mr. Brownlow, as well as of Rose and Mrs. Maylie, we find a recognition of the fact, now so universally understood, that the erring child is entitled to receive from the state its care and protection, not its condemnation and abuse, and that such child should be given his chance to lead a decent life and to qualify himself as a useful member of society.

There are other figures in the drama which, in one's fancy, might well represent various conditions and influences which enter into the problem of juvenile delinquency. In Sikes can be perceived the physical force and compulsion which so often forces youth into open and violent crime, and in Monks, the greed that will unhesitatingly sacrifice a child for its own gain. Nancy is an appealing figure, because in the last analysis she represents true womanhood which, though degraded and beaten down, might have been raised to its salvation if help had only come before it was too late. What is Bumble the beadle but institu-

tionalism in its worst form, and in watching him one rejoices that the conditions of which he is the exponent are rapidly becoming a thing of the past.

Finally, is there not a lesson which can be learned from the disposition of our friend, Mr. Grimwig? Does he not admirably represent the attitude of the indifferent and intolerant community, which is always willing to find a refuge behind the doctrine of heredity, and which likes to believe that where there is a hereditary strain nothing but evil can be expected of a child? But even Mr. Grimwig has to wake up at last to the fact that his preconceived views are sadly in need of reconstruction, and that there is something to be said on behalf of the neglected child after all. The dramatist has well paraphrased the idea of Dickens in giving Mr. Grimwig the opportunity to express his reluctant apology. He realizes in the end that he was wrong and that he should make some acknowledgment of the fact to Oliver, but it is "a nasty business," this, of begging a boy's pardon, and how it "annoys" him to have to admit that he was mistaken!

It is a pity that in remodeling the

story for the purposes of dramatization it was necessary to omit any reference to the novelist's conception of the administration of justice which the juvenile delinquent of sixty years ago was forced to endure. A representation of the brutality (as well as of the absurdity) of Magistrate Fang might have aroused a few of our worthy citizens to an appreciation by comparison of what is being done to-day to give to those children who come before the court their chance of happiness and of hope.

STEERAGE: OUT BOUND

VICTOR VON BOROSINI
CHICAGO

[Dr. von Borosini is known to readers of THE SURVEY for various social investigations of dependable character. His personal experiences in the outgoing steerage of the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique are a very human argument for the better enforcement of existing legislation and for the enactment of further legislation to improve steerage conditions.

The Dillingham bill, now before Congress, attempts to secure better enforcement by providing for the detailing of immigrant inspectors and matrons for service on "vessels carrying immigrant or emigrant passengers." Among their duties is included that of observing and reporting violations of the Passenger Act, which regulates steerage passage, and is enforced not by the Commissioner of Immigration, but by the Collectors of Customs. The wording of the proposed section, however, gives color to Dr. von Borosini's claim that little interest is felt in enforcing the law on east bound vessels, as the section provides that the violations to be reported by the inspectors and matrons shall be "of such provisions as relate to the care and treatment of immigrant passengers at sea." The law is not clear as to the duties of inspectors and matrons on vessels carrying emigrant passengers, although they are to be detailed for service on such vessels.

Furthermore, the passenger act itself does not prescribe all the conditions necessary to maintain the now "generally accepted hygienic standards," and should be amended in accordance with these.]

I had a chance last year to go to Europe alone and decided to go in the steerage of the French line, the Compagnie Générale Transatlantique. The popularly entertained idea is that conditions on the eastward journey are really comparatively pleasant; but I found them quite different. I came back in second



Oliver Twist at New Amsterdam Theater, New York.

FAGIN AND MONKS PLOTTING AGAINST OLIVER'S LIFE.

From left to right: Nat C. Goodwin as Fagin; Howard Gould as Monks; Constance Collier as Nancy.

class on *La Bretagne*, where I had a good opportunity to continue my observations in the steerage, for everybody was allowed, contrary to the law, to mingle.

The United States has stringent immigration laws, which are observed more or less strictly for fear of the heavy fines in case of contraventions. Unfortunately the law is not enforced on the way to Europe. France does not seem to have paid any attention to the matter, while Italy has regulated steerage conditions by an excellent modern law. She issues a license to boats carrying Italian steerage passengers after an inspection has been made of the boat, and its age, velocity, and accommodations for steerage passengers have been found to be in accordance with the law. A surgeon of the army or navy is as "royal commissioner" on all the boats plying between the United States and Italy; he protects the interests of the steerage. The steamers of the French company also receive such a license, and in return they promise to treat the steerage not worse than the Italian law prescribes; but no efforts are made to comply with it. I did not see any copies of the American or the Italian law on *La Savoie*. I did not know then that there was a complaint book in the hands of the captain, but I am sure it must take a good deal of courage to demand it.

We had to wait before we were allowed to go on board, and I watched ticket agents and bankers who provided their clients with tickets the names on which did not correspond to the owner's names. People objected, but they were told it did not matter. But upon the information of these agents the statistics of the United States immigration office depend. Some men on board told me that they had been charged by local agents in the West for transportation \$43, though the regular price of transportation was \$35. When I went on board I was asked by the chief steward of the steerage whether I was travelling alone or with my wife. He then gave me a ticket for the men's dormitory. I followed the crowd down into the first dormitory, where I secured an upper berth near the portholes, hoping to get plenty of fresh air. My neighbors were two peasants

from Lombardy and a French carpenter. We succeeded in keeping the lower berth unoccupied. We slept in canvass hammocks with a blanket and a pillow, not all of which were clean when we left New York. Four or six hammocks were fastened together, so that when one man moved about three or five others were swinging too.

Few people undressed at all during the eight days. Our clothes were so dirty that at the time of our arrival at Havre quite a number of us threw them overboard.

The portholes were closed shortly after six o'clock in the evening, though the sun did not set until half after eight and the sea was generally calm. We had the number of ventilators in the room which the law demands, but they did not provide us with fresh air; the only fresh air we got at all during the night came down the staircase. When in port, I suppose the inspectors are told that the ventilators are working when the ship is in motion, and they believe it. We were 161 men in our dormitory, many seasick, almost all of us chewing tobacco and expectorating freely, but not a single spittoon or other receptacle was provided for us. Smoked fish was eaten by Slavs and Jews between meals, and the refuse was decaying on the floor beneath the hammocks and tables. At eight in the evening and at eight in the morning the room was flooded with a powerful hose. At night the steam of the evaporating water, the smell of perspiration and of decaying organic matter increased the nausea. In spite of it, we retired quite early, for one gets pretty tired being up for fourteen hours without a decent place in which to rest. There was only one place where we men could get drinking water. One cup was attached to the faucet which served for over 300 people. Early in the morning my companions sneaked out to wash themselves here, though it was against the rules—which in this case were enforced.

For washing purposes men, women, and children had only salt water, sailors and stewards had fresh water. Neither soap nor towels were provided. I repeatedly saw people using dirty kitchen

water or picking up pieces of ice on which to clean up. Our wash-room was connected with the toilet-room. The toilets were insufficient in number and atrociously dirty, always full of water. The second day our paper supply was exhausted. Women who had separate toilets and washrooms suffered from the same lack of decency and privacy, as the passerby could not help seeing directly into the toilets. Smaller children did not go to the toilets, but used the floors of the dormitories or the deck. They slept with their parents in a common dormitory; girls and unattended women had a dormitory of their own.

The only time I complained was when I saw the second captain the second day and talked to him about the ventilation downstairs. When he found out that a steerage passenger was speaking to him he answered in an exceedingly disagreeable way that the company had issued certain regulations which had to be enforced.

The rules were not observed on Sunday, when we were roused early by the stewards, who wanted to clean our dormitory for Sunday mass, which was attended by first-class passengers.

In the ill-smelling dormitory we had our coffee at half-past six. The port-holes were unscrewed at seven. How must conditions be in winter, when a rough sea makes it sometimes necessary for the steerage to stay below for days in the smelling and overheated quarters.

When we appeared on deck early in the morning we were not allowed absolute freedom. Part of the deck, near the first-class staterooms, was closed until ten o'clock; another part was always being painted or cleaned up, when the sailors, who were generally very friendly to the steerage, rather enjoyed giving us a ducking. There were a few benches on deck, and some had bought a little chair for a quarter. Lying on deck was disagreeable on account of the spitting. Women had absolutely no place on deck where they could gather by themselves. Though we had a rather decent crowd on board, indecent jokes and doubtful remarks were frequently made. Sometimes the women were handled by the men; I interfered several

times myself, but never saw an officer take any initiative. The same was true with gambling; the crew openly violated the regulations and joined in the passengers' games. The most disagreeable feature on deck was the emptying of garbage and slops into the sea by the kitchen help and others. The boys took good care that no waste would be scattered on to the upper deck, but they laughed when it blew into our faces. I spoke to one of the boys about it and he was so astonished at being called down by a steerage passenger that he fell over on his back.

At half-past ten we had our dinner. The food was good, plentiful, and varied. Red wine was provided in large quantities. Tea could not be had even by offering a bribe, which generally secured almost anything one desired from the first- or second-class table. We had no knives, and on my complaint I was informed that once the company had furnished them, but as several had been lost it was decided to stop the practice. It was a great inconvenience for women and children and those who carried only small pocket knives. At a quarter past four we had our last meal. We were so many that we were obliged to eat in two sections, and even then it was not possible for some Croatians to secure a seat. Part of our ill-smelling dining-, living-, and sleeping-room served as a saloon; a lot of well cooled beer and wine were consumed. The commissaire, a paid employe of the company, who on the boats in the Mediterranean service is the mediator between the officers and the steerage, never appeared in our midst. The surgeon faithfully kept his office hours in the third-class hospital, which, by the way, had no bathing facilities. He never came into our dormitory to ascertain sanitary and health conditions among us. In my dormitory was a Croatian in the last stages of consumption, who coughed pitifully; he ought to have been removed to the hospital for our protection if not for his own sake. But who cared? In his place a professor from an Eastern university and a business man from Czernowitz, were received as wards, though they were perfectly well. They paid \$12 to the doctor

and probably something to the steward who took them there. They received food from the second-class and had each a very nice state-room. They were told not to go outside before dusk. Nobody in the steerage can get any information from the officers. We had five deported fellow passengers among us who worried constantly about their getting home after we landed at Havre. Though every one of the officers knew that the company is obliged to ship them back free of cost to Italy, nobody would answer the anxious questions of the men. Nobody knew what to do in case of an accident. Life-saving belts were not at hand in sufficient numbers, and I shall not hereafter wonder when I read about a panic in the steerage in case of some accident.

It may be true that the company does not receive many complaints, because people are absolutely ignorant that they have certain rights. If copies of the Italian and American emigration law and a complaint book were placed in the saloon, steerage passengers, who in the majority resent the disgraceful and unhealthy conditions, would certainly complain.

I believe the United States ought, not only for humanity's sake, but for very practical and selfish reasons, to regulate steerage conditions and insure the enforcement of the law on the high sea on both west and eastward passage. For in the steerage there can always be found quite a number of American citizens or aliens who intend to return to this country, and it ought not to be a matter of indifference that people are exposed to all kinds of moral and physical infection. Deported immigrants ought to be told by an honest official at Ellis Island what is going to happen to them, also that they have certain rights. For the women on board there ought to be a place set apart on deck where they could be by themselves. The hospital nurse ought to be actively interested in their physical and moral well being. The enforcement of generally accepted hygienic standards, especially as to ventilation, drinking cups, decently cooled water, fresh water for washing purposes,

spittoons, and decency of the toilet-rooms is of the greatest importance. The French company does not take any interest in complaints. After my arrival in Paris I stated my grievances in a long letter; I never received an answer, though I had given my address. At the same time I sent a statement to the Italian commissioner-general of emigration through the Italian consul-general in Havre, in the hope that this government may take proper steps to make the French company live up to the terms of the Italian law.¹

THE NORSE SEA CODE

MILES M. DAWSON

There is and should be an insistent demand that, aside from other requirements, such as smaller ships, less attention to luxury and more to safety, slower speed, avoidance of the northern route, and the like, all of which may be arranged for in time, there should immediately be provided on ocean-going vessels life-boats and other reliable life-saving appliances, sufficient in number to take care of the largest number of persons, including passengers, crew and ship employes, that the ship is permitted to carry. Nothing less will satisfy the reasonable demands of the traveling public.

The attitude that such is not required because, forsooth, vessels which have water-tight compartments will, in any event, stay afloat for a long time after injury, must now be definitely, and it is to be hoped forever, abandoned. Life-boats and other means of escape are indispensable; and to say that the risk has been minimized, is no argument that the contingency, however remote, should not be provided against.

If there were not regulations carefully worked out and also tested by experience to cover precisely these points, there might be reasonable excuse for delay. Fortunately for the peace of mind, as well as the safety, of the hundreds of thousands who will be on the Atlantic ocean this summer, there are such regulations, already thoroughly worked out and subjected to six years' test by a nation which, in proportion to its population, contains the largest number of ship-

¹See page 171.

owners and of sailors of all the nations in the world.

This nation is Norway, which in 1906, largely as a result of the sinking of the Danish-American steamship *Norge* off the sunken rocks west of the north coast of Scotland, with nearly 600 people on board and all souls lost, adopted regulations which with certain changes have since been rigidly applied to all vessels leaving its ports, clearance papers being refused until these conditions were complied with. The regulations in brief are as follows:

Every passenger ship, other than those engaged in coast or inland navigation exclusively, for which separate regulations were adopted, was required to carry:

1. Boats under davits sufficient to take at least one-third of the largest number of persons permitted to be carried on the voyage.

2. Other boats, collapsible life-saving boats, or such, sufficient, together with those named under the first head, to carry at least two-thirds of the largest number of persons permitted to be carried on the voyage.

3. Life rafts, floating deck seats or other such, placed on the deck, sufficient to take the rest of the largest number of persons permitted to be carried on the voyage.

It is to be observed that this provided for taking off the maximum number of people which the boat is permitted to carry. This is defined as follows:

By the largest number of persons permitted to be carried is understood the highest number of passengers according to the government certificate, plus the crew, all the ship's employees included.

The "water-tight bulkhead" argument was later brought to bear, with such success, that, upon revision of the regulations in 1909, although the rules were made more stringent, requiring that the life-boats be sufficient to take off four-tenths instead of one-third and omitting floating deck-seats and the like from the list of things permitted for the protection of the remaining six-tenths, ships, provided with bulkheads, such that they would float if two adjoining chambers were open to the sea, were exempted to the extent of 50 per cent from providing fully for the remaining six-tenths. Doubtless Norway will now hasten to repeal this unfortunate exemption.

Had the Titanic, however, been supplied as required by the Norwegian regu-

lations of 1906, it would have had life-boats under davits *alone sufficient* to take off more than 2,000 people, *i. e.*, practically all that were on board; and its other provisions would have been sufficient, in amount and in character, to have taken care of 4,000 more persons. In other words, it would have been prepared to keep afloat more than 6,000 people, all it could have carried at its maximum capacity.

The Norwegian regulations proceed to describe in great detail precisely the character of the life-boats, life-rafts, etc., which must be carried, requiring them to have a buoyancy, by means of water-tight air chambers or otherwise, more than sufficient to sustain the maximum number of persons the boat is constructed to carry. They also require them to be provided with no less than fifteen different categories of things for sailing, rowing, baling, and repairing leaks, anchoring and lighting and, if going outside of Europe, for the sustenance of occupants, five kilograms of bread and five litres of water per person.

The inventory required for the equipment of every boat must be fastened to it, so that inspection is easy.

The amount of space to be allowed for each person is fixed at ten cubic feet, two children, between one and fourteen years, being counted as an adult, and children under one year left out of the reckoning. Each boat is required to be marked with the number which it is built to carry.

The life-rafts and other substitutes for life-boats, etc., are also required to have water-tight air chambers and an amount of buoyancy exceeding by 100 per cent the weight which they are expected to sustain.

There are also full regulations concerning the location of these boats and methods by which they are to be launched.

A very important part of the requirements is that in the fore-castle, the hold and every saloon of the boat, detailed instructions as to which officers and employees are assigned to each raft, etc., must be posted; and similar instructions must both be posted and be given to the crew and all employees as to their respec-

tive tasks in launching the life-boats and rafts, in handing out life-belts and in performing other necessary duties. Frequent drills are required in order that the employes may experimentally learn precisely what to do, so that ordinarily the issuance of further orders will not be necessary.

It may be claimed that, even on most trans-Atlantic steamers, notwithstanding that, as is now known to everybody, the British Board of Trade regulations and the general maritime regulations of most nations have only required the carrying of life-boats, life-rafts, etc., in sufficient number to take one-third of the passengers, crew, and employes for boats up to 10,000 tons, and for boats in excess of 10,000 tons, no more of such facilities than for boats of that tonnage, there will be such instructions as regards the manning of the life-boats by particular members of the crew. This is, no doubt, true; but such have left the vast majority of the crew and of the other employes of the ships without any instructions. That is necessarily so, because there were not boats enough even to carry themselves to safety. Consequently, in the nature of things, they could not be told to what post they should repair, both for their own safety and in order to be useful in saving the lives of others.

There is one peril which, fortunately, in the case of the sinking of the Titanic was avoided, but which would naturally flow from a condition of an under-supply of life-boats and life-rafts, viz., that, if the ship were sinking suddenly and without much warning, the crew, becoming panic-stricken and knowing what the passengers did not know (that there were not enough boats for all) would perhaps take possession. It is very probable that this and not the fancied inferiority of the French sailors, was the true cause of the stampede when the Bourgogne went down. On the Titanic there was hope and even expectation at first that the ship, since it was sinking so slowly, could remain afloat until help came.

That most desirable result would pretty certainly follow were all ships, leaving American ports, required, before receiving their clearance papers to undergo inspection to determine whether they

were supplied with life-boats and the like sufficient to take off every soul on board. For, in such case, the crew and indeed all the ship employes would know that even though the appliances for saving the lives of those who waited until the last, were not of quite the same character as the life-boats, there would at least be life-rafts and other means of proved buoyancy sufficient to keep them afloat.

I have furnished copies of a translation of the Norwegian regulations to the President, the secretary of commerce and labor, the chairman of the committees of the senate and the house, and the inspector-general of maritime vessels, so that it may be available to assist them in framing whatever regulations may be required. Fortunately, since the accusation may falsely be made that Norway has nothing but small vessels sailing from its ports, Senator Knute Nelson, of Minnesota, himself born at Ivangen, near Bergen, Norway, is chairman of the senate committee. He is informed concerning the Norwegian regulations and has a copy of it in that language, to which, with all other provisions relating to vessels, he can readily refer. His full acquaintance with the facts concerning the magnitude of Norwegian shipping will enable him to answer foolish objections that Norway, being a small and unimportant country, cannot have worked this out well enough to answer as even a tentative draft for our own safety regulations.

COMMUNICATIONS

STEERAGE: OUT BOUND

[This correspondence, bearing upon Dr. von Borosini's statement published on page 166, is self-illuminating: Perhaps it is necessary to add only that Dr. von Borosini has long been a resident at Hull House, Chicago, and has acquaintance at first hand with the life and labor of immigrants at home and abroad.]

TO THE EDITOR:

Receipt is acknowledged of your communication of the 12th instant, enclosing proof of an article written by Dr. von Borosini, whom you characterize as "a dependable social investigator," covering a voyage he claims to have made on our SS. *La Savote*. Commenting on this article:

1. It is evident from the name of the author that he is of German extraction, which would suggest a dislike, if not an actual prejudice, for anything French.

2. The doctor is undoubtedly accustomed to travelling in first class; if so, we can well imagine that the habits and customs, manner of living or

traveling employed by immigrants would not appeal to him; on the contrary, would be distasteful to him from every point of view. But, may we ask: Have you the assurance that this gentleman ever visited the living quarters of the homes of these people in this country, or in their native land? We are absolutely sure that he either has not associated with or investigated conditions in existence in their own homes, or their conduct in the public places frequented by them. If this were the case, he would not find it strange that they expectorated on the floor, dropped the refuse from their meals underneath their berths, slept in their daily wearing apparel, etc.

This they do in their own home, even in America,—sleep, cook, eat, wash, and, in fact, perform all their household duties in one room.

Before criticizing conditions on board any ocean liner, as far as immigrants are concerned, one has only to visit their homes in the mining, manufacturing, and construction centers of America where they are located, to become acquainted with the meager comforts they enjoy and the uncleanness of their habitations, etc.

The very fact that we have practically no complaints whatever from steerage passengers on our steamers, certainly goes to prove to any fair-minded man that conditions are not such as they are described by Dr. von Borosini.

3. As to the question of life-saving belts, each steamer of our company is subjected to government inspection which is rigidly enforced, and no steamer leaves this port insufficiently provided, not only with life belts, but with life boats and everything necessary for the safety of the passengers,—which disproves the doctor's assertion.

4. As to the question of privacy in sleeping quarters, wash-rooms, toilets, etc., separate compartments on board our steamers are provided for males and females; separate toilets and wash-rooms, etc. But with a crowd of 500 or 600 immigrants, unaccustomed to sanitary conditions which do not exist in their own homes, the doctor should fully understand that it is almost an impossibility to, every hour of the day, keep their quarters as he would seem to indicate they should be kept.

5. As to deported passengers, such passengers are informed in their own language, before they leave Ellis Island, that they are to be returned to the destination from whence they came by the steamship company. Naturally they would worry during the voyage if for no other reason than the fact that they are being deported; which is certainly no fault of the steamship line, as we have no discretion in the matter. How can Dr. von Borosini assert that officers fail to answer the inquiries of these people when he could not be present at the time the immigration landing officer delivered them on board and gave them their final instructions. If these people insist on asking over and over again the same question, which they do times without number, the officers of the vessel would naturally be occupied for hours each day answering their queries.

6. The statement that a professor of an eastern university and a New York business man were given quarters in the steerage hospital is utterly without foundation, as proper hospital accommodations are provided also in first class, and people of this character are never taken to the hospital for immigrants. The doctor makes a bold statement that they paid \$12.00 to the ship's surgeon for this privilege, but he does not state that he saw the money paid him; undoubtedly, the doctor's statement is based on hearsay which is anything but proof.

7. As to the port-holes being closed shortly after six P. M.,—undoubtedly this is a fact; such action is necessary for the safety of the steamer and the passengers, but this the doctor does not probably recognize on account of his lack of sea experience.

8. As to the statement of the doctor that women had no place on deck where they could gather, this is refuted by the fact that all deck space, as well as steerage space, is measured by the United States government inspectors, and if our company exceeded the limited number of passengers, per steamer, provided for by such measurement, we would be heavily fined by the United States government. So far, no fines have been paid and no complaints of infractions of government rules have been made to us.

From the general tone of the doctor's report,

it is plainly evident to any man of experience in the transportation line that the worthy doctor imagined similar conditions and comforts should be provided for steerage passengers who pay \$35 only as are provided for cabin passengers who pay from \$110 to \$500; but, unfortunately, this is not possible or practicable.

9. As to passengers holding tickets which did not correspond with their names, this is possible and even quite probable, as oftentimes the agents who deliver orders on us from the interior write the names of the passengers so poorly, or indistinctly that, on issuing the official ticket, an error may be made in the spelling.

10. As to some passengers paying \$35 and some \$45, this is easy to explain by the fact that the steerage rate to Havre is \$35, while to interior points of Europe it is much more, often in excess of \$45, and undoubtedly the passengers the doctor refers to may have paid more than \$35 for tickets to interior points.

Before giving this article to the public in printed form, we think it would be wise, and trust you will find it expedient, to include at least a condensed statement of our comments and explanations.

C. TREVOUX,
[General Passenger Agent, Compagnie Générale Transatlantique.]

New York, March 15, 1912.

TO THE EDITOR:

The answer of the French company concedes in quite a number of cases the truth of my statements.

By writing "the very fact that we have practically no complaints," the company admits that a few people do send in complaints. Complaining, however, does not help much, as my highly unsatisfactory interview with the second captain showed, and, further, the company never took the trouble to answer the letter of complaint I had written in Paris. People in the steerage do not know that they have certain rights and that they ought to be protected by the Italian law.

As to life-saving belts, I have said they were not at hand in sufficient numbers. The Italian law prescribes that each berth should contain one. Fortunately, that was not the case, as we were pretty crowded even without them.

The letter does not answer my statements about the wash and toilet-rooms, which are so open and public that one can see what is going on inside. The fresh water and the drinking water question is not discussed, neither the disgusting lack of paper after we had been out one day.

On *La Savoie* the deported passengers did not know how to reach their homes after we had arrived in Havre. I was present when one of them asked the chief steward of the steerage, without getting a satisfactory reply. They told me of their efforts to get more information from the commissaire in the same direction, without success.

I kept quite a few addresses for reference. I have not the address of the business man from Czernowitz. The professor's name is

of the University of Pennsylvania. Both had taken passage in the steerage, but were men of means, and had simply done what my steward proposed to me right away. By paying \$12 they secured accommodations in the hospital and second class food with first class treatment. I was, of course, not present, when the money was paid over to the doctor, who may have given them a receipt in the name of the company. There was a good deal of secrecy about it, and I know that really sick people were neglected, because they could not pay for any privileges.

Only the port-holes in the steerage were closed as early and opened so late. The sea was generally calm, as the ship's log will show. Port-holes in other parts of the boat were kept open much longer.

Concerning the women on deck, I said they had no place where they could gather by themselves. I mentioned the spitting in connection with the fact that we had neither spittoons nor other receptacles, so that people had to spit on the floor of the dormitory.

About the prices paid for tickets to local agents in the West, I may have been misinformed. If people are overcharged it is the fault of the local agents.

Quite a number of my statements are not attacked, for instance the bath-room question, the

attitude of the ship's surgeon and his concern for the health of the steerage, the violations of the Italian law and the lack of oversight by the officers of the company. France does not seem to have changed her legislation in this matter since 1860 and 1861.

I could have made a much stronger statement of the conditions on both boats, which are of an older type; the newest boats show quite a number of improvements, at least on paper. I hope it will be sufficient to convince the company that some important changes ought to be made in the interest of human freight.

I hope this article may contribute towards a better general understanding of the problem, and that it may serve to bring about legislation for the protection of the steerage on the high sea on the western as well as on the eastern journey.

V. VON BOROSINI.

Chicago, March 21, 1912.

SOCIAL REFORM AND POLITICS

TO THE EDITOR:

In a situation like the present, when old views are being undermined and the clutches of prejudice are loosening, it is easy for social workers to be misled and to cast their fortunes, not with real progress but with some attractive statement of discarded concepts. A call in new terms may be really an emotional appeal of a lost cause which, if we heed, takes us from our posts and puts us in a rabble that moves with the wind towards any temporary goal.

This statement was evoked by a recent article in *THE SURVEY* called *A Charter of Democracy*¹ by James Bronson Reynolds. It is an appeal for a candidate, so worded as to imply that this charter contains the creed of a new *social* democracy. To this, there would be no objection if the word *social* had not been used. A charter of *political* democracy could pass at its face value, but for it there would have been no place in *THE SURVEY*. It gets there because of its supposed bearing on social reform. I do not want to oppose political reform. I admire, as much as any one, the great benefits that political democracy has wrought, but the end of an old movement should not be confused with the vanguard of a new. Does social democracy involve merely the scratching out the word *political* in old addresses and the putting of *social* in its place? This is plainly Mr. Reynolds' view, and he coins a number of aphorisms to give point to his claim. Take one example: "Labor is the superior of capital and deserves a much higher consideration." To a politician, such a sentence had an end, even if it lacks meaning. It is the refuge of the spellbinder, for its emotional appeal is strong. But does it express anything in terms of social philosophy and should social workers grow enthusiastic over its enunciation?

Mr. Reynolds will reply that is the way Lincoln talked, and should not a present day orator be proud of such company? Yes, I reply, before a historical society or at a meeting of veterans. Lincoln belonged to the political era and solved one of its greatest

problems. We can forgive him if he fails to enlighten us on problems we have to solve. But in 1912 to identify antiquated political platitudes with the social philosophy of today is to mistake the chaff of an earlier harvest for the seed of a reaping to come.

It hardly seems necessary to discuss the contrast between political and social democracy, but as the issue has been raised, it cannot be avoided. Let me illustrate in a related field. Of late, social religion has come to the fore. For a clergyman to be effective in the new movement means more than to turn over his barrel of sermons and use them again after substituting "social" for "personal" wherever he refers to religion. Personal religion means an interest in one's own future welfare. Social religion means an interest in the present welfare of others. The change from one view to the other involves a spiritual uplift that would make every old sermon unfit for present use. It is a time for burning bridges and for blazing new trails. When the convert gets his hearing, he is in another world and can express his feelings only with new words and ideas. So, also, is it with the change from a political to a social democracy. It is a conversion not an argument. New enthusiasms arise; men lose interest in charters of democracy or in the mechanism of government, and begin to think in terms of social programs and city budgets. The change influences every thought and emotion; once begun there is no end until the social transformation is complete.

So large a change cannot yet be described in words, and yet its leading thought can be clearly stated. The fundamental question in the old political philosophy was: What are my rights? In the new social philosophy, it is: What is my responsibility? The old thought set up political postulates and accepted all the conclusions that could be drawn from them. Men made "charters" and tried to live up to them regardless of results. The new thought asks for the *consequences* of acts and accepts the responsibility they impose. It never occurred to the old time democrat to ask of the consequences of his principles. He boldly attached them to his banner and let happen what would. It is a wrench to pull down such banners and to stow them away in a museum, but it is an act of penance that every one must perform who becomes aware of twentieth century realities.

This change from political to social thought can be made clear by a quotation and a contrast. Mr. Reynolds gives the following as the summation of his standard bearer's philosophy. "All constitutions, those of the states no less than that of the nation, are designed and must be interpreted and administered so as to fit human rights." This has a familiar ring, but it is not a social mode of expression. The new thought would run more like this: *All constitutions should be so interpreted and all laws administered so as to increase industrial efficiency and to determine social responsibility.* The difference is that the one

¹See *THE SURVEY*, March 9, 1912, page 1901.

sets up arbitrary standards and lets follow what will; the other tests everything by the consequences that flow from it. Political judgments are *pre-judgments*, while social judgments are *post-judgments*. The one puts in the foreground "rights" and "causes," while the other makes emphatic "consequences" and "responsibility."

A social program must meet five tests: Does it make for peace; does it increase prosperity; does it make men tolerant; does it increase co-operation; does it lead to an evolution? On the other hand, it must avoid five evils: war, distress, dogmatism, struggle, and revolution. The old political philosophy has never avoided these evils. Distress, dogmatism, and revolution have ever followed its dominance. And the reason is plain. It emphasizes rights and ignores consequences. Its decisions are based on present feelings and not on future results. Every alteration in dominant *passions* leads straight to political revolution. New policies do not embody nor grow out of the results of preceding epochs, but are the expression of some untried political dogma. Men wipe out the past instead of profiting by its lessons.

The doctrine of the recall is the final form of this old philosophy because it emphasizes the irresponsibility for results that characterizes revolution. Were it merely the basis of a political philosophy, we might ignore it as a passing whim. Under other names, the same thought is undermining the stability of moral, social, and industrial life. Ellen Key is advocating a marriage recall to free people from their family pledges, while Bernard Shaw is desirous of employing a moral recall to get rid of the rigidity of the decalogue. Some people are also upholding a word-of-honor recall to get rid of the political promises their leader has made. A recall of contracts would be in line with these precedents. If freedom is a human right, why bother about the consequences of yesterday's acts. Be free, be independent, strike down social responsibility, and the superman will rise to redeem the world.

I put these contrasts strongly, not to settle the merits of the political recall, but to make clear the difference between political and social philosophy. The social man must not merely say "I am right," but must realize that each decision brings with it a series of consequences from which there is no recall and for which he is responsible. He must seek to see the end from the beginning and think in terms, not of antecedents, but of consequences. When political programs get into this form, campaign orators will have something of interest for social workers, but, until then, let them stick to their own tasks. We should make people more conscious of their responsibilities, not teach them to "recall" those they now admit.

SIMON N. PATTEN.

[University of Pennsylvania.]
Philadelphia.

THE RIGHTS OF MAN AGAIN

TO THE EDITOR:

Strange events are taking place in America these days! In Massachusetts—the state of Sam Adams, James Otis, and John Hancock, by the way—a strike leader is arrested, refused a writ of *habeas corpus*, and held indefinitely without bail because a murder is committed by somebody unknown in the same town where the leader is working—this not more than twenty-four hours after his delivery of an impassioned speech of exhortation to his followers! Fathers and mothers, desiring to send their children to comrades in other states for safe keeping during the stress of a strike, are assaulted, clubbed, and imprisoned, and their children taken violently from their hands! A college professor, addressing strikers with words of sympathy and counsel, is publicly rebuked and her dismissal from her chair demanded!

In New Jersey, a body of strikers is refused the right of free speech and peaceable assembly either in public squares or in private buildings.

In California, city ordinances are enacted against street speaking; strikers are corralled like so many head of cattle and railroaded out of the county; an editor who dares to champion the right of free speech is kidnapped and threatened with assassination, and hundreds of Industrial Workers of the World are forced to kiss the flag and sing The Star Spangled Banner, while being forcibly marched out of town!

Now the strikers of Lawrence (Mass.) and their chosen leaders may have deserved or not deserved our sympathy and approval. The employes in the New Jersey silk mills may be justified or unjustified in their present revolt. The Industrial Workers in California may be dangerous or not dangerous to the stability of our civilization. All these issues, important as they are in themselves, sink into utter insignificance when compared with the supreme question of the maintenance of those fundamental rights of man which have been won to humanity by centuries of battle and bloodshed. It would seem to be an elementary, not to say a traditional, principle of American life, that all men, regardless of race, color, or creed—whether conservatives or radicals, stand-patters or progressives, reactionaries or revolutionists, trades-unionists, socialists, anarchists, or "direct actionists"—should have the right to think freely, to speak freely, to assemble freely, and to further their causes, whatever they may be, by any methods of activity which are not subversive of law and order, nor destructive of the equal rights of other men. But this is apparently being denied today to the aggressive minority, just as it was denied in the anti-slavery days, and just as it has always been denied when the exercise of such rights has seemed to threaten the privileges of those who control the dominant interests of society. History repeats itself, in that the champion of discon-

tent and change, whether wise or unwise, is again having his cause sanctified by its identification, at the hands of his enemies, with the fundamental ideals of human freedom!

In the face of the perpetration of such shameful acts as these, by respectable citizens who claim to represent "the moral sentiment of the community"—the "broad-cloth mobs" as Wendell Phillips used to call them—one thing is to be said with emphasis, that this denial of human rights constitutes the worst kind of anarchy, and that the men responsible are more dangerous enemies of our American democracy than any man who swings a torch or plants a bomb. The latter does nothing but destroy a little property and perhaps take a few lives; the former strikes at the very heart of the social organism itself. As John Graham Brooks has said, in reference to the *Boston Transcript's* demand for Prof. Scudder's dismissal because of her Lawrence speech: "The suggestion that anyone, because of a speech like this, should resign her position strikes me as far more disheartening and sinister than any I. W. W. utterance I have heard in Lawrence or am likely to hear."

It would be well if all social workers, whether conservative or radical in opinion, would watch carefully the drift of events in this critical period of American history. It is altogether probable that today, as in the abolition days, the champions of reform will find it suddenly necessary to become the defenders once again of nothing less than the common rights of man. If worse comes to worst, let them not be slow to see the signs of the times, and to answer the challenge of the hour!

JOHN HAYNES HOLMES.

[Minister Church of the Messiah.]

New York.

THE FAMILY DOCTOR

TO THE EDITOR:

No one applauds more sincerely than I much of what Dr. William H. Welch writes in *THE SURVEY*.¹ The other side should also be heard. The rank and file of the profession, who practice among the people, must be all-around practitioners, so far as may be. Above everything this is desirable; indeed, it is essential that these physicians should have the best available working knowledge of their art. I claim now, as frequently heretofore, that this information can only be acquired through general practice outside hospitals, in which all sorts and conditions of patients are taken care of, provided the original ground-work such men have had is that of best hospital training. No mere science, no matter how perfected, ever taught the sort of medical insight and usefulness which results ultimately from lifelong service against disease, as it manifests itself to the eye of devotion in daily watching and doing for private patients, and often, also, friends.

¹THE SURVEY, February 17, 1912.

In Boston a few days since, the Nestor of our profession, Dr. A. Jacobi, spoke as follows: "There are few left of the species called family physician. Mind what I say: In twenty-five years he will recover the place of honor which was his fifty years ago. He will again be the general adviser, having learned from the laboratory men and the specialists, who are the modern handmaids of practical medicine; knowing the history of his trusting friends and taking an interest in their wholeness and wholesomeness."¹

The editor of the journal from which my quotation is taken writes: "His words [Jacobi's] have in them much that may be pondered to advantage by the laity, by social workers, and by physicians as well."

As further proof of the value of my judgment, I take the following from Dr. L. D. Edsall's late address in Boston before the Æsculapian Club, on the Clinician, the Hospital, and the Medical School:

"While the life of the teacher and investigator usually increases his value as an adviser in difficult and invaluable problems, it often decreases his skill in carrying out the home details of family practice, because it takes his time and thoughts away from these; and devotion to practice makes a man similarly unfit for exacting teaching and investigative work." There is and can be no doubt that we want a small additional number of pure scientists, in a way; we also require, and more and more, as I firmly believe, a large number of "all-around practitioners."

BEVERLEY ROBINSON, M.D.

New York.

THE LIVING WAGE

TO THE EDITOR:

The movement for the determination and establishment of a minimum living wage is inspired by a sentiment of a highly humane character but, like many other similar movements, it deals only with surface conditions of a highly variable nature.

An important phase of the question is the fact that any given number of dollars whose purchasing power may be such today as to represent a satisfactory minimum living wage, may not at all represent it tomorrow because of the constant and, under our present absurd methods of valuation, apparently unending increase in the price of commodities. This would obviously necessitate corresponding increases in the amount of the wage, or else the desired relief would not be permanently realized. The theory that an increase in the production of the basis of our currency, gold, is the cause of the rise in prices is only tenable when wages are equally affected. What the laborer is concerned with is not the purchasing power of a dollar but the purchasing power of his day's work.

The present unrest is justly due to the fact that a discrimination is being exercised against labor and in favor of commodities, so that the price of the latter increases faster

¹*Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*, February 17, 1912.

than that of the former. When we consider the fact that the difference accrues to the trading class, we can see that the wage earner remains poor simply because the labor which produced the commodities which he purchases with his wages is not at all commensurate, when measured by a common denominator, with the labor which he has performed in order to earn the wage.

It is generally the case, therefore, that the wage earner is forced to strike for higher wages, not because of any change in the conditions between his employer and himself but simply because in other lines of effort, principally those producing the commoner necessities of life, prices have been so inflated as to actually and seriously deflate his own wages.

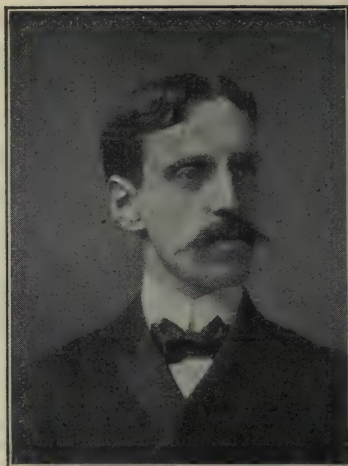
The first effect of this process is to restrict the worker's purchases of his simple luxuries, thus deadening the business of their production and distribution, and the second is to interfere with the smooth working of the business in which he is directly engaged. It would seem, therefore, to be evident that employers in these lines should, in self defense, bring an effective influence to bear upon the distributors even more than the producers of the necessities and simpler luxuries of life in order to modify the wasteful methods and inordinate inflation of selling prices which, as can be demonstrated, are at the root of our industrial difficulties.

H. F. STIMPSON.

New York.

PERSONALS

Samuel McCune Lindsay, at the end of the present academic year, will retire from the position as administrative head of the New York School of Philanthropy, which he has held since March, 1907, remaining, however, an active member of the teaching staff. The School of Philanthropy is one of the important activities of the Charity Organization Society and it is announced that Edward T. Devine, editor of *THE SURVEY*, general secretary of the society since 1896, and former director of the school, will be relieved of his duties as general secretary and transferred to the position as director of the school, which is made vacant by Dr. Lindsay's resignation. Although Dr. Devine will continue to act as secretary of the Central Council, and may be called upon to represent the society as one of its general officers, the responsibility for the conduct of the central and district offices will devolve upon W. Frank Persons, who has been superintendent and is now to become director of general work. This reassignment of duties does not of course affect the society's Department for the Improvement of Social Conditions, which includes the work of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis, the Tenement House Committee, and the Committee on Criminal Courts, of which



SAMUEL M. LINDSAY.

department Lawrence Veiller is the director.

Dr. Lindsay's courses in the School of Philanthropy will deal principally with labor legislation and the administration of labor laws. He will also give valuable assistance in the direction of the advanced work of second year students. The time to be released by his withdrawal from administration of the school will be devoted to additional work which he has undertaken in Columbia University, where he has been professor of social legislation for the past five years. As president of the Academy of Political Science, as president of the New York Branch of the American Association for Labor Legislation, and as vice-chairman of the National Child Labor Committee, Dr. Lindsay is also doing the full duty of a public-spirited citizen.

The appointment of Julia C. Lathrop by President Taft to be chief of the recently created Children's Bureau of the federal government is a signal recognition of rarely efficient service in official and volunteer undertakings for social advance. Miss Lathrop's father was Former Congressman William Lathrop, one of the best known lawyers in northern Illinois, and it was from her family home in Rockford that in 1890 she joined Miss Addams at Hull House. She had graduated from Vassar, and in passing, it should be noted that only recently the alumnae elected her to the board of trustees.

Early in Miss Lathrop's residence at Hull House, she exemplified that co-operation between public-spirited citizens and official agencies in the development of which in Chicago and Illinois her tact, intelligence, and ability have played so important a part. She received an appointment from the Cook county agent as a volunteer county visitor, all cases within ten blocks of the settlement being given to her for investigation. Miss Addams has pointed out, in Twenty Years at Hull House, that "the county commission-

ers were at first dubious of the value of such a visitor and predicted that a woman would be a perfect 'coal chute' for giving away county supplies, but they gradually came to depend upon her suggestions and advice." Her intimate knowledge of the people of the neighborhood and her practical methods of service in this first work, were characteristic.

The new federal official has served twelve years as a member of the Illinois State Board of Charities. She was appointed first in 1893 by Governor Altgeld, being reappointed by Governors Tanner and Yates.

In 1901, during the latter's administration, she resigned as a protest against the political exploitation of the state institutions. In 1905, Miss Lathrop was again appointed to the board, this time by Governor Deneen, and serving until 1909. At the very beginning of her membership she sought to live up to a well-nigh impossible law requiring members to visit once a year all the county poorhouses and jails throughout the state. If the effect of the "new broom" did not result in a sudden transformation of conditions, it started a campaign of education for the people of Illinois through Miss Lathrop's plain statement of the facts with refer-

ence to dependent and neglected children in these institutions, and her picture of sanitary and other conditions. The vigor with which she brought enlightenment to the women's clubs stirred them to an active part in the successful effort for a state civil service law for the state institutions. Her political far-sightedness was shown by the clearness with which she saw how effective the resignations of herself and Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch would prove in the struggle to prevent political interference in the management of state institutions.

As a member of the state board, she was one of the group of people representing various agencies which co-operated in devising and carrying through the legislation creating

juvenile courts in Illinois, the first in the country. From its beginning she has been alert to the dangers which have threatened it, and conscientious in working for its success and the efficiency of its probation service.

Problems affecting the insane have received her devoted attention ever since her membership on the State Board of Charities brought her into contact with the victims of this terrible and little understood affliction. Through her efforts for a higher standard of hospital care for the insane, and her organization of the Illinois Society for Men-

tal Hygiene, of which she is president, she has been in the forefront of those who are pioneering the way toward prevention.

As vice-president of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy and a member of its staff of instruction, she has done her most important work of recent years. Her broad interest and share in the training which this school extends to those preparing for social and civic work has gone beyond the immediate circle of students who come to the school, and she has sought to spread its advantages to the attendants and others in the



JULIA C. LATHROP.

civil service of public institutions. A course in occupations which she suggested and planned to train attendants in hospitals for the insane has been notably successful. Not only Illinois but several other states were glad to send attendants to enroll in this course.

When inquiries were made of Miss Addams and Julius Rosenwald as to Miss Lathrop's availability and qualifications to serve as chief of the Children's Bureau, they united in signing a telegram which, among other things, said:

"We cannot conceive of a more ideal appointment, considering executive ability, sympathy, deliberate, sane judgment combined with years of experience . . . In our opinion woman's ability could have no

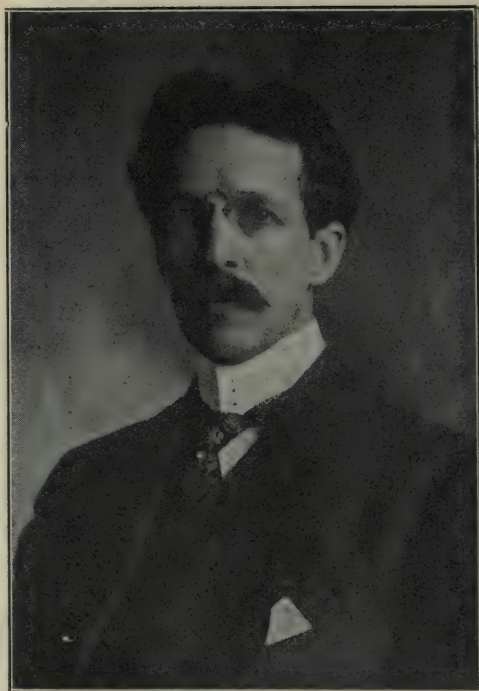
better demonstration than would result from her appointment." G. R. T.

Charles F. Weller has resigned as general secretary of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities to take effect July 1. The forces of opposition which for ten years prevented the organization of that body, reasserted themselves once it was started. Administrative policies have been the subject of change, and the situation has been aggravated by a campaign of discredited personal attack against the executive officer who had undertaken the pioneer work of lodging the society as a recognized factor in the community life. In shouldering this criticism and resigning, Mr. Weller has challenged the philanthropic leaders of Pittsburgh to drop factionalism and personal feeling in a concerted forward movement for the principles for which the society stands.

Mr. Weller has served the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh as general secretary since its organization in the spring and summer of 1908. In considering the task which confronted him it should be first remembered that Pittsburgh was the last of the metropolitan cities to organize an associated charities. All the others had their central family rehabilitation societies long before the present host of special agencies came into existence. In Pittsburgh the reverse was true. When in the spring of 1908 organization was definitely effected, almost every other social activity of present day importance was represented by local organizations. Some of these viewed the movement with favor, some with disfavor. As a co-ordinating and co-operating center, it had to press its way into an apparently well-knit fabric of philanthropic effort, which after all was not well knit but exceedingly ill-jointed, often re-acting most disastrously upon the welfare of individual families.

Mr. Weller has won the fight for the recognition of proper standards of family rehabilitation in Pittsburgh and in doing so has won the most difficult engagement of his professional career. Not that the standards have been definitely attained but that once for all there is no possibility of any large intelligent group of Pittsburgh people now holding for one moment that an associated charities has no other co-ordinating function to perform than that of investigation and registration. High grade personal service is slowly coming to its own in the field of work with families.

It may surprise many that the development of the Pittsburgh Central Council, the first of its kind, is not given first place in such a review. This is a representative body embracing the majority of the philanthropic organizations of the city. Under Mr. Weller's regime, it has carried on remarkably successful educational campaigns in the child-helping and public health fields. It is true that this has led already to certain practical developments. It has pointed out the way for other cities to stumble and strive towards



CHARLES F. WELLER.

essential unity of purpose and combined plans, the greatest need now in the general social field.

Yet other cities are experimenting in these directions and some have gone further already than Pittsburgh. But Mr. Weller, with the loyal support of many directors and other volunteers, has brought into a great city of 600,000 the ideals of thorough family rehabilitation without which the work of every single agency in Pittsburgh has been and would be terribly handicapped, to say nothing of the toll of dwarfed and stunted lives and homes. This is his greatest service to Pittsburgh, accomplished against overwhelming odds.

F. M. McL.

Abbas Effendi, called Abdul Baha, which means Servant of God, leader of the Bahai movement, arrived in America recently. He is to speak, among other places, at the Lake Mohonk Peace Conference. The Bahai movement started in Persia in 1844 and has drawn to itself about 3,000,000 people of every race and creed. No one is asked to give up his own form of religion. Its one tenet is "unity through love." The greatest cause of war and dissension is due to religious differences. Bahao'llah, the founder of this movement, declared that religions at their heart are one—one God, one humanity, one

Information and literature may be obtained free from the Bahai Librarian, 226 West 58 street, New York.



ABDUL BAHÁ.

evolution. At the home of Abdul Baha in Acca, Syria, pilgrims of all races and creeds have broken bread together and have gone back home to preach and live this new idea of the solidarity of the race.

The practical aim of the Bahai movement is to furnish to the world a personal leader and a framework for unified action which shall express the best in all systems of reform and antagonize none. Its adherents advocate the fatherhood of God, the brotherhood of man, universal peace; dream of universal suffrage and a world center of government; join in all humanitarian, hygienic, and economic reforms; emphasize education and the equality of the sexes. Abdul Baha says: "The education of the girl is more useful than that of the boy, for in time these girls will become mothers. The first educator of the child—is it not the mother?"

Wherever a Bahai center has been formed, there has been a new spirit and a new impetus to progress. Thirty years ago a book called the Mysterious Forces of Civilization, by a Bahai Philosopher, had a commanding influence in educating toward constitutional government in Persia. In the recent developments, one of Shuster's chief supports were the women of Persia, who are coming out of their ignorance and seclusion through the teaching and example of the Bahai monogamous homes in their midst. But it is courting martyrdom to be known as a Bahai or progressive in the Orient. Bahais do not label as theirs the schools and hospitals they establish. But they are back of or within every progressive movement. They are responsible for the Persian-American Educational Society, the Orient-Occident Unity Society, and the Tarbiat Schools for both boys and girls in Teheran, Persia. American men and women are quietly going out into Bahai oriental centers, carrying education and the message of freedom. Their influence goes far because they become one with their surroundings and have no missionary label. The

Bahai movement is a leavening movement, not an organization. Bahais by thousands, unlabelled, are pushing the various peace organizations of different countries.

While in London and Paris last fall, Abdul Baha received by appointment many who sought him. Similar opportunity will be given when he reaches New York and Chicago. Scientists and men of affairs who have met him marvel at his wisdom and common-sense knowledge of world conditions, questioning how he can meet them on their own level when he has been a political prisoner for forty years.

IRENE EARLE.

JOTTING

THE RUSSIAN PLAY

The Shepherd, Olive Tilford Dargan's portrayal of the revolutionary movement in Russia which has struck fire on New York's East Side, is to be given another presentation by the dramatic society of the Nurses' Settlement, Sunday, April 27, at 3 p. m., at Clinton Hall.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

APRIL AND MAY CONFERENCES.

- ARTS.** American Federation of, Washington, D. C., May 9-12. Sec'y, F. D. Millet, 1741 New York Ave., Washington, D. C.
- BABY SHOW AND CONFERENCE.** Philadelphia, Pa., May 19-26. Information may be secured from Joseph S. Neff, Director, Department of Health and Charities, Philadelphia.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.** First Arkansas State Conference of, Little Rock, Ark., May 16-17. Information may be secured from the United Charities Association, Little Rock.
- New Hampshire State Conference of.** Laconia, April 30. Sec'y, Mrs. James W. Remick, 80 School St., Concord.
- Semi-annual Meeting of Colorado Conference of.** Denver, Colo., May 14. Sec'y., William Thomas, Capitol Bldg., Denver.
- Third New York City Conference of.** New York, May 7-9. Sec'y., John B. Prest, 287 Fourth Ave., New York.
- CHILD-HELPING CONFERENCE,** Lehigh Valley. Mauch Chunk, Pa., May 11.
- CHILD LABOR,** West Virginia Committee on. Wheeling, April 29. Sec'y., Nola McKinley, Fairmont.
- CITY PLANNING,** National Conference on. Boston, Mass., May 27-29. Sec'y., Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress st., Boston, Mass.
- COLORED PEOPLE,** National Association for Advancement of. Chicago, Ill., April 28-30. Sec'y-treas., T. W. Allison, 701 W. 14th Place, Chicago.
- KINDERGARTEN UNION,** International. Des Moines, Ia., April 30-May 3. Corres. Sec'y., Luella A. Palmer, 235 East 18 St., New York.
- MEDICINE,** American Academy of. Atlantic City, N. J., May 31-June 2. Sec'y., Charles McIntire, M.D., Easton, Pa.
- RED CROSS CONFERENCE,** Ninth International. Washington, D. C., May 7-17. Information may be secured from the American Red Cross, Washington, D. C.
- SOCIOLOGICAL CONGRESS,** Southern. Nashville, Tenn., May 7-10. Sec'y., temporary exec. com., J. E. McCulloch, Nashville.

TUBERCULOSIS, Canadian Association for the Prevention of, Toronto, Ont., May 20-21. Sec'y., George D. Porter, Bank St. Chambers, Ottawa, Ont.

National Association for the Study and Prevention of, Washington, D. C., May 30-31. Sec'y., Dr. Livingston Farrand, 105 East 22 St., New York.

WOMEN'S CLUBS, New Jersey State Federation of, Montclair, May 10, 11. Corres. officer, Mrs. Howard C. Warren, Princeton.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION, Pacific Coast General, Hacienda, Pleasanton, Cal., May 17-27. Sec'y., Louise W. Brooks, 125 East 27 St., New York.

LATER MEETINGS.

International.

BATHS AND SCHOOL BATHS, International Conference on People's, Scheveningen, (The Hague), last week in August. Gen. Sec'y., A. M. Douwes Dekker, The Hague.

CHEMISTRY, Congress on Applied, Washington, D. C., Sept. 6-13. Sec'y., Bernard C. Hesse, M.D., 25 Broad St., New York.

EUGENICIES, First International Congress on, London, Eng., July 24-30. Information may be secured from Hon.-Sec'y., Eugenics Education Society, 6, York Bldgs., Adelphi, London.

HYGIENE AND DEMOGRAPHY, Fifteenth Congress on, Washington, D. C., Sept. 23-28. Sec'y., Dr. John S. Fulton, Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C.

LABOR LEGISLATION, Association for, Zurich, Switzerland, Sept. 10-12. Sec'y., Stephen Bauer, Basel, Switzerland.

PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial, London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y., F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

RELIEF, Committee on Public and Private, London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y., Charles S. Loch, Charity Organization Society, London, Eng.

SCHOOL HYGIENE CONGRESS, Fourth International, Buffalo, N. Y., August 25-30, 1913. Sec'y.-Gen., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, Convent Ave. and 139 St., New York.

UNEMPLOYMENT, International Association for Fight against, Ghent, Belgium, 1913. Amer. corres. officer, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

National.

BLIND, American Association of Instruction for the, Pittsburgh, Pa., June 25-28. Corres. Sec'y., W. B. Walt, New York School for the Blind, New York.

BOYS' CLUBS, Federated, Cleveland, O., June 11-12. Sec'y., George N. Putnam, 35 Congress St., Boston, Mass.

CHARITIES, National Conference of Catholic, Washington, D. C., Sept. 22-26. Sec'y., Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

National Conference of Jewish, Cleveland, O., June 9-12. Sec'y., Rose Sommerfeld, 225 E. 63 St., New York.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, National Conference of, Cleveland, O., June 12-19. Sec'y., Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.

CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE, Semi-annual meeting of Commission on, of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, Cleveland, O., June. Sec'y., Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave., New York.

DEPENDENT, TRUANT, BACKWARD AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN, National Conference on Education of, Cleveland, O., June 10-12. Sec'y., Elmer L. Coffeen, Westboro, Mass.

EPILEPSY AND CARE AND TREATMENT OF EPILEPTICS, National Association for Study of, Vine-land, N. J., June 3. Sec'y., J. F. Munson, Sonyea, N. Y.

FLORENCE CRITTENTON MISSION, Twenty-ninth Annual Convention of the National, Chicago, Ill., June 5-7. Sec'y., Mrs. Emma L. Robertson, 307 C. St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

INDUSTRIAL DISEASES, Second National Conference on, Atlantic City, N. J., June 3-5. Sec'y., John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

INFANT MORTALITY, American Association for Study and Prevention of, Cleveland, O., Oct. 2-5. Exec.-Sec'y., Gertrude B. Knipp, Medical and Chirurgical Faculty Bldg., 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

MEDICAL ASSOCIATION, American, Atlantic City, N. J., June 4-7. Sec'y., Alexander R. Craig, M.D., 535 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENTS, American Society of, Dallas, Texas, Nov. 12-16. Sec'y., A. Prescott Folwell, 50 Union Square, New York.

NURSES, American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for, Chicago, Ill., June 3-6. Sec'y., Jessie E. Cotton, Springfield Hospital, Springfield, Mass.

NURSES' ASSOCIATION, American, Chicago, Ill., June 5-7. Sec'y., Agnes G. Deans, 247 Hancock Ave., West, Detroit, Mich.

ORGANIZING CHARITY, American Association of Societies for, Cleveland, O., June. Sec'y., Francis H. McLean, 105 East 22 St., New York.

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA, Cleveland, O., June 5-8. Sec'y., H. S. Braucher, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

PROBATION ASSOCIATION, National, Cleveland, O., June 11-19. Sec'y., Arthur W. Towne, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION, American, Washington, D. C., September 18-20. Sec'y., Selskar M. Gunn, 289 Fourth Ave., New York.

PUBLIC RELIEF OFFICIALS, National Association of, Cleveland, O., June 12, and Warrensville, O., June 15. Sec'y., H. H. Shirer, State Board of Charities, Columbus, O.

RED CROSS, The American, Washington, D. C., December. Information may be secured from Secretary Charles L. Magee, Washington, D. C.

SETTLEMENTS, National Federation of, Cleveland, O., June. Sec'y., Robert A. Woods, South End House, Boston, Mass.

REMEDIAL LOAN ASSOCIATIONS, National Federation of, Cleveland, O., probably June 13-14. Sec'y., J. T. Exniclos, 914 G. st., N. W., Washington, D. C.

WOMEN'S CLUBS, General Federation of, San Francisco, Cal., June 25-July 8. Corres. Sec'y., Mrs. Frank Shiek, Wheatland, Wyo.

Sectional.

CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION, Young Women's, Southern General, Blue Ridge, N. C., June 5-15.

Southwestern General, Monte Ne, Ark., June 14-24.

Northwest General, Gearhart Park, Ore., June 25-July 3.

Western General, Cascade, Colo., June 21-July 1.

Eastern Student, Silver Bay, Lake George, N. Y., June 21-July 1.

East Central Student, Eagles Mere, Pa., June 25-July 5.

Eastern City, Silver Bay, Lake George, N. Y., July 2-12.

Central City, Williams Bay, Wis., August 13-22.

Central Student, Williams Bay, Wis., August 23-Sept. 2.

State and Local.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Massachusetts State Conference of, Place not chosen. Autumn. Sec'y., Parker B. Field, 229 Tremont St., Boston.

Ohio State Conference of, Cleveland, O., June, 12-13. Sec'y., H. H. Shirer, Board of State Charities, Columbus, Ohio.

CHILD WELFARE CONFERENCE AND EXHIBIT, Kentucky, Louisville, Nov. 18-23. Sec'y., Miss Zachert, Free Public Library, Louisville.

NO-LICENSE LEAGUE, Massachusetts, Boston, Oct. 29. Sec'y., Robert H. Magwood, 310 Equitable Bldg., Boston.

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THE

WEEK OF MAY 4, 1912

SURVEY

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY



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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

FATIGUE AND EFFICIENCY

Courts and legislatures, wage-earners and employers, will find themselves under great and lasting obligations to Josephine Goldmark and to the Russell Sage Foundation for the volume which bears the above title and is about to be issued from the press of the Charities Publication Committee. A few selected paragraphs in this number of *THE SURVEY* will suggest its quality but should not take the place of a careful reading and study of the book itself. The subtitle is *A Study in Industry*. In effect it is a study of workers under the strain of industry. The word *Efficiency* in the main title of the volume may mislead the unwary. For, except incidentally, this is not a discussion of endurance as bearing on output or cost of manufacture. The central object of interest is the effect of overwork on the workers.

Nearly five years Miss Goldmark has devoted uninterruptedly to an inquiry into the physiological and economic effects of overwork as it actually appears in modern industry, especially in those occupations in which women are engaged. There have been earlier first fruits of her labor in four briefs filed in various courts by Louis D. Brandeis in defense of laws limiting the hours of work of women. These briefs appear as part two of the present volume. For part one the author has thoroughly assimilated the large amount of material which she has collected and presents in an admirably clear and convincing way a well-rounded discussion of the whole subject, the first so far as we are aware in English, and, for the practical use of lawgivers, probably the best in any language. What physiology and medical practice have to say of the real nature of fatigue, of the conditions which cause it, of the temporary and the permanent effects of it, of its injury to the race and to future generations, is rightly made the starting point. The appreciative preface by Dr. Frederic S. Lee, professor of physiology in the College of Physicians and Surgeons of Columbia University, gives ample assurance, if that were necessary, that this part of the discussion is worthy of full confidence. These opening chapters steer a middle course between technical and popular presentation. They are not too technical for the lay reader and yet they go far enough into the subject to make reasonably clear just what it is that happens when the poisoning of the system by the fatigue toxin begins, and why the injury proceeds by a sort of geometric ratio when the muscular and nervous strain is pushed beyond the breaking point. The normal curve of the rise and fall of working capacity is shown and the vast consequences resulting from the interference with this normal curve by nervous fatigue—the increased capacity which means working on the nerves. The effects of the roaring noise of machinery, of the imposition of the rigid rhythm of the machine on the pliable human system, of the abuses of piece-work, and of the failure of attention when superhuman demands are made upon human beings, increasing the liability to accidents, are among the specific subjects on which Miss Goldmark's studies give us definite and invaluable information. Concretely, there is presented a rapid but searching examination of the telephone service, the great women-employing needle and textile and shoe

trades, and the canneries. Then follows a study of the relation of overwork to infant mortality, the birth rate, and race degeneration. Meagerness of reliable statistical data at home compels the author to turn to other countries for definite proof of the causal connection between industrial strain and specific diseases. Even in Europe such evidence is still rather chaotic and incomplete but the records and experiences of German insurance societies throw much light on the subject and this light is well focused in the present volume.

Turning to the economic aspects of regulation, Miss Goldmark does well to drag forth the discredited analyses and prophecies of early economists. Senior, for example, triumphantly demonstrated the absolute economic necessity of the last hour of the eleven and a half hours which mill hands were working seventy years ago in England. All of the first ten and a half hours were inexorably required to replace capital and keep the factory at work. If the eleven and a half hours could be increased to thirteen, net profits would be doubled. If they were reduced to ten and a half (prices remaining the same) net profits would absolutely disappear; if to ten, even gross profits would be destroyed. This precious argument, let it be remembered, was not part of a mere academic, hypothetical problem for the logical training of college students, but a powerful element in parliamentary and public discussion, having the practical effect of delaying the reduction of the working day in England. It is on a level with the brilliant suggestion that since fatal railway accidents usually occur in the last coach of the train, the liability to such accidents might be lessened by leaving off the last coach.

Evidence is adduced that the shortening of hours has not had the dire consequences which were predicted. No doubt prices have sometimes advanced, but the great counteracting influence has been the increased efficiency of workers in a shorter day. We cannot pursue the outline into this most interesting and important part of the discussion. The broad distinction between ordinary pace making or speeding and the new science of management is made evident. Speed, developed subject to the capacities of the human agent, is one thing; developed as a driver of those capacities it is another. The machinery of efficiency engineers, divorced from the spirit which makes it a part of a larger human system, may be disastrous. Unscrupulous men may pervert scientific management to a scheme of unparalleled exploitation. Restrained by wise laws, and by an intelligent public opinion of workingmen effectively expressed in organizations through which they can act, it will have substantial benefits to workers, to investors, and to the public.

No lawyer called upon hereafter to advise his business clients about their duty in the matter of obedience to laws regulating the hours of labor should give such advice until he has read this discussion of the physiological and economic effects of fatigue on working people. No state's attorney called upon to defend such a statute can do without it. If judges will read it they will find that it throws more light on this exercise of the police power than anything in the law books. If stockholders and directors will read it their inclination to oppose such legislation, either before or after its enactment, will take wings. If social reformers will read it they will surely be strengthened in their purposes. If workingmen and working women and the parents of working children will read it, and take its lessons to heart, it may not matter so much whether the others read it or not.

THE COMMON WELFARE

CRACKING THE 12-HOUR DAY

The iron law of wages which the economists talk about was never more rigid than the steel law of hours. The most hardy reformers have regarded the twelve-hour day in steel-making, as it has grown up in this country, as well-nigh impregnable. The most courageous managers, who have regarded it as inefficient and intolerable, have despaired of change because the drop in hours from twelve to eight—which is the only alternative in continuous work—involved such heavy financial burdens to employers or such radical reduction in earnings to men.

Yet great seams and cracks have been rent in that seemingly impregnable wall in the last month. It has been one of the vulnerable and anti-social conditions in steel production which have been attacked by John A. Fitch with the facts he has marshalled in his series of articles which concluded in the April 6 issue of *THE SURVEY*. It was the subject of a broadside communication sent out early in April to 15,000 of his fellow stockholders in the United States Steel Corporation by Charles M. Cabot of Boston. At the stockholders' meeting of the Steel Corporation in mid-April the committee, of which Stuyvesant Fish was chairman, definitely committed this, the biggest employing corporation in the country, to a policy of reducing the twelve-hour day (which is now the rule for over one-half its mill workers). The month was not over before one of the largest competitors of the Steel Corporation—the Cambria Steel Company, controlled by the Pennsylvania Railroad—went a stride farther and announced an eight-hour schedule for the continuous operation of its blast furnaces. And finally comes the favorable report by a senate committee on a bill which has already passed the federal House of Representatives, calling for the eight-hour day on all government contract work. The bill, if it becomes law, would control the great orders for

steel shapes supplied the government for battleships, dams, etc. Moreover it illustrates the public temper with respect to prolonged toil in a way which will likely react as a driving force upon such voluntary policies inaugurated by industrial executives as wish to get in line with public opinion. The senate committee report was made by Senator Borah, chairman of the Committee on Education and Labor, and is regarded as one of the most vigorous public utterances of the session.

Many arguments against the unconstitutionality of the bill were made at the public hearings, but the committee holds that there does not seem to be any serious doubt as to the power of congress to pass such a law:

The government has the right to contract, and it would seem that it would have the right to decline to enter into a contract unless the terms of the same are as satisfactory to it as to any contracting party.

In the view of the committee, then, the question at issue is simply the desirability of the measure, to be judged on the probable social and economic effects of an eight-hour day. On this question the committee seems fully to have made up its mind. It recognizes that there may be inconvenience about establishing an eight-hour day and that possibly greater expense to the government may ensue;

But these things we believe are to be considered as of minor importance compared to the general benefit to be derived from an eight-hour day for laborers. We believe it means better work, better citizens, and in the end far better for society.

The evidence gathered and the facts at hand lead us to believe that the approach of a general eight-hour day of labor has no blight to cast on the economic prosperity either of the working class or of the nation at large, while it will be certain to contribute greatly to the moral and social elevation of both.

The report takes the ground that it would be better for an eight-hour day to come without legislation, since conditions in each industry could then be considered, and more flexible rules established

than are possible in legislation necessarily general. But on account of the failure of employers to take action voluntarily, legislation is necessary. It appears to the committee to be necessary not only to afford protection to the workers, but also to protect those employers who have adopted a shorter workday from the unfair competition of those who have not:

Too much cannot be said in favor or in commendation of many of the employers of labor in this country for the manner in which they have come to treat their employes—the improved sanitary conditions and the voluntary shortening of the hours. But what they voluntarily do others equally able to do refuse to do. It follows, therefore, that these individual employers seeking to better conditions are loaded with an extra burden which they ought not to bear.

STEEL INDUSTRY AN EXAMPLE

The report quotes from the federal Bureau of Labor report on the steel industry, which found that in 1910 29 per cent of the 173,000 steel workers covered by the report were working seven days a week, and over 60 per cent were working twelve hours a day. The committee report comments on these facts as follows:

According to the dividends paid, as shown by the reports of the United States Steel Corporation, there was certainly little reason for this exacting service. Every right-thinking American citizen must take pride in the prosperity and the success of our business concerns, as their prosperity is indispensable to the success and the prosperity of the people generally. But when such enormous wealth is amassed, partly, at least, through such a cruel and brutal system of industrial slavery this government is bound in its own defense, for its citizenship is its life, to interpose between the strong and the weak and exert its influence both moral and legal to rescue its citizenship from such conditions. No man can meet the obligations and discharge the duties of citizenship in a free government who is broken in spirit and racked in body through such industrial peonage. Even in the strength of his early manhood he has not the opportunity or time to prepare himself for the duties of citizenship, and before he has reached the prime of life under such conditions, sodden in mind and broken in health he is cast off as a useless hulk—a burden and a curse to society and a menace to the government. It is just as much the duty of the government, when it can do so, to protect its citizens from such outrageous treatment as it

is to protect a citizen from the burglar or the highwayman. Everyone knows and everyone is willing to discuss what the duty and obligations of the citizen are toward the government. But one of the propositions which can no longer be postponed in this country is: What is the duty of the government toward the citizen? If these laws regulating the hours of labor come, therefore, they come not simply because laboring men ask for them; they come because conditions in the industrial world make it impossible to ignore that request.

"THE CHRIST-ANSWER TO THE CRY OF THE CITY"

That the gospel of reform preached by the present-day social worker has been made orthodox in the Protestant churches of America, has become at last a dogma in the Christian faith, was the portentous way in which Professor Walter C. Rauschenbusch of Rochester Theological Seminary last week summarized the achievement of the Men and Religion Forward Movement. Following the four-day local campaign in Greater New York¹ the threads of the winter's work of this movement were gathered together in a National Conservation Congress. From April 19 to 24 Carnegie Hall was filled three times each day with militant preachers and laymen who came from all parts of the country to arouse the forces of organized religion to fresh grappling with the tasks confronting them. Though criticism of the church was unsparing, the sins of "leaving undone" being those most often brought to the confessional, there was no note of faltering or loss of hope.

At different sessions the congress took up each of the major subjects of the Men and Religion Movement. Reports were read by commissions dealing separately with boys' work, evangelism, the rural church, missions, Bible study, Christian unity, and social service. In each case it was the aim to present the findings and recommendations of the whole movement. In revised form these reports will be published later on together with the platform addresses of the congress.

The feature of Tuesday morning's session, devoted exclusively to the social service theme, was the searching address

¹See THE SURVEY, April 27, p. 155.

on *The Church and the Social Evil* by Jane Addams of Hull House, published in full on page 195 of this issue. Hers was the only address by a woman at this conference of men, but hers was not the only address in which the boundlessness of human obligation was emphasized. Sessions on other topics heard similar notes struck. John Mitchell, former president of the United Mine Workers of America, with the cries of the Titanic's dead almost ringing in his hearer's ears, recalled that a thousand men had stood back so that women and children might be saved. This, he said, was the rule of the sea! Would that it were the rule of the land also! "Then the movements to protect women and children from exploitation in industry would not be checked and thwarted before the legislatures of America."

So thoroughly emphasized was the note of social service at this national round-up of the strength of Protestantism, that certain rooms and side walls in Carnegie Hall looked like sections from a state charities and correction exhibit. "Information while growing up rather than reformation when grown up," read one banner in the boys' work department. Another represented one aim of the church as giving "vision and progress to municipal authorities regarding the social and moral needs of the people." Statistics of immigration, of the prevalence of saloons, of juvenile delinquency, of women and children in industry, of the amount of preventable disease, and of the extent of bad housing were set forth in legend and device familiar to those who have attended conferences of social workers.

THE "CALL WHICH BROOKS NO REFUSAL"

"To save the world" ran the provisional report of the commission on social service, which crystalized all these promptings in a wide-columned broad sheet that may well become one of the historic documents of religious and social history, here in the United States, "to save the world we are confronted by a double task."

We must learn to serve one by one those to whom our Lord so often referred as "the least of these my brethren," "these little ones," "the last," "the lost." We must try to bring to wholeness persons whose lives are fractional—the sick, the ignorant, the poor and incompetent, the weak in conscience, the impoverished in ideals, the unbelieving. . . . There are certain groups of persons, unhappily, in every community—the victims of the unjust, unmerciful, unfaithful social order under which we live and of their own weaknesses—who specially need this service; these are the unemployed, the maimed, the diseased, the intemperate, the prostitute, the prisoner, and the pauper.

Under the chapter title the Kingdom of God and the Economic Life, the commission made this call upon the church:

In order to preserve the Christian civilization which our fathers built by their sacrifices and in order to carry it forward to fuller perfection, we must work out an order of industry and commerce which shall be at least an approximate expression of the fact that all men are of one great family with one Father, and which shall embody Christ's law of love and sacrifice in the institutions of society. The great awakening of the social conscience warns us that all men are coming under a sense of sin as to our social order and are feeling the craving for something juster and nobler. As Americans, we are humbled and shamed when we find poverty and degradation establishing themselves in permanent form on American soil. As Christians we have a call which brooks no refusal. The mind and heart of the Christian church must from now on address itself to the great constructive task of creating a Christian economic order. If the church lacks boldness or vision for its task it will find itself outstripped and outbid by socialism. . . . As Christians we propose to help all men to a full salvation. But men are not fully saved either in body, intellect or spirit who have to live the driven and joyless lives led by many workmen in the industrial countries. On behalf of the higher life of men we must stand at least for a moderate maximum working day, for a living wage as a minimum, for the protection of childhood and adolescence from exhausting toil, and for such limitation of female labor as will protect the mothers, the homes and the future of the nation.

Turning from the productive side of industry to a phase of distribution the report continues:

We shall have to consider whether it is compatible with the Kingdom of God on earth that a minority of men own the bulk of the soil, the water rights, and the mineral stores, and the great majority of God's children are left with no property rights in what God made for all. We remember that the an-

cient law of Israel was careful to provide every family with land and to prevent the permanent landlessness of any. In some way we must find the economic means of accomplishing the same end in the complexity of an industrial civilization. Religion, morality, history, and statesmanship unite in demanding it.

The commission declared outspokenly that the emancipation of working people must come from the workers themselves and that the organization of labor has come to stay. Taking up home life it declared that proper construction, ventilation and location of the house, a sufficient income, adequate protection and education for children and finally decent family life are among the vital concerns of the church. Says the report:

It is hers to protect and support the home by teaching without fear or shame the law of God in the gospel of Christ concerning the physical and psychological facts which condition true marriage, to promote the proper study of these facts, to demand effective protection of the innocent against disease, to warn against the hasty acceptance of the responsibilities of marriage of the



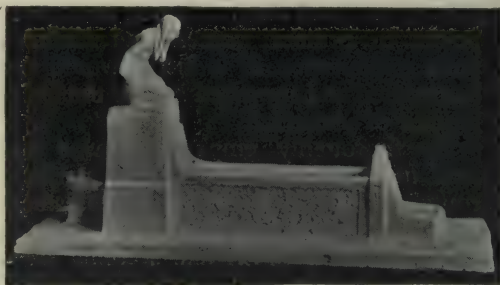
THE SHEPHERD BOY.

very young, the reckless, the defective, the incompetent, to co-operate with all other forces to secure stricter marriage laws throughout the states, made uniform so far as possible, in a word, to protect the home by safeguarding marriage.

That there needs to be a "play evangelism" is the conclusion of the report from its survey of the present recreative life and health of society. It is the church's duty to see that the fullest possible good is derived from athletics, from the drama, from motion pictures and from dancing. The elimination of

communicable disease and of preventable accidents is also laid squarely upon the church's shoulders.

Specific tasks are assigned it in the elevation of civic life. It can urge the appointment of local commissions to survey the conditions surrounding the social evil, it can help bring about the correlation of public relief and private charity, it can urge the provision of playgrounds and recreation centers, it can provide under wholesome conditions some of the conveniences offered by saloons, it can aid in enforcing competent censorship of theaters, it can re-



THE INDIAN.

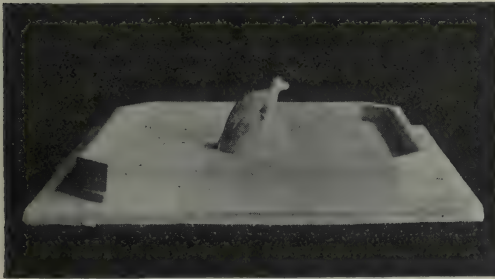
press the evil of dishonest employment bureaus by the establishment of real employment agencies under the direction of municipal authorities, it can initiate the immigrant into the real meaning of good citizenship, it can help to maintain juvenile courts, it can open its buildings as neighborhood centers, it can insist upon proper sanitary inspection of dwellings and other buildings.

Dealing finally with the church as organized for social service the report makes this prophesy:

Religion will either mean a great deal more in America within the next ten years than it has ever meant before, or it will find itself before the end of that time in the way of meaning nothing at all. . . . The test of a political system is in the men it produces. The test of an industrial system is in the men it produces—those who organize the work and those who do the work. The test of a religious system is in the men it produces. The churches are responsible not only for the people gathered in their congregations, but for all the people of the community.

This, then, was the meaning of those

who held that one of the main tasks ahead of the church is to frame "the Christ-answer" to the cry of modern society. Professor Rauschenbusch voiced the feeling of the radical wing of churchmen when, in speaking of the seventy-five campaigns conducted up and down the United States during the past winter, he declared that if the appeal to social service had been left entirely out, the movement would not have left its imprint on a single city. While thus insisting that the methods advocated by the social worker for establishing a larger measure of common welfare had been



THE SEAL.

woven into the texture of the church's program, he prophesied a reactionary movement, a back eddy by men who cling to individual regeneration as the only ideal for the church to set before itself. This must be combatted, and that soon, by those who would conserve the new found spirit.

Professor Rauschenbusch recalled that twenty-five years ago when theological seminaries had nothing to offer on social causes, he knew of but three men who were urging the church into the fight against visible ills—Josiah Strong, Richard T. Ely and Washington Gladden. Dr. Gladden was present with his own testimony that perhaps the church's most deadly mistake has been and still is in taking hold of the little ends instead of the big ends of its task.

It was the big ends of life and labor which the commission on social service put up to the Men and Religion Forward Movement and which it adopted, voicing, in so doing, the gospel which throughout months past the social service campaign leaders have driven home.

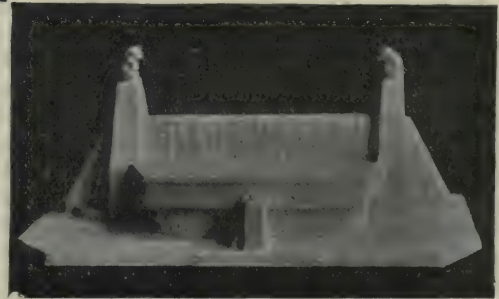
EDITORIAL GRIST

CITY SPRINGS

EDWARD YEOMANS

In *Charities and The Commons* of January 5, 1907, there was published an account and a number of reproductions of labor groups by Charles Haag, a Swedish sculptor, who has recently made Chicago his home. These groups illustrated the unique feeling and strong sympathy of this artist for the heroic qualities of the men and women who form the foundation of society and whose bodies and spirits are subjected to the tremendous pressure of the superimposed social structure.

This is a noble and all too infrequent subject for an artist of power. It has little or no appeal to popular taste in art. Those who usually buy works of art are precisely those who do not wish to be



NIAGARA AND BEAR CUBS.

reminded of the substructure of distorted and unsightly humanity—coarse, crude, and elemental.

Mr. Haag's range is not confined, however, to the sad realism of industrial life. His most recent work in this field, and perhaps his best—the single figure, *Effort*, reproduced on the cover of this issue of *THE SURVEY*—gives distinction to his exhibit at the City Club of Chicago, which will later be shown in New York. But beside it, in plaster models, are some fountains for civic uses. In these Mr. Haag expresses his deep feeling for the need of charm and gentleness to illuminate the sordid barrenness of more or less

congested districts. He would make cities better for children, and if the city cannot be made suitable for children to live in, it cannot be made essentially fit for any one to live in.

Therefore these fountains speak in the beauty of simplicity to the unspoiled imaginations of children. There is something highly nutritive in this kind of municipal art.

Such intimate and charming pastorals as these cannot be outworn, but will stand free and lovable from generation to generation: the shepherd boy playing his pipe, the little playful bears, the meditative eagles, the lithe and shy red Indian, the buffalo drinking at the source, the seal sunning on the rock—nursery rhymes or forest mysteries full of dreams and music.

Can these things be passed by lightly by cities full of children and men and women needing this simple primitive beauty? Can we substitute soldiers on horses and Greek goddesses and monumental buildings and boulevards if we carefully consider the needs of these simpler natures?

Present-day "city beautiful" efforts are inclined to deal too exclusively with monumental, spectacular, and formal effects in the business centers or show parts of the city. It is, of course, important to include in our city scheme the things which impress our imaginations with stateliness and grandeur. But city-hardened people may have their little store of simplicity and freshness of spirit depleted if, on occasional holidays, they wander unenlightened and unappeased amidst magnificence, and then return to their cheerless, harsh environment to which city beautiful schemes too often do not even plan to penetrate. Not that we should abandon the glorious visions which we are making efforts to see realized in some of our cities, but that we should give as much, or more, attention to the ways by which not only wholesome living conditions but simple charm and joyousness may permeate the home neighborhoods of the great masses of plain people. It is this note which Mr. Haag strikes so refreshingly in his fountains for civic uses.

A PROMISING FOUNDATION FOR INDUSTRIAL PEACE

ALLAN T. BURNS

Secretary Pittsburgh Civic Commission, Washington
Representative Committee on Industrial Relations

[When on Monday of last week a strike of 31,000 engineers on fifty eastern railroads seemed a matter of hours, Martin A. Knapp, presiding judge of the United States Commerce Court, and Charles P. Neill, United States commissioner of labor, tendered their friendly offices to the contending parties. The offer was accepted, and led to an agreement to arbitrate. The federal mediators acted under the law of 1898 known as the Erdmann act, but snapped red tape in tendering mediation without an appeal from either side.]

The following review of the operation of this act, especially in the last five years, during which it has prevented or settled strikes in the operating departments of the railways of America, was prepared just before the above situation became acute. The article is now the more timely.]

"Industrial peace? Impossible!"

A powerful leader of congress was discussing the bill to establish a federal commission on industrial relations. His resourceful mind could image no way to bring order out of the chaos of hostile factions in the industrial world. Yet, seriously, it was being proposed to him that the United States seek a way to secure industrial peace. "Industrial peace? Impossible!" he insisted. Several of his strong followers seconded him. Hence, they were at first sceptical toward the Hughes-Borah bill authorizing an inquiry into methods to prevent or settle strikes. Incredulity, despair, summed up their attitude.

One congressman represented the position first taken by a number of them when he said:

To prevent or settle quickly large strikes is visionary. The contending forces are too mighty. They are bound to differ. Their interests are so diverse. And when they fight they must fight till one or both are ready to quit from sheer exhaustion. Our government by its very structure must and can take no other attitude. I regret it, but this is so. No way can be found.

A single argument has convinced these men to the contrary. It is an appeal to fact, not to theory, or sentiment. That fact is the practical cessation of war on interstate railroads, the industry most

essential for the conduct of modern life. Once they have grasped the operation of the Erdmann act, they are quick to recognize that here has been laid a promising foundation for industrial peace. The particular method of the Erdmann act may be more or less applicable to other industrial fields. The point is that the success of a method in one field forecasts that some way can be found to deal with all classes of labor disputes. The results of this law consequently establish the good sense and so the duty of seeking a basis of peace in all industry.

The Erdmann act is a federal law of 1898 providing for mediation and arbitration in controversies affecting railroads and such employees as are actually engaged in train operation. Although it is thus limited to engineers, firemen, conductors, trainmen, switchmen, and telegraphers, it has dealt in a single controversy with 40,000 employees, and with fifty roads, involving 100,000 miles of line. Its total operation has embraced forty-eight disputes affecting 160,000 men and 500,000 miles of road—all this in the last five years. No serious dispute on an interstate railroad has arisen in this period where the act has not been invoked. All but one of these disputes where mediation was accepted were amicably settled. This exception occurred where the strike had been ordered before the mediators were called in and the men would not revoke the order. So the mediators dropped the case. Only three times was mediation rejected. Every case of arbitration has ended in the acceptance by both sides of the award. What wonder that suddenly this federal law has become the starting point of a nation-wide discussion of the means to establish peace more and more widely in industrial relations.

Commissioner of Labor Neill describes the act's operation by the story of a real strike settlement:

In December, 1906, a controversy arose on the Southern Pacific Railway involving the locomotive firemen on the lines between El Paso and New Orleans. The dispute reached a point where a strike was ordered to become effective at five o'clock on December 23. After the strike had been ordered, and only the day before it had actually become effective, the company invoked the provisions of the

Erdmann act in a formal application for mediation and requested the mediators, in conformity with the provisions of the law, to place themselves in communication with the other parties to the controversy in an endeavor to bring about an amicable adjustment.

The situation had, however, reached a point where it was impossible to prevent the inauguration of a strike the following day, but as the firemen had expressed a willingness to conduct negotiations through the mediators, one of the mediators started at once for Houston, Tex., and negotiations were begun there looking to a termination of the strike and the resumption of former relations between the parties to the controversy.

The case proved a particularly difficult one, involving a question of jurisdiction between different train organizations, and it became necessary for the other mediator to go to Chicago and conduct negotiations there between the representatives of the organizations whose interests were concerned.

The matter was finally adjusted in an agreement to submit the question in dispute to arbitration under the provisions of the law on a basis agreed to by all parties concerned and in conformity with proposals framed by the mediators.

The Erdmann act is seen then to provide for both mediation and arbitration in settling the disputes. At the time of the bill's passage arbitration was prejudged to be the more effective. But, as is often the case, an obscure feature of the law proved to be the important one. For arbitration has been resorted to as a first step in only four cases and as a last recourse in only eight others. In these eight most of the differences have been settled by mediation and only some details by arbitration. Naturally then the operation of such mediation provisions deserves the first and the more extensive discussion.

Some features must be borne in mind, as applying under either procedure. There is nothing compulsory in the act, for it comes into play only at the request of one or both parties to the dispute. The mediators cannot take the initiative. The law requires that the dispute must have interrupted or have threatened to interrupt railroad operation before action can be begun. Usually this has been interpreted to mean that a vote to strike has been carried. The application is made to the United States commissioner of labor and to a member of either the Interstate Commerce Commission or the

Court of Commerce designated by the President. Formerly the chairman of the commission was specified in the law as the second member. Judge Martin A. Knapp occupied that position until appointed to the Commerce Court. Since then the President has designated him to act. So Judge Knapp and the commissioner of labor always have been the mediators. The applications for mediation or arbitration have been made in nineteen instances by the railroad companies involved, in thirteen by officers of employe organizations, and in sixteen cases by both parties. More than one company can join in the application or the employers of as many roads as may wish to act in unison.

The mediation procedure is as follows: If an application is received from one side only and the mediators are satisfied that the difference threatens traffic, they immediately communicate with the other party to the dispute. They state that the first side has made application and ask whether the second will enter into negotiations through the mediators. The second party must agree, before the proceedings go further. In only four instances did the second side refuse. The first was in 1899, and was the only instance of the act's being invoked in the first eight years of its existence. Since December, 1906, nearly every application made by only one side has led to an agreement by the other disputants to accept the services of the mediators, or to a settlement of differences. The three exceptions have been cases where strikes had been called before application for mediation was made. Mediation may also be started by joint application of the two parties. Thus all dealings through the intermediaries have been voluntary, not compulsory. Let this be borne clearly in mind.

When both sides have agreed to mediation the mediators at once meet the two parties in an agreed city, but separately. The negotiations are always carried on by conference, first with one side and then the other. Exact information as to the factors in the controversy showing the viewpoint of each side is secured. But neither side knows how the other states his case. Then a con-

fidential statement of or agreement to possible concessions is obtained from each side without the knowledge of the other. One side does not hesitate to agree to concessions since, because of its secrecy such an offer cannot be interpreted as a sign of weakening, and so a ground for the other side's insistence on its pound of flesh. Furthermore, should the case later go to arbitration neither party would have prejudiced its chances. One side could not argue on the basis of what the other had already agreed to accept.

The contestants are never brought together until the mediators by repeated conferences have found a settlement to which each has agreed, without pressure from the other side. Each can thus look on the settlement as one made on its own terms. Then the two sides meet and "sign up." The terms are not made public and so each side is saved from any chagrin of known defeat. These methods of procedure largely explain the act's effectiveness.

The effectiveness of such mediation has been a surprise to the framers of the act and to those who have not followed its growing potency. It has been used to settle almost every kind of controversy that can arise between employer and employe. The act's operation has been efficacious in disputes embracing both large and small interests. Some cases have involved 100,000 miles of road and tens of thousands of employes. Others cover less than 100 miles of road and fewer than 100 men. Mediation has been the method uniformly chosen in the larger instances. The issues have been the most difficult conceivable, in two instances race prejudice. Yet the mediating procedure of the Erdmann law has proved sufficient for all.

The rarer arbitration process is the following: The contending parties may agree to arbitration on their own initiative and as a first resort. Or the mediators may persuade them to accept arbitration after mediation has failed entirely or in part. In either case the company and men select one arbitrator apiece. These two must select a third within five days. If the third man is not agreed upon in five days he is named by the

mediators. In only three of the twelve cases arbitrated have the first two arbitrators agreed on a third. This shows the first difficulty of proceeding by arbitration and a reason for its unpopularity.

In case the mediators appoint, their task is delicate. For upon the acceptability of their appointee depends future use of this law. An appointed arbitrator certainly cannot be satisfactory if he happens to be one already rejected by the first two. Moreover the decisions of the umpire must be so fair as to appeal to both sides. This imposes on the mediators finding a man whose decision of the case will be more agreeable to both sides than any suggestions the mediators themselves might or may have offered. So the mediators must possess nearly superhuman wisdom to keep arbitration a possible alternative in the minds of employers and employees. A natural suspicion that the mediators do not possess such wisdom is another reason for the infrequent resort to arbitration.

A third feature standing in the way of arbitration is the practically binding character of the award. An appeal can be taken to court only on questions of law. Just one such case has occurred and it proved so unsatisfactory that an appeal from the arbitrators' award has never since been made. But aside from this appeal provision, the compulsory or judgment-like character of an award is repulsive to American workmen and corporations. They are insistent on an inalienable right to voluntary wage contracts. Hence their aversion to calling the arbitration provisions of the law into operation.

So the difficulty of agreeing to a third arbitration, the improbability of the mediators appointing an acceptable one and the compulsory feature have all made of little use the method which was thought to be the valuable provision of the act. Only four out of forty-eight cases have sought arbitration originally and eight out of the remaining forty-four have invoked arbitration after mediation and that for mere details of the dispute.

The experience under the Erdmann law establishes some fundamental prin-

ciples for further advance toward righteous industrial peace. First the disuse of the law for the first eight years indicates that industrial peace depends upon a conviction among employers, employees and the public that strife is a useless, unnecessary waste, and that a preventative must be found. Probably bitter experiences in strikes were influential in moving the railroad companies and men to dig up this law forgotten for eight years.

Then the necessary basis for industrial peace is friendliness between the contracting parties. A successful solution must leave both on good terms after the settlement. Nothing makes human nature so satisfied with itself and all the world as the feeling that it has secured a settlement on its own terms and of its own accord. Mediation, as carried on under the Erdmann act and its efficient administrators, has proved to be such a method.

On the other hand nothing tends to bank smoldering fires and leave them ready to flare up at the first gust of discontent as a settlement in the nature of a court judgment. One side feels the sting of defeat and the other the pride of triumph, the worst possible basis for the future peaceful relations necessary to efficient and economical conduct of industry.

The ineffectiveness of semi-judicial awards indicates that organized labor's opposition to compulsory arbitration, its insistence on the right of freedom to work or not work of its own choice, is not a prejudice. It is a keen perception of human nature's humanness. No man is so obstinate as the one who feels or thinks himself deprived of an inalienable right. The working of the Erdmann act ought to be proof enough to all Americans of the impracticable character of projects for compulsory arbitration.

Judge Knapp and Commissioner of Labor Neill agree that another cause for the success of the Erdmann act is its operation in an industry highly organized on both the employer's and employees' sides. Both had learned to act collectively and to abide by collective agreements. The impossibility of stable wage contracts except with well organized and

well disciplined unions is demonstrated. And nothing has helped to make such unions, more than has the employers' recognition of the unions' right to exist.

Moreover, public opinion has increased in power and has directed its attention in later years to industrial disputes. It is generally conceded that no party to a strike can hope for success unless backed by public approval of its cause. In addition both sides realize that public opinion will refuse support to any cause that neglects to use means legally established for a peaceful, equitable, and economical settlement of a controversy. The very existence of such a law as the Erdmann act is a challenge to all contending parties to use its good offices or to prejudice the cause of the one refusing.

Last and far from least of the causes of the act's success is the almost super-human tact and wisdom of Judge Knapp and Commissioner Neill in its administration. The law itself seems to have hit upon the right combination of human forces for promoting industrial peace. But into this success the human equation has entered and the country has been fortunate that this factor has been so adequately supplied.

The great progress under the Erdmann act has been due then to a remarkable array of essential factors. They are weariness of industrial strife, a method of leaving friendly feeling after a difference, the large degree of freedom from court-like judgments, the absence of compulsory arbitration, the recognition of the right of employes and employers to act in corporate form, the growing public demand for industrial peace and the administration by officials equal to the job. Is this not an unusual combination of elements, whether accidental or purposed, necessary for any effective solution of the industrial problem?

Certainly this success in railroad disputes compels the question: Cannot a similar law be devised for the yet unconquered fields of industrial strife? This is the query back of the demand for a federal commission on industrial relations. "What has been done once can be done again." Surely a generation demanding the cessation of international strife will not rest till industrial war

stops. Public opinion cries out that the nation immediately put forth its best efforts, call to its service the keenest minds to solve this acute, incessant problem. The Erdmann act is a standing challenge to this further quest.

Judge Knapp suggests that whatever form of federal control of corporations is adopted, license, incorporation, or commission, a law similar to the Erdmann act could be made to apply to all corporations coming under such regulation. The mere suggestion thrills with possibility. The imminence of some method of federal control of industrial corporations incites the search for the companion measure to establish industrial peace and justice. The Erdmann act has laid the foundation—may the complete structure rise speedily in broad and true proportions.

THE FREE SPEECH FIGHT AT SAN DIEGO

MARY ANDERSON HILL

[The I. W. W., whose purposes are set forth by Prof. Bohn on page 220 of this issue, is seen in action in San Diego. The tension of the situation soon involved more than questions of propaganda. Issues of personal rights here, as always, crop out with the force of democratic sanction whenever a dominant element in a community sets out to suppress by force a company of zealots.]

Conflicting reports have been the order of the day from San Diego and at this juncture THE SURVEY has been fortunate in turning to a non-partisan observer of rare social perspective for a statement of what has transpired. Mrs. Hill was at one time head worker of Neighborhood House, Louisville, and later as head of Alumnae House, New York, she and her husband, the well-remembered Archibald A. Hill, were leaders in civic movements in New York and serious students of social conditions.]

Since the beginning of the new year San Diego has been in the throes of a "free-speech fight," in connection with which, to my mind, one of the most significant facts is that the community as a whole, appears to have little conception of the depth and gravity of the issues involved.

The events in this "fight," so far as they can be ascertained, are briefly as follows:



POLICE HOSING FREE SPEECH MEETING AT SAN DIEGO, CAL.

In December the grand jury recommended to the city council to abolish by ordinance all street meetings in E street, between Fifth and Sixth, a block in the center of town long appropriated for night speeches by propagandists—commercial, political, and religious. The council accordingly made of some ten or twelve blocks a “congested district,” within the boundaries of which no street meeting might be held. An emergency clause declared the ordinance should take immediate effect. On the day of passage the Industrial Workers of the World held unmolested a meeting of protest at Fifth and E and the following day the city attorney declared the emergency clause illegal. Within the next thirty days the Free Speech League was formed, made up of I. W. W.’s, socialists, single taxers, and American Federation of Labor men. On the day the ordinance took effect a parade of the league was followed by a meeting at the forbidden corner. Forty-one speakers in succession were arrested and placed for over twenty-four hours in the city drunk-tank, a room about sixteen feet square. When warrants were issued charging these men and women with conspiracy to break the law, bail was fixed at \$750 each, a sum which only a few were able

to obtain. Day after day meetings and arrests went on until not only both the city and the county jail in San Diego were crowded far beyond their capacity, but the jails in adjoining counties were borrowed and overcrowded.

On Sunday, March 17, during a free-speech meeting in front of the city jail, well outside the forbidden district, the police attached to the hydrant the big hose of the fire department opposite and turned the water on full force. Not only the speaker but also lookers-on were drenched and almost knocked down by the force of the water. Next the council passed a traffic ordinance empowering the police to disperse, at their discretion, any obstructive meeting. A referendum petition to repeal the original ordinance was secured by the Free Speech League, but was thrown out on the ground that the signatures had been, in some cases, illegally obtained and were insufficient by a small number. The city attorney denied the petitioners the right to revise. A complication in the situation at this moment lay in the fact that registration was in process and was in the hands, in part, of deputies scattered throughout town who had not returned all their registration slips to the central office.

Meanwhile the police established, out-

side San Diego, at points of approach to it, camps where men wishing to come to San Diego and suspected of Free Speech League affiliations, were turned back. Moreover, citizen committees of vigilantes were formed who deported men detained by the police but not legally booked, and ran them out of the county by methods which a local paper referred to in one instance as "ceremonies," and which are described by those who have suffered them as more brutal than running an Indian gauntlet. Camps of vigilantes are established along the county line and one reads daily of I. W. W.'s from the north turned back by them and of travelers halted and subjected to more or less discourteous treatment. The county sheriff has refused to take part in these operations on the county line on the express ground that he knows no law on which they are based.

On the night of April 5, the editor of the San Diego *Herald*, a labor paper, was seized as he was about to enter his home and carried out of town in an automobile. The police state that they are ready to prosecute those who "kidnapped" this editor, while he accuses the police of encouraging the "kidnappers." A petition for the removal of the chief of police and the captain of detectives was, on April 8, ordered filed by the city council and the right to address them on it refused by that body on the recommendation of the police commissioner. The council has also rejected a compromise ordinance prepared by a committee of citizens and said to be acceptable to the Free Speech League, providing, among other regulations, that detailed notice of every street meeting be sent the police at least three hours beforehand.

On April 17, in the San Diego *Union* the merchants' association published an endorsement of the citizens' vigilante committee. Side by side with this was printed the announcement of the arrival in San Diego of an envoy from the governor of California sent, at the request of organizations and citizens on both sides, to investigate the exact situation.

As to the causes and meaning of these events every shade of opinion exists. It is claimed that a time had come in the growth of San Diego when customary uses of the streets had become nuisances, but it is difficult to find people who were actually inconvenienced by the street gatherings. The Free Speech League claim that they resisted the ordinance because they knew it to be aimed at free speech on the part of labor in San Diego, possibly instigated at bottom by men interested in the conviction of the McNamaras. A policeman refused to let me go through the county jail because, he said, the language of the prisoners was too vile; a member of the Free Speech League hesitated to quote to me the foul speeches of the police officers. The police officers and many citizens refer to all members of the Free Speech League as anarchists—"and all anarchists are bad"—and criminals. One local paper claims that the citizen vigilantes are within the state constitution in organizing to defend the rights of property against men who insult the country's flag. The Free Speech League say that thus far, in spite of extreme provocation, they have held their men in line so that not one act of violence has been done by them, while they must themselves go unarmed and in such risk of personal attack that, since the "kidnapping," no one of them dares go home alone at night.

Meanwhile there are some things any one who will can see: two jails so crowded that six men are where four should be; justice so slowly administered that only two trials a week are held; statements in the press on the face of them prejudiced, inconsistent, and exaggerated; among the great majority outside the "fight" ignorance of social questions, indifference to the lives and ideas of others, fear of loss in the real estate and other markets, paralysis of personal responsibility; and on both sides within the "fight" intense expenditure of body, mind, and heart in a cause which, while it seems now more and more identified with hate, may force us on to "fraternity and hope."



A CHALLENGE TO THE CONTEMPORARY CHURCH¹

JANE ADDAMS



A great English preacher has said that life holds for every man one searching test of the sincerity of his religious life, and that although this test is often absurdly trivial, to encounter it is to "fall from grace." We all know these tests: a given relative or familiar friend has an irritating power of goading us into anger or self-pity; a certain public movement inevitably hardens us into a contemptuous mood of all uncharitableness; one particular type of sinner fills us with an unholy sense of superior virtue.

If we may assume that society itself is subject to one such test, if it too possesses a touchstone which reveals its inmost weakness and ultimate meanness, may we not say that the supreme religious test of our social order is the hideous commerce of prostitution, and that the sorry results of that test are registered in the hypocrisy and hardness of heart of the average good citizen toward the so-called "fallen" woman. May we not claim that in consequence of this irreligious attitude, prostitution remains today a hard, unresolved mass in the midst of so-called Christian civilization, until it has come to be regarded as a vice which cannot be eradicated, as a sin which cannot be forgiven, as a social disease which cannot be cured.

This attitude on the part of the Christian is the more difficult to explain because Jesus himself was most explicit in the declaration of His own position in regard to the harlot. He did not for a moment imply that she could not be drawn into the radius of that wondrous affection He promulgated, the love of all mankind, so new in the history of the world, nor that the new solvent could not melt down—if I may use the phrase—that obstinate mass of wretchedness.

It is hard to forecast the results upon the social order if Christians from the beginning had followed their master and had encompassed the harlot with His charity and loving-kindness, but it is cer-

tainly easy to point out the moral and religious disaster resulting from her exclusion, fostering the "I am holier than thou" attitude which is the inmost canker of the spiritual life.

In less than four hundred years after the death of Jesus, St. Augustine asserted that the heart of a woman was the gate of hell, so quickly had the fear and contempt of the harlot spread out from her as the center of irreligion, that it had by then included all womankind. The very word woman in the writings of the church fathers stood for the basest temptations. The pagan woman had been oppressed and despised but the woman of Christendom came to be hated and feared as the chief emissary of the devil himself, and this in spite of the fact that the Virgin was worshipped and many women canonized as saints. It is significant that through this authorization of the irreligious attitude toward the harlot, developed apace the two sins—contempt for a human creature and self-righteousness—concerning which Jesus was most severe. The only time He referred to hell fire was to predict it for the man who should treat another with contempt, and He reserved the language of castigation for the self-righteous men who had arrogated religion to themselves and dared to put others outside.

One result of this irreligious attitude toward prostitution with its inevitable corollaries has been the development of the so-called worldly-minded Christian; thousands of decent men have developed a peculiar distrust of human nature, a cynicism which assumes that a certain proportion of men in every community will so inevitably violate the laws of chastity as to make the prostitute a social necessity, and the free masonry among men in regard to her does much to lower the moral tone of the whole community.

This widespread worldly cynicism has become so registered in our political affairs that any probe into the vice conditions of a city, made by a grand jury or a commission, uniformly discovers

¹The address delivered last week by Miss Addams before the Conservation Congress of the Men and Religion Forward Movement.

that prostitution is the root source of political corruption. Nowhere is the hypocrisy in regard to it so clearly revealed. Although laws declaring it illegal have been placed upon the statute books, which even the hardest politician dares not repeal, out of respect for public opinion, nevertheless, backed by this universal cynicism, the politicians openly consider the laws too impracticable to be enforced, and not only deliberately decide not to enforce them but actually define the conditions under which this law breaking is permitted. To permit such license in one particular is, of course, utterly to demoralize the entire public service. This police connivance at prostitution inevitably creates a necessity for both graft and blackmail; the graft is easy because the owner of an illicit business expects to pay for it, and every politician to the tip-top of the administration receives his share of this illicit fund; in connection with this a municipal blackmail is also established which just escapes legal recognition. Prostitution, protected by a thick hedge of secrecy, imperceptibly renewing itself through changing administrations, is the one fixed point of maladministration, the unbreakable bank to which every corrupt politician may repair when in need of funds. The corruption spreads until the brothel, the saloon, and the gambling hall are the trio literally at the base of the real administration of our cities. Certainly the harlot has been avenged upon the city which so despises her. The men who consider her a legitimate source of revenue in a thousand ways fleece the decent tax-payers who refuse to acknowledge her existence, and she abides through one administration after another to the confusion and frustration of all movements for civic reform.

Thousands of court decisions every day bear testimony to the irreligious attitude toward the harlot permitted by the early church, which gradually became embodied in canon and civil law. The laws of Illinois do not differ markedly from those of other states. The charge of seduction made against a man is defined as a misdemeanor—a breach of manners, as it were; the punishment

for rape is the same as that inflicted for the theft of fifteen dollars' worth of property and a man may not be extradited from one state to another for so slight an offense; the charge of bastardy against a man is not even a crime and is tried in a civil court; when the paternity of a child is proven beyond doubt or quibble, the father under a maximum sentence can be made to pay an average of ninety-seven cents a week for its maintenance until the child is ten years old, but if the child dies before that age the father is exempted even from this. So sure are all men that woman is the tempter that the age of consent is absurdly low; in some states a little girl of ten is considered the aggressor although her seducer may be a man of well-known immorality.

On the other hand, if an illegitimate child dies before it is born the mother, if she conceals the fact, although totally innocent of its death, may be committed to the county jail.

Quite recently in Chicago a Bohemian girl, working as a maid in an American family, was seduced by the head of the house and later driven forth on the usual ground that a Christian home must not be polluted by such a presence. Her child was born one day when she was quite alone in her cousin's house; following her first instinct to take it to its father, she wrapped it in an apron and carried it immediately to his door, quite oblivious of the fact that her every step could be followed by a group of street boys. The child was found dead upon the door step and the distraught mother was at once arrested on the charge of murder, although out of the depths of her ignorance and inexperience she could not tell whether or not her child had been born alive. The first ministrations to her dire need came from the matron in the police station.

It was not until weeks afterward that a group of women found her in the county jail, where having been indicted by the grand jury she has been awaiting trial, while the father of her child had been quite unmolested and had apparently forgotten the incident.

But the effect of this impious contempt is not confined to legal enactment. It also became registered in the ethical code

of contemporary society held by good women as well as men. Women, kindly toward all other human creatures, become hard and hostile to young girls who, in evil houses, are literally beaten and starved by the dissolute men whom they support.

Kind-hearted women could not brook these things; their hearts would break had they not been trained to believe that virtue itself demanded from them first ignorance and then harshness. Their inherited fear of the harlot and terror lest she contaminate their daughters, may be traced in the caste basis of our social amenities and in the lack of democracy and fellowship which so fatally narrows woman's interests. Yet the test comes to them none the less, for as all women fell in the estimate of religious men because they came to be looked upon as possible harlots, so may we not predict that women will never take a normal place in the moral life of society until they recognize as one of themselves the very harlot, who all unwittingly has become the test of their spirituality, the touchstone of their purity. As women were lowered in the moral scale because of their identification with her at the very bottom of the pit, so they cannot rise themselves save as they succeed in lifting her with whose sins they are weighted.

Contemporary women, as well as men, ought to find it much easier at the present moment to meet this supreme test of religion than it has ever been before in the long history of civilization. A new publicity in regard to the social evil is a striking characteristic of the last decade. This publicity has disclosed that thousands of these so-called "fallen" women are piteously young, and that thousands of others lost their chastity when they were helpless, unthinking little girls, many of them violated by members of their own households in that crowding which life in a large tenement postulates. Even the wretched women whom we call degenerate have often been captured as children and deliberately debased.

Only last week I left at Hull House a young girl whose childish face, surrounded by old-fashioned curls, reminded me of the playmates of my earliest memory.

She had been rented at the age of twelve by her mother to a notorious man in a neighboring state with whom she had remained four years, ostensibly as his daughter. Two weeks ago her mother sent her to Chicago to a white slave trader who agreed to meet her at a given place in a large railroad station. Although she had been brought across the state line in an automobile to avoid the interstate pandering laws which imply the use of a common carrier, the careful plot failed somewhere. When the man did not appear the frightened child came directly to Hull House because in the brothel kept by her mother the little girls had been in the habit of pretending that they were related to people whose names they had seen in the newspapers, and as I had thus figured, she knew my name and address. The girl's story, which she gave most reluctantly, corroborated since by governmental officials, revealed that she had been subjected to unspeakable experiences. She is still so simple and childlike that she lay awake until midnight last Friday night to see if she would feel differently when the clock struck and she should become sixteen and she gravely reported her disappointment the next morning.

Publicity thus making clear that a large number of women have entered the hideous life against their own volition, it inevitably discloses the existence of a widespread commerce organized for the profits of men. The man who owns the house, the one who procures the girls, the one styled her "protector"—the agent who supplies her clothing, all exploit her, each for his personal gain. Even the women in charge of the houses who from the days of Babylon have reaped large profits, are now becoming merely the paid agents of an organized business, much as a saloon keeper is engaged by a brewery. The girl upon whom all this activity rests, young for the most part, stands in the middle of a complex system which she does not understand. On the other hand, commercial organizations are obliged to continually trump up business in order to secure enough men to make their business profitable and they lure them through alcohol and all vicious devices designed to stimulate the senses. The success of the business which in Chicago

pays its promoters fifteen million dollars a year, is founded upon the hypocrisy and self-righteousness of the decent citizen, and it continues to capture girls, to debauch young men, to spread disease and to corrupt city politics because good men do not consider it part of their religious obligation to face it openly and to undertake its abolition.

The Christian Church cannot hope to eradicate the social evil until it is willing to fairly make it the test of its religious vitality, to forget its ecclesiastical traditions, to drop its cynicism and worldliness, to go back to the method advocated by Jesus himself for dealing with all sinners, including not only the harlot, but, we are bound to believe, even those men who live upon her earnings and whom we call every foul name. The method of Jesus was nothing more nor less than sheer forgiveness, the overcoming of the basest evil by the august power of goodness, the overpowering of the sinner by the loving kindness of his brethren, the breaking up of long entrenched evil by the concerted good will of society.

The new publicity in regard to prostitution in itself forces the church into radical action; understanding of the sinner has ever been essential to his forgiveness, knowledge of conditions has ever preceded social reforms. If it is discovered that the brothels are filled with overfatigued and underpaid girls, procured by young men "too poor to marry," then it is obviously the business of the church to secure legal enactment which shall limit the hours of labor, fix a minimum wage and prescribe the conditions under which young people may be permitted to work; if it is found that the army of girls and men required in this vile business is constantly recruited from the young heedlessly looking for pleasure in vicious dance halls, on crowded excursion boats, in careless amusement parks, then it is the obligation of the church to guard and cleanse these pleasures and to provide others free from danger; if the new publicity continues to disclose on the one hand the enormous number of little children who are pushed into an evil life through the very congestion of the city's population, and discloses on the other hand the large number of young people in dreary country

communities who are drawn into vicious practices through sheer reaction from the monotony and grayness of their lives, then a nation-wide church in the crowded city, must advocate measures to lessen the sensational evils of overcrowding, and in the village it must offer social organization to all the solitary young people of the country side; if it is made clear that youth is ensnared because of its ignorance of the most fundamental facts of life, then it is the duty of the church to promote public instruction for girls and lads which shall dignify sex knowledge and free it from all indecency; if it is found that degenerate children born of diseased and vicious parents become an easy prey for the brothel, it is clearly the obligation of the church to challenge all applicants for marriage and to work out through modern eugenics the admonitions of the Hebrew teachers as to the responsibility unto the third and fourth generation.

All over the world are traces of a changed attitude toward the social evil. Not only are American cities such as Chicago recommending a restrictive measure looking toward final abolition, but European cities such as Vienna are doubting the value of their long established reglementation and are therefore logically facing the same conclusion; the medical profession is abandoning its century old position of secrecy and connivance; leading educators are at last urging adequate instruction for all youth. Shall not the church accept the challenge and bear a valiant part in this modern crusade? The call has come, not from a holy hermit who had conquered temptation through withdrawal from the world into a solitary place, but from a multitude of warm-hearted youth who in the very streets, "paven with peril, teeming with mischance," still eagerly clamor for a city made fit and fair for their budding lives.

Society like the individual always finds the contemporary test most difficult. While it easily boasts of those already past and it is unduly confident of the future it too often fails to meet the test which faces it at a given moment and which alone can reveal its genuine courage and sincerity.



SURVIVORS OF THE TITANIC'S CREW.

THE REVOLUTION ON THE SEA

GEORGE McPHERSON HUNTER

"----- WHAT I HA' SEEN SINCE OCEAN-STEAM BEGAN

LEAVES ME NO DOOT FOR THE MACHINE: BUT WHAT ABOUT THE MAN?"

McANDREW.

[Mr. Hunter looks at the seaman's life both from the outside and the inside; his touch with it is international. As ship's officer for five years and for eight years secretary of the American Seamen's Friend Society he has visited every important port in both hemispheres. His business has led him to study each nation's law toward its own seamen and toward those of other countries.

Eight years ago Mr. Hunter projected the American Seamen's Friend Society's Institute in New York, now the largest seamen's home in the world. Here, for the first time since steam changed the calling of the sailor, he applied modern knowledge of social cause and effect to an international industry. Thirty thousand seamen go through the doors of this institute each month.

In his close, personal contact with the stoker and the deck-hand, in his addresses before large gatherings of seamen and in his writings Mr. Hunter has perhaps more than any other interpreted modern sailors to themselves and to society. In this and in two succeeding articles he will set forth to an enlarged audience certain phases of the life of the wage-earners of the sea, of which the Titanic disaster has thrown one or two points into dramatic relief.—Ed.]

Revolutions are of two kinds; first, the sudden, volcanic, eruptive revolution which emits smoke and fire and leaves behind it chaos and blackness; second, the glacial revolution which begins slowly and moves with an un-

canny persistency, brooking no opposition and defying all attempts to stop it. A glacial transformation has been going on in sea affairs, and great changes have been wrought so gradually that few have yet awaked to

the fact that the sailor himself has changed essentially. In the popular mind he is still "Jack" of the sailing ship. He does not answer to this name now. He is John. The personnel of the sea has changed entirely since the steamship has displaced the sailing vessel.

In the days when the winds blew ships from port to port, ships were small, voyages long, and hardships and adventures were as plentiful as weevils in the sailor's biscuit. Sailors were sailors, men of brawn, able to "reef, knot, splice, and steer"; keen-eyed, strong-limbed, deep-chested, tattooed, ingenuous men, with the simplicity of the blue sky. Like the sea they were full of moods, and tough as the beef they ate. The sailor was a poorly-paid, hard-driven man, skilful with ropes and sails, dependable as the trade winds. Life at sea was hard for him for captains were captains, and orders were obeyed or men were carried below, mangled and bleeding. Position and might made right, and there were few rights for common sailor men before steam was sent to sea. When sailing vessels were queens of the ocean, the captain was king on board. He ruled everyone from the cabin-boy to the mate, and everything from keelson to belaying-pin. His word was absolute law. He made and unmade officers as he pleased. His frown cast a shadow over the whole ship, but if the "old man" looked happy and smiled, the ship reflected his gracious mood. A sailing vessel represented, as nothing on land ever did, an absolute monarchy. The captain was monarch and all on board were his humble subjects.

When the engineer and his grimy satellites climbed over the rail a revolution began on this floating kingdom which has not yet ceased. The engineer has been its ringleader. Revolutionist is too mild a term for him—magician would be more appropriate. In the hidden recesses of the hull he set up his engines, kindled his fires, and drove the ship through the waters. At first he was an auxiliary force. As

he grew in knowledge of his power, and bolder in his experiments, the attenuated yards and pocket-handkerchief sails were left ashore. The discarded canvas and the expanding steam sent nearly all the deck crew ashore, and graded and remodelled those that were left. The engineer defied nature, cut her claws and filed her teeth. He made ships comparatively safe, independent of the vagaries of the wind, and the inevitable tides. He dispelled the mystery and sobered the romance of the sea; made it commonplace by introducing regularity, haste, noise, smoke, oil, safe navigation, and the possibility of a ship large enough to carry a whole city.

While the actual command of a ship still lies in the hands of the captain,—for a captain is a necessity, not an ornament or relic of bygone days,—and always will be in his hands, the divine right of the captain, like the "divine right of the king," has gone. He is a constitutional monarch, with limited delegated powers, ruling, instead of the old simple, unsophisticated sailor, a host of highly skilled specialists, covered by the blanketing term of seamen.

The engineer was first in the procession of aliens that invaded sailing-vessels. Like all invaders, from the Goths who invaded Rome, and the Romans who invaded Britain, he brought with him new customs, new ideas, and a retinue of new people into a realm which had been sacred to the sailor from the days of the Phoenicians, and subject only to winds and weather. He entered with his science that defied wind and tide. He set up a little kingdom of his own. Fellow-craftsmen formed his cabinet; oilers, stokers, coal-passers were his subjects, and these working in the bowels of the ship sent forth both power and light. As the science of steam engineering advanced he added other specialists, electricians, hydraulic and refrigerating engineers, until one-third of the ship's crew is enlisted under the banner of the chief engineer, and his budget is one of the most expensive items on the ship's list of expenses.



SEAMEN WHO SURVIVED THE TITANIC DISASTER

Of the 200 members of the Titanic crew who were saved by the Carpathia, 138 immediately found their way to the Institute of the American Seamen's Friend Society, 507 West street. The picture at the beginning of this article shows many of them in the clothes in which they were picked up.

As ships grew in size and science overcame the old dangers and discomforts of the sea, passengers increased in numbers; a new thing happened. People began to travel in great numbers for pleasure. In the days of sailing ships, traveling, with rare exceptions, was for the purposes of business, health, adventure, or emigration. Steamships created the "globe-trotter" and the habitual "tourist," extended and developed the whole business of traveling, and devised a class of ships designed for passengers only.

Another little kingdom was set up in the ship; another tributary monarch was crowned; the chief-steward and his victualling department were created. In the liners going East and trans-Atlantic liners, size, luxury, speed, and safety, are present in the superlative degree. The "Lady of the Ocean" carries from 500 to 3,000 souls. To feed and care for thousands of people, in all

degrees of comfort and luxury, within the cramped confines of 700 by 80 feet and away from markets; to put them to bed, get them up in the morning, and provide elaborate meals for them with the regularity and precision of the best hotels ashore, and to keep on doing it for a period of from five to fifteen days, is a marvel of organizing.

To do all this meant other aliens added to the Empire of the Sea. The old-fashioned ship's cook, known to the deep-water sailor as the "doctor," was metamorphosed into a "chef," with butchers, bakers, and confectioners to work out his elaborate menus. On sailing ships and modern tramps the days of the week are known by the dishes appearing on the table. Each day is sacred to some special dish, and the time between Saturday and Saturday is ample to cover the ship's menu twice over. Not so a liner, and thus a printer was added to the ship's crew.

To make the voyagers happy a band of music was added to the commissary department. The ship's doctor has an assistant and a trained nurse. The purser's room has grown into an office. Modern haste makes stenographers necessary, and the last man over the rail is the telegraph operator. He and his calling are slumped together; in the terse language of the sea he is called "Wireless." He is the Mephistopheles of the ocean who, out of darkness and across space, brings speech and news from the land five hundred miles away. He completes the city afloat. If it is only a partial completion; some day the chaplain and the prayer-book may go up the gangway with the ship's stores, to suggest the "city without foundations," and the time when the sea shall be no more.

A first-rate Atlantic liner is a cross between a gigantic ferry-boat and a first-class hotel, traveling with the safety and regularity of a river ferry-boat, and providing the luxury of the best hotels, manned by a thousand amphibious, legally designated seamen.

Between the liner at the top and the tramp steamer at the bottom of the scale there is an endless variety of ships. For the trade she is in develops its own type of vessel and seamen.

Steam has been unconsciously strategical. Thirty years ago the harbors and bays of the Atlantic coast, the seaports of great Britain, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and the Mediterranean were crowded with little sailing vessels, brigs, brigantines, smacks, schooners, all engaged in the coastwise trade. The men who began sea life in them are now masters and officers in steamers and sailing vessels in all parts of the world. Those small vessels were the nurseries of sailors, and bred a splendid class of men. When the sea fever seized a boy, he went to sea in a coasting vessel. When he reached the chrysalis stage and took flight, he went to deep water. The breeding ground for future officers in the merchant marine of Europe has been destroyed, and it remains to be seen whether the new breed of ships' officers will measure up to the old class of men

who were trained in the hard school of the coaster. These vessels are disappearing; regular steam coasting ships are driving them off the sea. But with remarkable tenacity they still hold their own on the Atlantic coast. Bigger and better boats are being built, with engines for hoisting the heavy sails. On the Pacific coast steam schooners are rapidly taking the place of the sailing schooner. The coast formation and other conditions which do not come within the scope of this writing seem to indicate that sailing vessels for coasting business and fishing will hold their own for years to come.

The step downward from a fine-lined, well formed liner to an unkempt tramp steamer, is short and steep. Whoever first named the wandering cargo steamship "tramp" did it in a moment of inspiration. A sea tramp and a shore tramp have more in common than the name. These steamers go everywhere in the same slouchy, aimless way, without knowing whither they will sail from the next port, and never knowing when they will get into the lane that leads home. Tramps ashore and afloat carry with them enough to cover their nakedness; the bare necessities of life suffice; they are involuntary ascetics. Tramp steamers have the pinched, hungry look of a city newsboy, for they were born in adversity, and the chill breath of economy constantly blows over them. They are the undermanned, underfed, overloaded Ishmaelites of the sea. Every seaman's tongue is against them, and the merchants of the world conspire to get their goods carried in them for nothing. It is seldom one hears anybody speak respectfully of a tramp. Men in liners, deep-water vessels and regular trades will allude with an inflection of pride to "my ship"; coasting men speak of "them tramps" with a sniff of scorn that defies interpretation. Those who go in them, especially the officers, speak in a deprecating, half apologetic way of their being in a tramp, as though caught where they should not be. Tramp steamers are the enemies of the sailing vessels. On the Pacific coast, sailing vessels rest their weary ribs for months

against the wharfs, and watch their foes carry off the freights properly their own.

Men-of-war have a special class of seamen. The man-of-war seaman is a hybrid; something of a sailor, very much of a mechanic, with a streak of the soldier, and a dash of the electrician, and every inch a man. Nearly all the European nations strive to get their men for the navy young, and train them up from boyhood in the service. Baits in the way of pensions and increasing pay are used to hold them for life at the command of their country. This policy is the reverse of the American which leans to a short term. Perhaps the many opportunities for advancement and the versatility of American life are accountable for the large numbers of men who enlist with a short term in view. "We are not getting the old style of sailor in the navy now," said an American admiral not long ago, "we are getting a lot of high school boys". He spoke the truth. A high school education is a better training for a naval sailor than an equal number of years in a deep-water sailing ship. Let the term be only three or four years at the most, if they are the flux years between 18 and 24, it is enough to put the brine in his blood, and to stamp him for life with the brand of the sea.

Steam has revolutionized ships, ship propulsion, navigation, the loading and unloading of cargoes, and introduced dispatch and organization into sea life. It has turned comfort into luxury for passengers, and robbed the sea of two-thirds of its terror and one-half of its romance, and has made ships depart and arrive with the regularity of railway trains, without materially helping the men of the sea. Their vicarious lives and deeds have benefited the nations of the world in a measure no one can estimate, with but little addition to their wages, and many subtractions from the things that make life enjoyable and worth living.

In sailing vessels officers and men formerly had long, tedious voyages, much exposure to weather and physical strain; at times, especially in the north Atlantic and rounding Cape Horn, they were often exhausted to the breaking

point. By way of compensation they had longer periods of rest in port, and stretches of time at sea, especially in the trade wind regions, when sailing-ship life was full of charm. Who can forget the calm tropical nights when the pale splendor of the moon softened the sharp outlines of sails, masts, and ropes, and melted the ship into a thing of spirit, moving over an ether sea; or quiet days when the winds were light and favorable, and the lambent sea beat a soothing tattoo on the bows, lulling the spirits of men and suffusing the ship with a mellow glow of peace; or the days of high sailing when every sail was filled, every tack and brace was tight, and the ship leaped from sea to sea, and danced in merry glee, and the blood of the crew responded to the mood of the ship.

Life in a sailing vessel had a sporting, fighting element in it, painfully absent from a prosaic steamer. It had a fascination unknown to steamship life. When the anchor was weighed, sails set, and yards slewed, the "chanty-man" sang his song, and all pulled with a will. In the nervous, worrying haste of steamer work, the steam winches make noise instead of music, and the "chanty-man" is ashore, singing his chanties in the saloons, and telling of his departed glory. Steam and labor-saving devices, have transferred the strain from the sailor's muscles to the whole crew's nerves, reduced the size of the crew, and made the smaller number bear a double burden. Modern sea-faring men get less sleep than any class of men we know about, and have fewer Sundays. Sunday labor is not common, but, on the contrary, very rare in American ports. The same could be said of British home ports, but it is almost an established custom in South America. In Spain the ecclesiastical authority readily grants a permit to discharge or load a cargo on Sunday. In the far East,

Where there ain't no ten commandments, Sunday labor is becoming increasingly common on board cargo ships. British vessels are the most flagrant transgressors afloat. British seamen of all ranks, the state and free churches, and the marine associations are becoming restless un-

der the shame of it, and are clamorous for a cessation of Sunday work in port.

It is not an extraordinary thing for a man to have no Sunday in port for months and years. Ship managers are often unjustly blamed for ships being at sea constantly on the day of rest. For a ship to arrive in port on Sunday, bringing several hundred passengers with no special means for continuing their journey, or provision for their comfort, is not helping the crew, the Sunday rest question, or the passengers.

Personal touch between the ship-owner and his crew has ceased. Ships are not owned by private individuals, as they were in the days of sail, when the ship-owner knew his vessels, visited them, and had at least a nodding acquaintance with the crew, and personal intercourse, some times social relations, with the captain and officers. The amount of capital invested necessitates corporate ownership with ship-mongers, and all the strict business management of a corporation with none of the personal touch or human interest of a private owner.

The large steamship companies are quasi-naval companies. They have fleets of ships, with rules and regulations like the articles of war in the navy. Officers and engineers enter the service as juniors. If they behave themselves, have no black marks or serious accidents, they are promoted to the position of captain or chief engineer, and may retire on a pension. If the officer or engineer leaves his ship without permission from his superintendent, it is equivalent to leaving the service. Should he wish to re-enter, he enters under forfeiture of his seniority, and begins at the bottom of the ladder to work upwards. These regulations do not, save in some rare instances, affect sailors, firemen or stewards in British and American vessels. Germany, France, and Sweden are noble exceptions to this indifference and neglect, and are distinguished among the maritime nations for their recent humanitarian legislation, making beneficial provision for sailors, both shipowner and seamen paying their shares.

Seamen are longer at sea now than they were in sailing vessels. In those days men went to sea for months, and stayed ashore for weeks or months. With steam propulsion, he goes to sea for weeks and stays ashore for days.

Accompanying the decline of sailing vessels is the art of seamanship, and the passing of the deep-water sailor. He went to sea as a boy, learned his business at sea, was handy at many things with the deft handiness of a sailor. He was matchless in an emergency at sea, and helpless as a babe on shore. In his place has come a number of specialists, from the educated, well-trained marine engineer to the illiterate, unskilled coal-passer. They are men, when they go to sea, with a man's skill, powers, virtues, and vices, and, what is important to be remembered, a man's outlook on life. Consequently not so pliable, docile, and submissive as the old style of sailor, who knew nothing (relatively) but ships and the sea, and nobody (relatively) but captains and the powers above them, both of whom he feared and obeyed more than he feared and obeyed God.

Seamen are now more migratory in their habits, going into the vessels of other nations in a way unknown before the era of steam. Then certain nations were distinctly maritime in their inclinations; men went to sea, because it was the family heritage; instinct sent others, and the remainder went by compulsion, as in Scandinavia, the British Isles, Nova Scotia, and New England. As the sea became unremunerative, advancement slow and opportunities in the West better, the class and number of men declined on American vessels. The breeding grounds for them were destroyed, the supply fell off. At the same time across the sea transportation grew, and the merchant marine fleets increased. Germany took to the ocean, Japan rose into a maritime nation, and other nations, not distinctly maritime, were induced to try their fortunes on the raging main. The sea, never provincial, became cosmopolitan. American ships on the coast have sometimes Spanish firemen. Italian sailors, French cooks, colored waiters, German or Scotch engineers and

American officers. Before the writer lies a photograph of the crew of a British sailing ship going to New York with a crew of twenty-two men of eleven nationalities. Formerly men straggled in twos and threes into the ships of other countries. Now the migratory movements are en masse. With Scandinavian seafarers it is generally from their vessels into English ships; then, as the knowledge of English and the sea world increases, and their ambition develops, they move farther west to America, until the whole marine population of the Pacific speaks with a Scandinavian accent.

With the Latin races, Belgian, Spanish, Italian, the movement is also into English ships, with a general course set west. English and American sailors or firemen rarely ever, unless shanghied, go on a vessel belonging to the Latin races. In America the migratory movement among seamen in the East is set toward the railroads, where they are welcomed with open arms. And the western boys move East, to try their fortunes on the sea and in the American navy.

The Asiatic element has become important in the merchant marine of the world. Twenty years ago Great Britain had 7,000 Lascars in her ships; now the number has risen to 70,000. American trans-Pacific steamships carry Chinese exclusively as sailors, firemen, cooks, stewards, and waiters. Of course, the responsible position in the victualling departments with the quartermasters, officers and engineers, are Americans. Chinamen are being employed on Japanese ships now and are ousting the Lascars on some lines in the far East. China is awakening and moving out upon the sea. Few things in marine history compare with the meteoric rise and the rapid spread of the Japanese merchant marine. Within twenty years they have sent their subsidized ships over the beaten tracks into ports sacred to the western nations. Japanese liners sail from Japan to Puget Sound, San Francisco, Australia, the Mediterranean and London. Japan has cast off her swaddling clothes, sent her teachers home, and become a precocious maritime nation. The United States commissioner of navigation, commenting on

the presence of Asiatics in American ships, says: "American ships manned by Asiatics are training schools for the navies of Asiatic powers." Words of wisdom; we should harken to them!

To summarize the net results of the revolution on the sea wrought by steam means to generalize, and generalization leaves one liable to seeming negligence, ignorance or bias. But writing, like going to sea, is full of hazards, and we launch out on some generalizations.

Sea life has lost much of its charm and its mystery, and the halo of romance around the sailor's head has been rubbed off. It is more commonplace, and is highly commercialized. The men of the sea are still more cosmopolitan. The standard of intelligence has risen considerably. There are more educated men on board ships, with an increase also of uneducated, unskilled men. Discipline is not so rigid but more humane. Enforcement of orders by physical force is rare, the "buckoo mate" is dead—he died without issue. Ship-owners who own passenger vessels take their men along "the second mile" when they go to market. Scurvy, beri-beri, and lime juice are becoming reminiscences. A sentiment against drinking is growing among seafarers, as might be expected. I do not think the number of total abstainers among seamen has increased, but the men use liquor more temperately than they did when it was to be had only at the end of a long voyage.

Class consciousness is increasing among officers, engineers, and petty officers in a larger degree than among sailors, firemen, and stewards. Among the latter it grows in spots (geographically) and is subject to ebullitions. The lower ranks of seafaring men are still too easily influenced. Wages have increased, but if the shorter voyage is considered, I question whether the advance is worth getting hilarious over. Labor-saving devices and an electric haste have been introduced into the loading and the unloading of ships, with a readjustment of the seaman's work and a redistribution of the burdens he has to carry. He has been left with all the hazards of the sea without its pleasures to cheer the unending, wearing work of the steamer.

FATIGUE AND EFFICIENCY

JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK

[Significant passages follow from a book which comes from the presses this week.

They give the heart of an investigation and digest of facts which have already overturned the Supreme Court decisions of one industrial state, and, as presented by Louis D. Brandeis and Miss Goldmark, have afforded a powerful argument for the most advanced position yet taken by the federal Supreme Court with respect to governmental control over health conditions in industry.

The book, which bears the imprint of the Russell Sage Foundation and the title of this article, represents several years' work by one of the officers of the National Consumers' League. Its aim is to present, as a new basis for labor legislation, the results of the modern study of fatigue.

It seeks to show what fatigue is, its nature and effects, and to explain the phenomena of overwork in working people. It draws upon the scientific study of fatigue—one of the most modern inquiries of physiological, chemical, and psychological science—for aid in the practical problem of reducing the long working day in industry.]

Like most human institutions, factory legislation has been founded on no *a priori* logic. It has been, rather, essentially illogical, the result of half-way measures and opposing forces. During the nineteenth century, while agricultural Europe and America were gradually becoming industrial and the whole face of nature reflected the new order, the history of factory legislation—the state's defense of its workers—has been devious advance and compromise. Self-interest on the one side, self-defense and philanthropy on the other, hampered by prejudices of every sort,—these for the most part have brought about such protection as exists today. Not man's foresight, but the inexorable results of labor long carried on counter to nature's laws, have been on the whole responsible for the meager protection which industrial communities have granted their workers.

Striking as is the unanimity of the world's industrial experience and the testimony of observers in each country as to the need of more complete protection for the workers, such empirical data furnish, after all, no scientific basis for labor legislation. They are arguments, legitimate presumptions in its favor, not scientific proof.

Yet a scientific ground for such legislation does exist and is available today. The fundamental basis for laws regulating the working hours of men, women, or children in industrial occupations—at the spindle or loom, in machine shops or laundries, behind the counter or in the

glass-houses—is the common physiological phenomenon, fatigue, the normal result of all human action. For fatigue is nature's warning signal that the limit of activity is approaching. Exhaustion, or overfatigue, follows when the warning is disregarded and the organism is pushed beyond its limits by further forced exertions.

In this inexorable sequence, subject to countless variations but never failing, we have a broad fundamental basis for the short working day in industry; a physiological necessity inherent in man's structure for allowing an adequate margin of rest. The regulation of working hours is the necessary mechanism to prevent overfatigue or exhaustion, forerunner of countless miseries to individuals and whole nations.

It is precisely in explaining the normal and abnormal aspects of fatigue, its nature, effects, and relation to all human life, that science can give its authoritative sanction to labor legislation. For, during the last century, unknown to those who saw the practical results of overwork in industry and sought a legal remedy year after year, so often in vain, men of various sciences were studying the same phenomena in the laboratory. The physiologist, chemist, bacteriologist, and psychologist have contributed to the study. The scientific investigations of fatigue in its varied aspects make up a wide and growing literature. In spite of still unverified details, the underlying principles and laws have been agreed upon.

The study of fatigue, as applied to industry, is not an academic nor a remote speculation. It shows why the system of long hours must, physiologically, result in human deterioration and inferior output. It should help, also, to determine what protection is needed in the future for workers under modern conditions of labor, viewing the new conditions and their demand on human energies from the physiological standpoint.

Such a change of front, indeed, from the purely economic to the broadly physiological, is what this study chiefly advocates. Heretofore, the scientifically well-known principles of fatigue have not been utilized in the protection of the workers, just because they have been unknown to those persons who could have benefited most directly: the legislators who frame the laws, the enlightened employers who need legislation to restrain unscrupulous competitors, the trade unions and philanthropic agencies which have promoted legislation, and the judges whose official sanction of the laws must precede enforcement. To all these, in the main, the contributions of science on the subject have been unknown. To the scientist, on the other hand, the industrial world has been an undiscovered country. Even physicians and students of hygiene are to a large extent unacquainted with the vast speed and complexity of processes to which industrial workers are subjected. They hardly know, for instance, how machinery is additionally speeded each year; how, to cite a single example from the needle trades, the newest power sewing machines run by girl operators carry twelve needles instead of one, or set almost 4,000 stitches a minute, each thread and needle to be intently watched for breaking as the material is guided on its rapid passage. Changes of which this is typical have added to the strain of industry in a progressive ratio, and, obviously, add also to all the elements which make up the worker's fatigue.

A brief account of the scientific views of fatigue must be given, before considering their practical application to the problem of overstrain in industry. We must familiarize ourselves with enough of the technical vocabulary and history

to understand the scientific conception of fatigue in general, and that of industrial workers in particular.

Physiology teaches that life is a continual change of structure. The structural basis of all tissue, muscular, nervous, connective, etc., is the cell. The life of the tissue consists in chemical combination of the protoplasm or substance of the tissue cells with the nutritive materials derived from food stuffs and the oxygen of the air. The distinctive property of the cell—that indeed which makes it living—is its power of taking to itself and converting to its own substance materials that are not living. This is a double process; for, just as the potential stuff is seized and wrought into live tissue, so the outworn, dead matter which is no longer of use is cast off and ultimately expelled from the body.

During activity, as will be shown later, the products of chemical change increase. A tired person is literally and actually a poisoned person—poisoned by his own waste products. But so marvelously is the body constructed that, like a running stream, it purifies itself, and during repose these toxic impurities are normally burned up by the oxygen brought by the blood, excreted by the kidneys, destroyed in the liver, or eliminated from the body through the lungs. So rest repairs fatigue.

This balance is kept true and fatigue is repaired just as long as it remains within physiological limits; that is, as long as activity is balanced by repose, when the noxious products of activity are more quickly eliminated and tissue is rebuilt. Just as soon as the metabolic equilibrium is destroyed the organism becomes clogged by its own poisons, exhaustion results, and health is impaired. The physiological normal phenomenon of fatigue becomes pathological, or abnormal exhaustion.

Health, even life itself, hangs upon the metabolic balance. In extreme instances of overexertion, as when hunted animals drop dead in the chase, they die, not from overstrain of any particular organ, such as the heart, but from sheer chemical poisoning due to the unexpelled toxins of fatigue.

Such then are the extremest results of

the self-generated poisons of fatigue. Physiological processes turn pathological; the normal instruments of life become agents of death. Obviously, on this side of death, there is a wide range of injuries which metabolic products can inflict upon the human frame.

At this point the scientific interpretation of industrial problems advocated at the outset of this study becomes obvious enough. A flood of light is thrown upon the intricate injuries of speed, overtime, piece-work, and the like industrial requirements. For if fatigue be due to demonstrated chemical action, removable only by proper intervals of rest; if over-fatigue or exhaustion results from the accumulation of chemical fatigue products and the destruction of energy-yielding material in nerve and muscle tissue; if strain or labor carried on after fatigue has set in is proved to be more exhausting than simple work, and if muscular training outruns nervous strength, —then the need for the shorter work-day rests upon a scientific basis. Science makes out its case for the short day in industry.

We have found in the laws of fatigue a scientific basis for legislation, and an explanation of the effects of overwork on *health*. We may proceed now to seek in the same physiological laws an explanation of the effects of overwork on *output and production*. Just as the methods of the laboratory have yielded suggestive analogies in estimating the subjective fatigue of the worker, so they help to estimate the objective value of work accomplished. They explain why long and late hours of labor must physiologically result in lessened output.

This is the more important because regulation of the length of working hours has been so bitterly contested by those who feared that any lessening of the hours of labor meant a corresponding economic loss. From the first dawn of protective legislation in England over a century ago to the present day, the rallying cry for the most diverse-minded opponents of legislation has been the threatened ruin of industry and manufactures. Solemn or hysterical, an honest conviction, hypocritical, pseudo-scientific, this cry has been more or less successfully

invoked in every country, at every attempted advance, bringing with it all the rancors and bitterness through which the cause of legislation has been dragged. Yet the unconscious consensus of testimony from various states and countries on the economic benefits of the short day, recorded in official and unofficial documents, is in its turn as impressive as we found the unanimity of evidence on the physical effects of the long day.

The essential injury of overtime is due to what we have seen graphically proved with the ergograph: that effort increases with fatigue; that work continued after fatigue has set in requires so much more subsequent time for recuperation. But during a "rush" or overtime season such time for recuperation is necessarily lacking. The girl who is kept in the great department stores until ten or eleven or twelve o'clock at night during one or two frenzied weeks before the holiday which heralds the reign of Peace; the girl who works at fever heat all evening stitching women's shirtwaists in January for the spring trade, is not relieved from the necessity of reporting for work at seven or eight o'clock the next morning. She comes to work unrepaired, and with each day of overtime, accumulated fatigue necessarily grows.

One of the least known and most straining forms of overtime, for which Christmas is responsible, occurs in the auditing department of the great stores. One of the largest establishments in New York city, typical of the best stores, closes its doors to shoppers throughout the winter at six o'clock. But though girls who serve behind the counters may leave every night at their regular hour, other girls upstairs in the clerical department are kept until nine o'clock in the evening during more than two months, that is, from December 1 until February. They usually receive no extra pay for the three extra daily hours of work, but have an allowance of 35 cents each evening for supper money.

In theory, the requirement of overtime is supposed to be balanced by the slack period which often follows. A short period of over-exertion is assumed to be compensated by a subsequent let-up. But the slack period which often follows over-

time does not give the supposed opportunity for leisure and recuperation. It is itself a season of deprivation. For slack work means slack pay, with a consequent loss rather than gain in opportunities for recuperation.

But deeper than this objection to the alternation of overwork and idleness, is the physiological objection. During overtime, leisure and rest are cut down at the very same time that heavier and longer demands are made upon the human organism. It is practically inevitable that the metabolic balance should be thrown out of gear. Regular seasonal overtime in such occupations as those cited above, leaves the worker with too great a physiological deficit. There is no rebound, or an infinitely slow one when our elastic capacities have been too tensely stretched. It takes more time, rest, repair than the working girl can possibly afford to make good such metabolic losses. Compensation—off-time—comes too late. As we know instinctively, and as we have seen diagrammatically proved in the laboratory, the essential thing in rest is the *time at which it comes*. Rest postponed is rest more-than-proportionally deprived of virtue. Fatigue let run is a debt to be paid at compound interest. Maggiora showed that after a doubled task, muscle requires not double but four times as long a rest for recuperation, and a similar need for more-than-proportionally increased rest after excessive work is true also of our other tissues, and of our organism in its totality.

It has been shown that output and wages tend to rise rather than fall with shortened working hours, so that income is in the long run increased, not curtailed.

So far as regards temperance and the whole general tone of working communities, we need not rely on theories and speculations. We need only appeal to that body of historical fact to which we have so often turned for light. As a matter of fact, what has been the effect on working people of increased leisure? How have they, on the whole, spent the added hour or hours of freedom from work?

The answer to this question is, indeed, one of the most encouraging chapters in

industrial history: the response to opportunity, the rapidity with which working people have learned the uses of leisure. Where cynics prophesied mere drunken idleness and rowdyism, fairer observers found a kind of regeneration. There was no sudden millennium but wherever sufficient time has elapsed since the establishment of a more humane workday, allowing a wider margin of leisure, the workers have made extraordinary advance in physique and morals.

No thinking person can deny that in the last resort health is determined by the total standard of living; that besides long hours, poverty and low wages, unsanitary tenements and bad food, dirt and overcrowding, are the tangled causes of lowered vitality and illness among working people. Nor would we minimize the physical effects of mental distress and worry among workers who are only a few months off from real destitution, when a short loss of employment may mean starvation. We would freely grant all that our critics can possibly say of these evils. They cannot be too strongly stated. Yet, so far as the overworked are concerned, all these causes of distress might be removed—wages, food, housing, and sanitation, all be raised to a higher level—and yet the essential cause of breakdown would be untouched so long as the “few extra hours of work” remain, as our supposed critics would call them. The shorter workday and relief from overstrain are not in themselves the cure for the ills we have considered; but they are the *sine qua non* without which no other cure is possible or conceivable. Just because a fatigued person is a poisoned person, poisoned by the accumulation of his own waste products, nothing can fundamentally cure the exhausted worker which does not eliminate the cause for such accumulated poisoning. As we have seen, after exhaustion has set in nothing but rest and repose permits the organism to expel its poisons from day to day.

It is true that the psychologists tell us, and with them the nerve specialists, that to a certain degree the fatigue threshold may be made to shift; that we may discipline ourselves to endurance so as to tap new levels of energy, “masked until

then by the fatigue obstacle usually obeyed."

The most famous of American psychologists, William James, who was also one of the "best practical knowers of the human soul," has written upon this phenomenon of "second wind," in an essay of characteristic insight and felicity which has sometimes been quoted as though in defense of any kind of over-exertion. "Most of us may learn to push the barrier farther off, and to live in perfect comfort on much higher levels of power."

Why not assume, then, it has been argued, that the workers who are subject to industrial overpressure learn to push *their* fatigue barriers farther off and sustain the intensity of their tasks in proportion to their new found powers?

But such an argument strangely distorts the doctrine of second wind, which is something far deeper and more "qualitative" than a stress upon mere bodily exertions and activities.

Far from justifying even remotely the industrial strains and stresses such as we have been considering, James specifically limits his plea for deeper and more intensive living by the proviso "so long as decent hygienic conditions are preserved."

But our quarrel with the conditions of industrial labor is precisely that they are *not* "decent hygienic conditions." They are not normal media for human living, and they never can be so long as they continue to infract the first mandates of hygiene, the laws of metabolic equilibrium.

The habitually exhausted person scarcely profits from the increased food which larger wages afford, if after excessive work he literally cannot digest it. It has been too dearly bought. Indeed, what good to the worker are the higher standards,—better food, clothing, and shelter—so long as over-fatigue continues to limit or destroy his capacity of enjoying them?

Thus fatigue does mischief negatively as well as positively: lowering vitality and breeding disease is its active and positive aspect. Shutting out the exhausted from their rightful heritage, contracting, binding, inhibiting, is its nega-

tive. Other faculties suffer as well as the vital bodily functions. For as exhaustion nullifies the benefits of better food and shelter, so, too, it paralyzes the higher activities, all that feeds man's mental and spiritual needs. Fatigue so closes the avenues of approach within, that education does not educate, amusement does not amuse, nor recreation recreate. Books, pictures, music, play—all these enfranchisements of the spirit lose their power. "Our fires are damped, our drafts are checked." The wings of freedom are clipped, wings that soar above

the heavy and the weary weight
Of all this unintelligible world.

It is a truism that trade life in America has been shorter than in foreign countries, where the pace is slower. The race is to the swift in a sense never dreamt of before, and in our industries the swift are necessarily the young, even the very young. So long as immigration streams westward it may be expedient, from a narrow economic point of view, to press all workers to their physical limits, and to dismiss them as soon as efficiency shows signs of failing. What shall we say from the physiological or racial point of view?

We must bear in mind throughout that the essence of this newer view is its insistence on conserving the energies of men. In this the physiologist voices a larger, intrinsic demand of democracy itself. He cannot consider man's output separate from himself, nor this year's nor next year's efficiency apart from its effects on future health and energy. Ten years' continuance at a maximum pace is in itself no criterion at all for the physiologist. Even one whole generation is too short to measure the ravages of anti-physiological living; and when overwork unfits man or woman for normal parenthood, it is in a deep sense, anti-physiological and anti-social. It touches not alone the welfare but the very fiber of human society, that congregate "whole," which it should be our passionate concern to recognize, in the stirring words of the Supreme Court, as "no greater than the sum of all its parts," for "when the individual health, safety and welfare are sacrificed or neglected, the state must suffer."



MORRIS DANCING IN CHILDREN'S FÊTE.

ANDREW CARNEGIE'S ENDOWMENTS AT DUNFERMLINE

SAMUEL HARDEN CHURCH
TRUSTEE OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTE

Lovingkindness is a gentle, old-fashioned Bible word which always comes into my mind when I think of the good deeds that Andrew Carnegie is doing with his surplus wealth. It seems to me that lovingkindness goes much deeper into the domain of human tenderness than philanthropy does. At any rate, out of Mr. Carnegie's lovingkindness there has flowed a stream of self-disseminating power which will uplift weary mankind and smooth its wrinkled brow of care through many centuries to come.

It was surely the spirit of lovingkindness that inspired Mr. Carnegie, in the plenitude of his wealth, to provide a fund, now approximating \$4,000,000, for the benefit of the 27,000 people who compose the population of that historic Scottish town where he was born, Dunfermline. In making this gift, he declared it his wish that the endowment was "all to be used in attempts to bring into the monotonous lives of the toiling masses of Dunfermline more of sweetness and light; to give to them, especially the young, some charm, some happiness, some elevating conditions of life, which residence elsewhere would have denied;

that a child of my native town, looking back in after years, however far from home it may have roamed, will feel that simply by virtue of being such life has been made happier and better."

The men to whom he has entrusted this sacred fund have met their obligation with a spirit as broad as his own purpose. While not relieving the local school or municipal authorities of any of their duties, the trustees have provided the young people of the town with numerous facilities and enjoyments; many of which are rather far in advance of those required by the statutes, but all promoting the happiness and usefulness of human life. When, however, any of them is authorized by law, the Carnegie trustees cease to make provision for it. "It is not intended," said Mr. Carnegie, in his deed of trust, "that Dunfermline should be relieved from keeping herself abreast of other towns, generation after generation, according to the standards of the time." His endowment is to be used always in giving Dunfermline that which other cities do not have.

On my visit to Dunfermline, although



CARNEGIE'S BIRTHPLACE.

The Carnegie establishment consisted only of the attic flat on the left-hand side of the picture, and comprised one room and a small, roof-lighted box room. The room in which Andrew Carnegie was born is lighted by the left-hand attic window and the two small gable windows.

I am filled to the finger tips with Scottish romance, due, perhaps, to the atavism of my own Caledonian ancestry, it was not the tomb of Bruce nor the broken tower of Queen Margaret that first drew my feet. I wanted to see the rude cot in whose upper chamber my friend was born—the sole apartment which the Carnegie family could afford to rent; and when I had made my way up-stairs into the tiny room whose small space was further cramped by the slanting roof, and saw the pine shelf, smaller than a sleeping-car berth, in which the frugal mother had brought him into this breathing world, the spirit of poverty and all its chastening adversities swept like a flood over my heart. I knew then why he had provided for the happiness of those born poor like himself, though none now feels the biting tooth of destitution so keenly as he did in that long ago.

There have been times when the history of Dunfermline has been the history of Scotland. From the eleventh to the seventeenth century it was a favorite home of Scottish royalty, having a palace, a castle, and spacious grounds for kings to play in. Dunfermline is the Westminster of Scotland, for here lie the bones of more kings and queens and royal princes than in any other place in that country. Robert Bruce is buried

here—that patriot who shares with Sir William Wallace the worship of all lovers of Scotland. In Bruce's last days, when the power of life began to wane, his religious nature became quickened, and he was filled with remorse for all the blood he had shed. Fired at the last moment with the spirit of the crusades, which he had neglected in the days of his strength, he commanded his faithful follower, Sir James Douglas, to carry his heart to Palestine. Accordingly, in 1330, Douglas set out, bearing with him the embalmed heart of Bruce. Reaching Spain, he joined the Spanish army in an attack on the Moors, and was

slain with many of his followers. The tradition that he flung the heart of Bruce forward into the midst of his foes and bade his soldiers follow it there is probably not true in fact, although that was the spiritual purpose of having the royal heart in his hand. The heart of Bruce was recovered and brought back to Scotland with the body of Douglas, and was buried in Melrose Abbey.

But an older hero of Dunfermline is Malcolm Canmore, the conqueror of Macbeth. Macbeth was the son of Findlaech, who was a mormaer, or hereditary ruler of Scotland, in rank corresponding to an English earl. Findlaech was murdered in 1020 by one of his nephews, whose name happens to be Malcolm, but who must not be confused with Malcolm Canmore. As Macbeth was probably too young to assert his rights, Malcolm usurped the seat of Finlaech, but died some nine years later, and was succeeded as mormaer by Macbeth, who soon made himself one of the most powerful of the Scottish chiefs. In 1040 Duncan, who was then king of Scotland, while attempting to subdue the independent chiefs of the North, was slain by Macbeth—a very different fact from Shakespeare's gruesome tale. Duncan had shortly before suffered defeat at the hands of Thorfinn, the Norwegian earl of Orkney and Caithness, and it was per-

haps this event which tempted Macbeth to seize the throne. It is not clear that he had any claim to the crown except through his wife, Gruach, who appears to have been a member of the royal family. It is somewhat startling, in turning from the splendid dominion of Shakespearian imagination to the unembellished pages of history, to find that Macbeth was a generous benefactor of the church, and is said, though doubtfully, even to have made a pilgrimage to Rome in 1050. The chronicles of the time aver that Scotland prospered during his reign. More than one attempt

was made by members of the royal family to regain the throne, and in 1057 Macbeth was finally defeated and slain by Malcolm Canmore, a son of Duncan, who thereupon established his court at Dunfermline. Joan of Arc declared that one of the voices that called her to deliver France was that of Saint Margaret of Dunfermline, the wife of Malcolm Canmore; and when they told me that I knelt in deeper piety beside the grave in Dunfermline Abbey where Margaret sleeps; yet no voice heard I out of that eternal silence. In a more remote past the town was the center of



IN PITTENCRIEFF GLEN.



CARNEGIE BATHS, DUNFERMLINE.

Scotland's monastic life, and within one great wall were its abbey, the abbott's house,• cloisters, refectory, chapter house, and libraries, all bordered with orchard lawns and enchanting gardens. Among these relics of royal splendor is the king's palace, at Pittencrieff Glen. The ancient trees, the rolling turf, the tumbling brook, the awesome cave, the old castle—all these, and the very atmosphere itself embodying the spirit of Scottish romance—seemed ever to challenge the boys of Dunfermline to enter the magic grounds. Yet the law forbade it; and it was the hunger in his youthful heart, yearning to enter this forbidden land, which prompted Mr. Carnegie to purchase Pittencrieff Glen and make it a park free to all the people forever. On a gala day when I was there I heard and saw the merry-making of ten thousand people, who, but for his lovingkindness, would have been shut out from this wonder-world of beauty and charm.

In his inexhaustible giving at Dunfermline, there has been nothing that can rob decent poverty of its self-respect. The whole scheme tends to elevate the mass in such nice adjustment that the individual can nowhere detect that he is favored more than his fellows, yet all

feel irresistibly the beneficent influence of the endowment. There is nothing that it does not touch. The baths register 90,000 bathers in one year, the interest in this salutary sport being stimulated by a number of swimming clubs, with prizes allowed for exercises in life-saving and water-polo. Great attention is paid to instruction in life-saving, and the competitions between the Dunfermline crews and those of other coast towns have brought many awards to the Carnegie contestants. In the past year the Royal Life Saving Society has granted to pupils who were instructed in the Carnegie baths sixty-one certificates, eighteen medallions, three instructor's certificates, three teacher's certificates, and one badge of merit. Elizabeth S. Lauder, of Pittsburgh, has recently presented the baths with a handsome silver cup to be called the Lauder Swimming and Life-Saving Trophy for Girls, and a silver shield to be called the Lauder Swimming and Life-Saving Trophy for Boys, both of which are to be competed for annually among the public schools of Dunfermline. The girls' trophy is awarded for graceful swimming, neat diving, and life-saving, and medals are given to the first and second competitors. The boys'



BALDRIDGEBURN INSTITUTE.

trophy is competed for by teams of four from any one school, and a team race is added to the subjects of competition, each boy of the successful team receiving a medal. The sanitary condition of the water in the pools is secured by constantly running water, which is first passed through filters. This course is making swimmers and life-savers of nearly the whole juvenile population.

The gymnasium has 500 pupils in almost constant exercise, and all the children are privileged to enter the classes for recreational gymnastics, dancing, and games. The provision of a special gymnasium in connection with the high school proved to be of great benefit in the work. The uninteresting nature of purely artificial exercise is overcome by the increased attention given to the organization of games, and the importance of play as nature's best method of physical development is insisted upon. The games promoted by the gymnasium include football, hockey, and cricket; and last year a Dunfermline team represented Scotland in the International Hockey Match between Scotland and Wales. Even after the boys leave school they are encouraged to continue their sports under the supervision of the Gymnasium Games Club. Dances are given in the

parks in summer, with thousands participating, the most popular of these being the Maypole dance, when the May Queen is chosen and crowned with almost as much ceremony as Ivanhoe used in the immortal tournament of Ashby-de-la-Zouche.

The college of hygiene provides complete medical inspection and treatment for all the children, and aims to correct all physical ailments, from malformed teeth to a crooked spine. A school nurse was appointed by the trustees, and while there was at first some anxiety and suspicion on the part of the mothers, the patience and tact of the school nurse soon overcame all opposition, and she is now the confidant and friend of all the girls and all their mothers. A school clinic, approved by all the physicians of the town, was recently opened for dealing with cases among the poor which require simple but skilled treatment that cannot be given at home, as also for dealing with any delicate cases of slovenliness. Those who are able to hire a physician do not come, yet there are sometimes more than one hundred cases treated in a day. The instruction is carried from the clinic to the home, and the mother is then instructed how to continue such care of the case as may be



TOWNHILL INSTITUTE, INTERIOR.

necessary. In many instances, such as ear cases, prolonged treatment is required in order to produce lasting results; and the clinic has disclosed an extraordinary amount of preventible suffering existing among the children of the town. The success in this field induced the trustees to provide a dental clinic, which at present is dealing only with the transition period from first to second dentition; but this has already proved to be so advantageous that arrangements are under way to cover the whole requirements of the teeth.

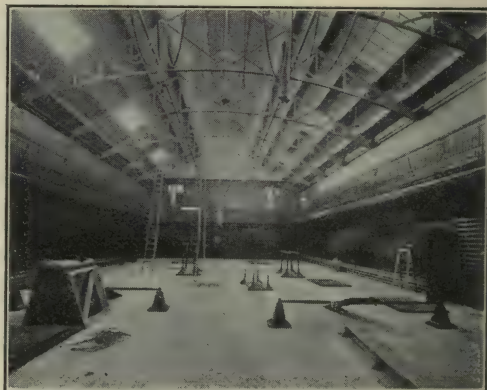
The college of hygiene has also a department for training teachers of physical exercises for the public schools of Scotland, and many young men and women from Dunfermline have found lucrative places from that source. There were forty-six students in the teachers' training class last year, sixteen men and thirty women, and many applications for admission had to be refused. The course of training requires two years, and during that time the students render useful service in the schools of the town.

District institutes have been organized to provide the villages that lie within the corporate boundaries of Dunfermline with as much of the general benefit of the fund as may be practicable. Thus the little mining hamlets of Townhill, Baldrigeburn, and Kingseat find themselves equipped with reading and billiard rooms, circulating libraries, and committee rooms, with bowling greens adjoining these club houses. Their libraries are periodically replenished with

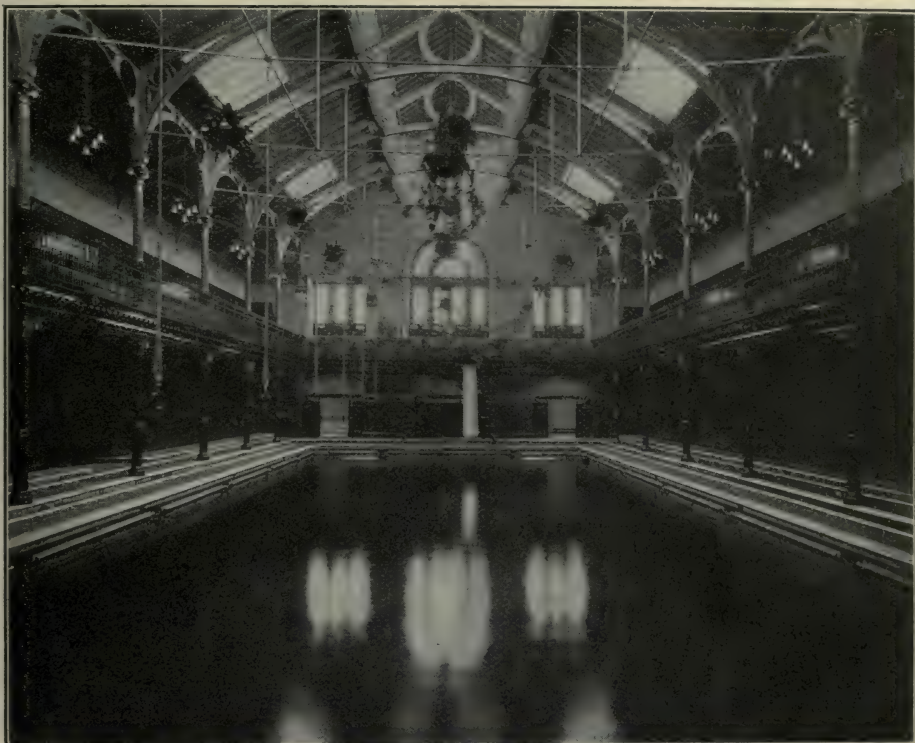
books from the Dunfermline central library. Other district institutes are now being arranged for in localities where women will be especially benefited by them, and where there will be classes in cookery, sewing, dress-making, sick nursing, and domestic economy generally, besides the most desirable processes of recreation and social enjoyment. In all of these district institutes there are commodious assembly rooms where lectures, concerts, recitations, charades, and other entertainments are given.

The school of music, with its elocution and dramatic departments, has now 522 students enrolled, and it occupies an important place among the agencies that contribute to the advancement of culture in that community. The pupils are classified in this way: piano, 137; violin and viola, seventy-three; organ, eighteen; violincello, two; wind instruments, twenty-four; harmony, theory, and thorough bass, nine; singing, thirty-seven; ladies' choir, forty-eight; operatic choir and class, seventy-one; elocution and dramatic classes, 103. These students have organized two orchestras, which meet each week for the practice of concerted music. They also render valuable service by supplying orchestral music in connection with many concerts and entertainments given by students of the school of music. For the more advanced work, however, professional accompaniment is furnished. Recently the students gave a performance of the opera of Maritana to a crowded house in St.

Margaret's hall, and this success was fol-



CARNEGIE GYMNASIUM.



POND HALL, CARNEGIE BATHS.

lowed by three performances of Gilbert and Sullivan's opera *Iolanthe* before large audiences in the opera house. Many less elaborate entertainments are given in the school of music and in the district institutes. Children in the public schools who are not old enough to take the courses in this school are taught the rudimentary steps in singing and reading music, the theory being that the faculty of musical appreciation is a universal endowment, and that it should be cultivated so that it may lead to the greatest possible advantage of the greatest possible number. The school has a capable band which gives free concerts in the parks eight times a week from May to September, a feature which is highly appreciated by the entire community, and is doing much to develop a correct taste among the people. When cold weather comes, free concerts are given in the drill hall every Saturday evening, their object being to provide at-

tractive and wholesale recreation for the crowds who throng the streets on Saturday evenings. Last winter, there were 35,821 admissions to these concerts, giving an average attendance of 1,557 for each evening. Other concerts were given on Saturday evenings in the model lodging-house, with an average attendance of eighty. The dramatic class has recently produced two plays, the Professor's Love Story, by J. M. Barrie, and Cupid and Commonsense, by Arnold Bennett. Both plays were performed in the opera house to large audiences, Mr. Bennett's play being repeated by general request. Members of the elocution classes frequently take part in the various entertainments, and have shown great facility in memorizing their parts. There are now eleven class-rooms in the school of music, and all are fully occupied during the winter evenings.

A school of the arts and crafts teaches the students the actual production of



GYMNASTIC DISPLAY, PITTENCRIEFF PARK.

Pittencrieff House in background, now used as old men's club and museum. General Forbes, who captured Fort Duquesne and named the spot "Pittsburgh," was born in this house.

useful and ornamental works of art, such as can be made in metal work, jewelry, enameling, wood-carving, painting and decorating, modeling, writing, illuminating, and lithography; and there are 107 students employed at these handicrafts, of whom seventy are young men, and thirty-seven young women. The night courses open the advantages of the school to those of the students who are employed during the day, and who find the instruction given here a valuable means of enabling them to add to their skill and proficiency as joiners, cabinet-makers, house painters, designers, and handicraftsmen generally, and so of improving their prospects in life. The cumulative effect of the advantages of these studies is shown in the embellishments which the students make in their own homes. While learning these little arts, the student may give free reign to his imagination, and is permitted to exercise any special taste with which he may be gifted, so that he is soon made to realize one of the greatest pleasures of life, the joy of producing through the operations of his own faculties. No set standard of artistic attainment is demanded, the only entrance qualification being that each student shall undertake to use to the utmost the facilities which are freely offered to him. In the opinion of competent judges, the work produced is of a high order in respect to both workmanship and design.

Through the operations of a school of horticulture the trustees recognize the importance of fostering an interest in flowers and in gardening. They begin with the children in the schools, and last year 23,000 of the best flowering bulbs were sold to school children at nominal prices, in order that they might grow them in their homes during the winter months. In the summer a flower show is held, and numerous prizes are awarded to the most successful growers who bring flowers from their own beds. While the bulbs are growing, the children are asked to make drawings of them at various stages of their growth. This serves the two-fold purpose of a useful exercise in drawing and of training them to observe carefully and accurately the process of growth and of development from the bulb to the full-grown flower. A large number of sets of drawings of this kind were exhibited at the flower show, many of them being awarded prizes, and the care with which they had been executed showed the hearty and intelligent spirit with which the children had entered into the work. Botany is naturally a part of the instruction in this department. The fame of this flower show, and the generosity with which prizes are given, attract growers from all parts of the United Kingdom, yet an impartial committee awards many honors to the Dunfermline competitors. A popular feature of this exhibition is a collection of flow-

ers sent annually from Skibo Castle by Mrs. Carnegie. The cultivation of gardens in connection with dwelling houses is encouraged by the presentation of prizes which are offered for flower gardens, flower pots, and window boxes. The miners at Townhill and Kingseat are also stimulated to pursue this beautiful work. In the autumn a chrysanthemum show is held, to which all interested growers make contributions.

The home circulation of books from the libraries at Dunfermline amounted to 125,000 volumes last year, and the mental structure of the population is shown by the classification of these books, as follows: Philosophy and theology, 2,240; sociology, 1,269; science and art, 4,292; poetry and general literature, 2,705; history, biography, and travel, 4,366; miscellaneous, 16,237; and, of course, fiction, 55,844. Yet in this great group of fiction it is a pleasing thing to learn that books of merely ephemeral interest are not often purchased, and therefore nearly the whole fiction circulation is of the works of standard authors. Besides, the fiction circulation, as shown by these figures, is only about 45 per cent of the total, which is the lowest proportion I

have ever found in any popular library, the general average of fiction running nearer to 75 per cent in most institutions of the kind; and Lord Morley, in his essay on Literature, remarks that he found the circulation of fiction at some libraries in the English towns as high as 80 per cent. With the rapid growth of education and the cheaper cost of books, reading is becoming more and more one of the great influences of life, and special attention is given to the proper cultivation of this habit among the children. Lectures are given on books that have influenced great men and women, and the same books are recommended to the Dunfermline readers, with the object of stirring their emulation.

The presence of all these amiable institutions cannot fail to exercise a wholesome influence upon the entire community; and this tendency is further promoted by the recreations which are a part of the general scheme, including games of all kinds in Pittencrieff park and Venturefair park; the bowling greens, band concerts, public lectures and recitations, and the prize awards for excellence in study and in sport. Among



GYMNASTIC DISPLAY, PITTENCRIEFF PARK.

these prizes are scholarships at the university, where eight families may each have one of its sons every year. Annual excursions embracing some 600 pupils are conducted in small parties by the teachers to neighboring places of historical interest, such as Edinburgh, Stirling, Saint Andrews, Loch Lomond, and the Trossachs. Then the working lads are taken in similar parties on weaving, mining, and engineering excursions to the representative centers of each industry.

Much more could be said. But I have jotted down, in an imperfect way, some of the activities which have been set in

motion by this stupendous benefaction. When I was there, the multitudinous energies of the work amazed me. Better than all, its practical helpfulness was visible in every point of contact with the population. And thus, in the best way, Mr. Carnegie's endowment does bring "more of sweetness and light" into the "monotonous lives of the toiling masses of Dunfermline." And so it is that this community of aspiring souls grows up in a larger measure of happiness, and with better opportunities of life, than any other in Scotland, because of Mr. Carnegie's spirit of lovingkindness.

THE INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD

WILLIAM E. BOHN

[The Lawrence strike has brought the revolutionary labor organization known as the Industrial Workers of the World to national attention. Many of the statements as to its purpose and history which have appeared in the press have been contradictory and inaccurate. Dr. Bohn was one of the university men identified with the I. W. W. in its initial stages, and is one of the closest students of the labor movement here and abroad. He took his doctor's degree at the University of Michigan and later studied at the University of Paris. At the request of THE SURVEY he has prepared this statement of the development of the Industrial Workers of the World, and especially the Chicago group which has factored at Lawrence, from the viewpoint of a sympathetic observer. Mr. Brooks' article, reprinted from the Boston Evening Transcript in THE SURVEY of April 6, gives an estimate from another angle.]

Vincent St. John, secretary-treasurer of the Industrial Workers of the World,¹ wrote me in February, while the Lawrence strike was on, that this organization had enrolled some 15,000 members. The Detroit I. W. W. is probably even smaller. Yet a morning paper heads an elaborate article on these organizations: The New Socialism That Threatens the Social System. That the editor responsible for this head does not stand alone in his estimate of the I. W. W. movement is indicated by countless expressions of opinion which have appeared in the public prints since the Lawrence strike.

What is there about the I. W. W. movement which entitles it to the place

which it holds in our public consciousness at the present moment? The first thing that an unprejudiced observer has his attention drawn to is the unfaltering devotion of its adherents. He sees hundreds of men and women living as best they can wherever they can do most for their cause. They go from place to place, taking whatever jobs they happen to find and everywhere preach industrial unionism. He sees a so-called free-speech fight declared in Spokane or San Diego. Instantly men and women drop their tools and take to the "blind-baggage," if need be, to reach the field of battle. To represent their cause they face bayonets and bullets and prison sentences. If he calls them martyrs, they laugh in his face. The observer remembers that the influence of religious and reform movements has not been at all in

¹For the sake of clearness throughout this article Industrial Workers of the World will be used in reference to the organization with headquarters at Chicago. The other organization, which goes by the same name and which has headquarters in Detroit, will be called the Detroit I. W. W.

proportion to their numbers, their wealth, or even their intelligence. And he may think he has discovered the secret of the great stir industrial unionism has made in the world.

But if our observer looks a little deeper he will discover that industrial unionism represents a social ideal, and that it is this ideal which arouses a zeal almost fanatical among its supporters and an opposition deep-seated and energetic among certain other sections of our population. The nature of this ideal can best be shown by a contrast between the industrial union and its predecessor, the craft union. Most of the labor unionists in America belong to craft unions, that is, to unions each one of which includes only members of a single trade. Most of these unions have what are called international organizations, for they cover Canada as well as the United States. The International Molders' Union or the United Hatters of North America will serve as examples. These international unions are loosely federated in the American Federation of Labor.

The ideal which they embody is best expressed in the current phrase, "a fair day's wage for a fair day's work." Anyone who seeks further definition may be put off with the old saw, "eight hours' work, eight hours' play, eight hours' sleep, and four dollars a day." All this means, of course, that the older form of unionism does not contemplate any change in our present wage system. It aims merely to improve the condition of the workers within the limits of this system. According to the methods of this unionism, moreover, each craft fights by itself and secures in trade agreements what it can. If it can raise its wages above those of another craft, so much the better for it.

Industrial unionism, on the contrary, has for its method the joining of all the workers into "one big union," and for its aim the overthrow of the wage system.

Both aim and method can best be explained by a glance at the history of this organization. It must be said, in the first place, that it did not come into being as the result of any foreign influence. It is distinctly an American product, differ-

ing in important respects from any European union which antedated it. It was preceded in America, moreover, by a number of powerful organizations which embodied the same, or similar, ideals. The old Knights of Labor constituted a "mass" organization rather than an "industrial" union, but at any rate it was not organized along craft lines. The American Railway Union, which conducted the great Pullman strike in 1894, and the Western Federation of Miners, which conducted the Colorado strike ten years later, were the real representatives of industrial unionism in its early days. Besides these there were the Socialist Trade and Labor Alliance, a revolutionary union under the influence of the Socialist Labor Party, and a number of unions within the American Federation of Labor which were revolutionary in spirit and as nearly industrial in form as the federation permitted them to be.

In 1904 six men prominently identified with various industrial or semi-industrial unions met in Chicago and issued a call for a larger conference to thirty-six persons who were chosen as representatives of the more progressive union spirit. This was the beginning of the I. W. W. The second conference met at Chicago during the opening days of January, 1905. The result of its deliberations was the call for a convention to meet in Chicago on June 27. Among those who signed this call were William D. Haywood and Charles H. Moyer of the Western Federation of Miners, Charles O. Sherman of the United Metal Workers, William E. Trautmann of the Brewery Workmen, and representatives of the American Labor Union, the Brotherhood of Railway Employees, the Switchmen's Union of North America, the International Musical Union, and the Bakery and Confectionery Workers.

The first I. W. W. convention met at the time and place designated. There were in attendance 186 delegates. They represented, nominally, some 90,000 members; but it is probable that about half the membership of their various organizations existed only on paper. The famous "preamble" adopted by this body became the official gospel of industrial

unionism in the United States and has not been without influence beyond our borders. The key sentences of this historic document read as follows:

The working-class and the employing class have nothing in common. . . . Between these two classes a struggle must go on until all the toilers come together on the political as well as the industrial field, and take and hold that which they produce by their labor through an economic organization of the working class without affiliation with any political party. . . . Conditions can be changed and the interests of the working class upheld only by an organization formed in such a way that all members in any one industry, or in all industries, if necessary, cease work whenever a strike or a lockout is on in any department thereof, thus making an injury to one an injury to all.

In place of "a fair day's wage for a fair day's work," this document gave currency to three slogans of quite different import, "industrial freedom," "one big union," and "an injury to one an injury to all." The constitution elaborated at this first convention provided for the organization of the working class in thirteen departments according to industries. There was to be, e. g., a department of food products, one of transportation, etc. In each of these departments all workers having to do with the industry involved were to be united regardless of trade or craft. So far as possible this plan of organization has been put into operation.

The history of the I. W. W. has been a checkered one. Among all the internal feuds by which it has been rent, however, only one demands attention here. Among certain elements there appeared from the very beginning a disposition to resent leadership by men prominently identified with either of the two socialist parties. Very early in the history of the organization the best known members representing the Socialist Party withdrew. This left certain Socialist Labor Party men as the only members who strongly advocated political activity in connection with economic action. These were charged with attempting to make the union subordinate to the political party. On their part they charged their opponents with the intention of turning the organization over to anarchists and direct

actionists. In the convention of 1908 this cleavage finally resulted in a definite split. Daniel DeLeon and a number of other elected delegates were denied seats in the convention. At least one delegate who had been regularly seated withdrew and cast his lot with those who had been ejected. The latter met at Paterson, N. J., on November 1, and organized a separate body under the same name. This organization now has headquarters at Detroit, Mich.

After the ejection of Mr. DeLeon and his sympathizers the convention of 1908 proceeded to amend the official preamble to the I. W. W. constitution by eliminating from it any reference to political action. It was maintained that this was done, not because the members did not believe in the uses of political activity, but because it was deemed desirable to escape entirely from the influence of politics and politicians. The members of the Detroit I. W. W., on the contrary, branded the members of the original organization as anarchists and set themselves up as the real representatives of the spirit and purpose which animated the industrial union movement at the time of its inception. The fact that they have retained the original preamble gives some weight to their contentions. In their agitation they lay stress on political activity as an absolutely necessary complement of economic activity in the struggle against the wage system. Until very recently this organization has been negligible from the point of view of numbers. It has, however, made up in energy what it has lacked in numbers, and the strike among the New Jersey silk weavers which it is conducting at present is adding greatly to its numerical strength.

Nothing less than a volume would suffice for an adequate discussion of the theories and tactics of the industrial union movement. The craft union movement developed at a time when individual crafts improved their conditions and wages by fighting individual employers. Since then industry has developed to the point at which the great trust controls production. One concern, or one combination of concerns, frequently employs a dozen or more crafts. With each

craft separately organized, and with all the crafts bound by contracts no two of which expire at the same time, it is impossible for labor to meet capital on terms of equality in the great struggle of collective bargaining. The organization of industry is proceeding with giant strides. The organization of labor must constantly re-adapt itself to new conditions. Under these circumstances it is not at all remarkable that there should be the widest divergence of opinion among labor union members. Besides differing as do all individuals of any class in intelligence and temperament, they differ in accordance with the varying degrees of development which mark their various trades or industries. In spite of all divergence, however, certain general statements hold true of all those who properly call themselves industrial unionists.

(1) They all believe in the "one big union."

(2) They all refuse to bind themselves by means of contracts with their employers. Believing, as they do, that there is an inevitable and continuous struggle between employers and employed, it seems to them that a contract is a truce with their natural enemy, a truce, moreover, which gives him all the advantage. It must be remembered, in this connection, that no employer ever binds himself not to discharge a workman.

(3) They all believe that all workers should be brought into the union. On this account they are opposed to high fees and long apprenticeships. They reason that since the introduction of machinery is rapidly reducing all workers to the level of unskilled laborers it is best to recognize absolute community of interests once for all. To them union men who boost their own wages by refusing to allow others to learn their trade are as much traitors to their class as the lowest-priced strike-breaker.

(4) They do not insist upon the closed shop. To them this savors of collusion with the employer. The common arrangement in accordance with which the employer collects union dues appears to them a sure sign that the union has surrendered to the capitalist and will be expected to return certain favors for those received.

(5) They all believe that the great weapon of the working class on the economic field is the well timed, energetically conducted strike. Not being bound by contracts they can strike without notice and at the moment when a tie-up will do the employer most harm. This belief in the power of the strike extends, naturally, to faith in the ultimate

efficacy of the general strike. But the general strike must be preceded, of course, by equally "general" industrial union education and organization.

(6) They all believe that they have here and now the nucleus of the industrial commonwealth in the industrial union.

This last point requires a special word of explanation. Industrial unionists accept the theory, first advanced by the socialists, that labor, working in conjunction with the forces of nature, produces all commodities. Since there is manifestly enough produced for all, it follows from this postulate that the laborer now finds himself poor because someone else, someone not a laborer, interposes and takes possession of a part of the commodities produced. Reasoning thus, the laborer arrives very soon at the conclusion that the thing for him to do is to take and hold what he produces. But to do this he must control the factory, the mine, the machine by means of which he produces. So far the industrial unionists and the old-fashioned political socialists are at one. But at this point practically all revolutionists, all those who are bent on replacing our present capitalist system with an industrial commonwealth, divide into three tolerably well defined groups, (1) "Pure-and-simple" political socialists, (2) Direct actionists, (3) Those who believe in combined and co-ordinated political and economic activity.

The merely political socialist, called a "pure-and-simpler" in the technical jargon of the socialist movement, believes that the workers should join in a political party, gain possession of the machinery of government in the regular way, and then, by means of the governmental machinery already provided, take over the chief industries and operate them for the benefit of the whole body of citizens. In his mind the labor union is useful only as far as it makes the position of the worker tolerable under the present system and helps to educate him in the direction of socialism. In his industrial commonwealth there will be no place for unionism.

The direct actionist believes that political organization is but a reflex of industrial organization. In his view in-

dustry is at the heart of our social life. He reasons, moreover, that it is industry that he understands. He works every day in the shop; it is there that he turns out his product and there that he receives his pay. It is there that he exerts his social force. It is there, consequently, that he can bring his greatest force to bear. Then why go outside the shop to get what he wants? Why not take his product at the point where he produces it? Why not fight the employer by withdrawing at an opportune time the only thing which he has and which the employer cannot do without, that is, labor-power? "If I go into politics," he reasons, "I am on the enemy's ground; he knows the tricks of his own political game; there he can deceive me. But in the shop, where I know my ground, I can make my fight with hope of success." In connection with this point, it should be remembered that millions of American workers are permanently debarred from the exercise of the right of franchise. There are among these all of the women workers except those in the equal franchise states, foreigners who cannot satisfy the naturalization laws, and a vast body of male workers who, because of the shifting nature of their employment, can never satisfy the residence requirements for the exercise of the right of franchise. In the West there are hundreds of thousands of so-called "blanket-men" who are forced to work in one region during the summer and in another during the winter. Most of these have never voted and never expect to. It is significant that the Industrial Workers of the World has always been strongest among the unfranchised workers on our eastern coast and the disfranchised workers on our western coast.

As between the political socialist and the direct actionist there is involved, moreover, a difference in ultimate purpose. The latter looks forward, not to government ownership, but to the control of each industry by the workers in that industry. To him divisions of voters into states and districts are as nothing; divisions of workers into industries are everything. He reasons that if ever the workers are to run the industries for their own benefit each worker must help

run the industry which he understands. It is probable that there are very few who have followed this line of thought to its ultimate conclusions. The French and Italian Syndicalists who have done so have arrived at rather startling conclusions. In their vision of the society of the future they see autonomous industries, each controlled by its own set of workers. And among these autonomous industries, among these separate sets of workers they see competition, a free play which allows the working out of the law of supply and demand on such a grand scale as was never before conceived.

Our third group of revolutionists, those who believe in supplementary political and economic activity, represent all the possible shades of variation which can be imagined between the "pure-and-simplers," on the one hand, and the direct actionists on the other. The best representatives of the group, however, hold that the positive, constructive labor of revolution must be carried on by the industrial union protected and encouraged, "aided and abetted," by a revolutionary political party. The "political wing" as it is called in working class circles, is to get the majority at the ballot box and then use the power of legislatures, courts, police, and army in an effort to insure peace and order during the process of revolutionary transformation. Incidentally, of course, the joining of all workers in one political party will teach the highest sort of class solidarity.

The ultimate ideals of this group are well defined by George Harvey:¹

Industrial unionism is "laying the foundations of industrial republican society. Each necessary organ (industrial union) shall be built cell by cell (worker by worker). The connecting link shall not be wanting, for it emerges as the result of the class basis of the unions. Under capitalism the functions of the unions are aggressive; under the industrial republic they will be administrative only. This change of function will involve no internal transformation in the union, as it is precisely those powers whereby it can inflict injury on the capitalist class that will enable it to take up the work of production. . . . The political government—based on property and territorial division—shall cease

¹See pamphlet entitled INDUSTRIAL UNIONISM AND THE MINING INDUSTRY.

to be when the revolution has been accomplished, and an industrial parliament—based on the equal right of all producers and democratically elected—shall take its place. The parliament will be made up of delegates from the ranks of the workers, representing industries and the workers engaged therein, and not property and territory.”

It will be observed that the term “direct-actionist” has been used in reference to a person who believes in bringing about a social revolution by means of labor union activity. Because of the fact that a loose employment of this term in the public press has connected it especially with the resort to violent means in the conduct of labor wars, a special word must be added on this head. A direct-actionist may, or may not, believe that violent measures are justifiable in the fight against capitalism. It is safe to say that all the members of the Detroit I. W. W. are consistently opposed to violence. It is equally safe to say that thousands of socialists who believe in industrial unionism are opposed to violence. Moreover, very many of the members of the Industrial Workers of the World are also opposed to violence. Some of the members of the latter organization, however, believe that violence is always justifiable and sometimes more effective than any other means. This is not because they are temperamentally violent persons; not because they enjoy violence. They reason that laws are passed by their enemy, the capitalist, in his own interest; therefore they are not morally bound to obey them. On the other hand, violence is freely used against them, and it is necessary to fight fire with fire.

The reasoning with regard to sabotage is somewhat different. Sabotage is not necessarily violent in character. If a working-man ruins a machine by not oiling it or confuses the express service by consigning goods to the wrong station, he may be entirely peaceful the while. In fact he may not be breaking any law. This is sabotage. Nobody knows how many American workers believe in these tactics. But those who do believe in them have made their point

of view sufficiently clear in public addresses and in the press of the Industrial Workers of the World. They say to themselves: The capitalist is in business to make money; the thing for us to do is to strike him in his weakest spot, his pocket-book; this is one natural way of bringing our economic power to bear; all is fair in love and war, and the class-struggle is war.

These paragraphs have been devoted almost exclusively to the Industrial Workers of the World and the Detroit I. W. W. But it must not be imagined that industrial unionism in America is limited to these organizations. For good or ill the industrial union spirit is taking possession of our working people with a speed which is constantly out-running the most careful estimates. The Western Federation of Miners now belongs to the American Federation of Labor, but it still includes all but one or two crafts employed about the mines, and in spirit it is revolutionary. The United Mine Workers of America are not far behind it. While still holding to the principle of trade agreements their organization is essentially industrial in form. Steps have been taken toward bringing these two organizations into a great mining department of the federation. Large sections of the old craft unions now favor industrial unionism. Hitherto unorganized workers are constantly exhibiting a leaning toward the new movement. The Socialist Party has steadily refrained from any official pronouncement on the subject of industrial unionism, and many of its most prominent members have maintained an extremely critical attitude toward the Industrial Workers of the World. But there can be no doubt of the fact that the great majority of American socialists are in favor of the principle of industrial unionism. It is possible that neither the Industrial Workers of the World nor the Detroit I. W. W. will ever become numerically important. But the principle of industrial unionism is becoming increasingly a power in the land.

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

VIII

SURVIVAL AND REVIVAL OF NEIGHBORSHIP

GRAHAM TAYLOR

There have been neighbors as long as there have been human beings on earth. It is hard to tell whether families or neighborhoods came first. In the earliest times single family groups could not safely live far enough apart to be separated at all. So people of the same kinship formed larger "households," which the tribal villages were called. From this rootage in kin there blossomed the whole cluster of fragrant, fruitful relationships, reciprocities, personal and associated interactions, expressed by the familiar words kindred, kind, kindness, the contents of which have enriched almost every human life and made every spot on earth where they have rooted and flowered more homelike and heavenly.

Neighbors were those next to each other, both in kinship and locality. To be next to another was to owe him something, and to have some rights which he was bound to respect. Neighborly obligations were as sacred as those of religion. Indeed, the most ancient faiths found their highest expression in kinship and its neighborhood. Even after the tribes and kindreds began to mingle and merge with each other, neighborliness survived. It is therefore our most primitive possession, our most ancient treasure, the heritage of the race, the one thing common to all who share the same origin, and to all of different origins who live near each other.

By an instinct as primitive as this racial possession we shrink from losing it. It lingers, however, more among the poor than among the rich, more among the plain people than the so-called privileged class, more among those who have only a "common school education" than among those who are said to have a "liberal education." Whatever other forms of association we substitute for this old-time neighborhood, the loss of it is the

tragedy of our new times. This loss is accounted for by the substitution of artificial relations for this instinctive natural relationship. It is due chiefly to the different ways in which most of us in modern times make our living. In the olden times, people lived in small communities, where they all knew each other and neighbors lived and worked together. Neighborhood was partnership—at least to some extent. Now modern industry has swept thousands, even millions, away from their old belongings. Immigration fortuitously mixes people of many languages and races, both in smaller and larger places, in country and city communities. The adult generations of native and foreign people, thus literally thrown together, cannot mingle with each other, and never would, were it not for their children's ministry of interpretation and mediation. They cannot understand each other's language, customs, antecedents, ideals, except as their children act their part as natural linguists and interpreters of the universal and the human. The stranger in the strange land is almost the commonest figure we meet, almost the commonest experience the newest or the oldest of us have. For in many places where there are many more newcomers than long-stayers, the experience of an Irish neighbor becomes common, and "the longer one stays, the more of a stranger one becomes." The immigrant family is not more a stranger in a strange land than is the native country family which moves into the city. Both feel utterly lost and alone.

Although more interdependent than ever, the subdivisions of labor and the divisive interests they introduce, divide people of the same community more than ever. Other centers than those of the neighborhood gather some together and isolate others. Seasonal or intermittent occupations, temporary jobs, commercial

depressions, occasional unemployment, and a general sense of the lack of permanency in the tenure of their industrial positions, pull settled families up by the roots and seldom leave them long enough in one place to take root again. Our manual workers are more and more transient. Many among them are forced to become tramping families. More and more men leave their families for a whole season of work in distant parts of the country, or even in foreign lands. When times are dull, or the "season" is over, they try to make their way "back home." More and more of these wandering multitudes of men go back and forth from foreign lands to America, neither they nor their families being at home anywhere. The family can thus afford less household equipment. They have less at stake in living anywhere.

What it means for the family group thus to lose attachments with others and live detached from their fellows, few of us who have never approached this experience can imagine. At first it may drive father, mother, and children closer together, but only at first. For after a little while, one or another member of the family craves a larger life than its own little home circle can afford. As its community of interests narrows and shrivels, each member of the family turns instinctively outward, or shrinks up within a hermit self. Instead of going together they go apart. Instead of having friends in common, they form individual friendships, which other members of the family do not share. Americanized children often grow to be ashamed of their foreign-born parents. The education of the second generation becomes the tragedy of the self-sacrificing first generation. Parents become more dependent upon even their little children, to interpret to them the strange language and strange ways of the strange land, than the children are dependent upon their parents. There is no more pathetic figure in America than the immigrant mother desperately clinging to her littlest children to keep them all her own, while she vainly struggles to keep pace with her older children who are growing away from her. Worse still, some of these children and youth who thus have to

grow up alone even at home, or, still more tragically, away from home, yield to the temptations which appeal to the lonely life and feed the starved heart with the stones of impersonal relations and try to live on lusts instead of the bread of natural affection.

Under these unnatural conditions, it is almost impossible for neighborhood to exist, or even for the family to survive. Racial antipathies array fellow immigrants against each other. Suspicions born of the ignorance of strangers' ways, keep at arm's length, or bring only within striking distance, the native and foreign-born citizens of the same town.

These are some of the factors and forces of our industrial era that destroy neighborhood and disintegrate families. Temporariness characterizes every feature and prospect of such a population. The thought of staying in a tenement, or on the street, or in the district in which they have first landed, or where they are not succeeding well, is intolerable to those who have aspirations for themselves or their children. Truancy is as natural as the school is new to the pupil and strange to the parent. Neighborly fellowship, the Sunday School and church connection, too easily seem not worth while, when the family expects to move in a month or two, or not later than next spring. No provision is made by the parent for the play of the child, the pleasure of youth, the social relation of the sexes in a majority of homes. These recreations become as little and low, as unsatisfying and questionable, as dangerously exciting and demoralizing as they are merely for the moment, or on the spot, as they are provided to catch only the loose penny, the idle hour, and the purposeless and detached mind. Thus people lose their sense of belonging to anything or anybody, to the neighborhood, the craft fellowship, the church membership, to citizenship and at last to the family circle itself.

But this is only one side of the picture. For the struggle of neighborliness to survive and express itself in forms adapted to our new industrial times, is as brave and hopeful as the loss of it is pathetic and disastrous. Sometimes the old neighborly relationship is trans-

planted bodily by the immigrants themselves to the soil of the new world. When those who have been neighbors in the fatherland find themselves near each other in some American city, they form a brotherhood, usually under the sanction of their church, sometimes bearing the name of the town or district from which they emigrated, or the name of its patron saint. Thus they struggle to perpetuate their old time village or town fellowship. These transplanted villages or town neighborhoods, however, are not destined long to survive the rapid and irresistible changes in American industrial conditions.

The sodalities and orders of the Catholic church, the memberships and brotherhoods of Protestant churches, the family-like fellowships persistently growing out of and around the Jewish synagogue, which is the most ancient type of the neighborhood still surviving, perpetuate the spirit of neighborliness and give it more or less flexible, but long accepted, forms of development. The fraternal orders and insurance fraternities utilize the old neighborly instinct to stand by each other in the rainy day, in order to cement a bond which binds together those of different race, language, creed, and condition, perhaps more closely than was done by the old time neighborhood itself. The modern clubs to a less degree, furnish circles of association around commercial, intellectual, social, and political centers, which, however, rarely survive the individual member's ability to pay the dues.

Trade unions come nearer to being a natural substitute, in some instances, than any other for the old neighborliness that has passed away. Though not lineal descendants from the old craft-guilds, they inherit their fraternity loyalty. Community of interest in the same crafts, the instinct of self-preservation, which leads fellow craftsmen to feel that they must hang together, or they will hang separately, women's auxiliaries which add to some unions the social and charitable features of the family, the sole dependence upon the benefit of the union for refuge from losses by accident, sickness, lack of work, the lock-out and strike, old age, and the death of the

bread winner; these very human bonds and benefits make the labor unions the only possible neighborship for many thousands of wage-earners in America, who would otherwise cease to be or to have real neighbors.

Parallel with these survivals of neighborship, other efforts and agencies have arisen to revive it. These deliberate and definite efforts for the revival of neighborhood relationships chiefly center about the public school, the public playground and recreation center, the public library, churches of an institutional type, and social settlements. No more hopeful movement to unify and advance local communities, and no more inspiring prospect of doing so, is to be noted in American life than that which seeks to use public school buildings as neighborhood centers. The common school is common ground. It is, as it always has been and will be more and more, that little patch of mother earth which belongs to all of us, to which every one, the newest immigrant as much as the oldest inhabitant, has equal claim, where all of us equally have common rights and feel at home more than anywhere else. The public school is therefore our greatest social asset as well as our only national educational equipment. It is our one great and only smelting furnace where the most "intractable" ores of our cosmopolitan population can be reduced, by the steady glow of civic patriotism and neighborhood fellowship, to unalloyed American citizenship. It is the common denominator for the solution of the problem of assimilating the diverse elements of our population into one body politic. It continues to be such long after the town meeting and the "center church" ceased to be the centers of social unity which they once were, but could not continue to be under the increasing diversity of our political and religious development. As such, both the public school system and buildings should be put to their utmost use, not only educationally but socially, not only for the schooling of children but for the training of adults, the development of home and neighborhood life, the safeguarding and promotion of the local community. Public school alumni associations, parents'

meetings, evening sessions, assembly halls, and roof gardens, art exhibits, gymnasiums and recreational equipments and neighborhood center uses are new and invaluable assets in the possession of and at the command of every local community.¹

Apparently in most places the only thing lacking to give the community the widest use of its own school property is the education of the Board of Education to a view of its function as wide as the demands of the people's needs upon their schools, and to a management of school property that shall be more educational, sanitary, and social than janitorial.

We are only beginning to share the attention we have paid to the education of our children with the equally serious problem of their recreation. We have been content merely with their physical exercise and have been stupidly obtuse to awakening and satisfying the pleasurable interest of the child in his play and in the organization of it. But at last we are coming to see, with dear old Froebel, that the divinely implanted and imperious instinct for play is childhood's chief concern and the educator's most masterful asset. But it is far more than this, for neighborhoods and cities are discovering the civic and social value of recreation centers for the well-directed play of the citizenship of tomorrow. Chicago has clearly led the world's way in its emphasis upon this discovery. Not since old Rome's Circus Maximus and the Olympic games of Greece has any city, ancient or modern, made such provision for the recreation of all its people, older and younger, as is to be found in Chicago's great play fields, surrounding its beautifully designed and well equipped field houses, which at a cost of over \$12,000,000 of the tax payers' money, have become the social centers of its most cosmopolitan, densely populated industrial and residential districts. No better investment of a city's money was ever made than in this equipment for free and innocent play, without the deteriorative and demoralizing influences which the exploiters of youth's natural recreative instinct have been allowed to coin into gold at the cost of character and health, even without competition with the vastly

superior public resources. But this well invested public expense for recreational space and equipment imperatively demands the appropriation of enough more money and talent to secure the best trained and most capable management of playgrounds and direction of play that can be produced by our universities and technical schools for social training.

The National Playground Association by its leadership towards all these ends, by its practical promotion of their realization in any community seeking its counsel and by its printed proceedings, which include the best literature on play,¹ is doing a country-wide work of great educational, civic, moral, and religious value, as are the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, in the practical evangelism of their physical departments. For, whoever and whatever helps children and youth, and adults also, to have a good time without being bad, is doing a great and manifold good, which is not only none the less, but all the more, religious for being so human.

Equally with our schools and playgrounds, our public library buildings and branches are proving to be neighborhood centers of great civic value. They share with the schools and the playgrounds the opportunity for widest usefulness. Where they are combined in the same building, the response of the people to each of them is all the greater. Both their opportunity and their utility as neighborhood centers demonstrate the necessity for trained children's librarians. Delivery stations and loan collections of books in factories, schools, churches, and settlements, are proving inexpensive and effective agencies of library extension. The public library, like the public school and playground, is open to all comers. Under expert, enterprising, practical management, it can lift an ever increasingly large proportion of its neighborhood up to higher standards of taste and aspiration and fellowship. And besides

¹Proceedings of the National Playground Association. Metropolitan Bldg., N. Y. Also Jane Addams, *THE SPIRIT OF YOUTH AND THE CITY STREETS*; Mangold, *CHILD PROBLEMS*, Chapters on *PLAY AND THE PLAYGROUND MOVEMENT*; Forbush, *THE COMING GENERATION*, treating the domestic, educational, civic, and religious agencies for the promotion of normal child life; the Y. M. C. A. Press publications: Fiske, *BOY LIFE AND SELF-GOVERNMENT*; Jenks, *LIFE QUESTIONS OF HIGH SCHOOL BOYS*; Gibson, *CAMPING FOR BOYS*.

¹Perry, *THE WIDER USE OF THE SCHOOL PLANT*.

the democratizing of culture, it confers citizenship in that time-long, world-wide democracy of the "Republic of Letters."

The neighborhood church continues to hold up the common ideals of religion and generate the power for self-sacrificing service. But like the town meeting, it could not continue to be the neighborhood center for all the people as they became more diverse in religious antecedents and conviction. Like the political parties the churches of different faith divide the people in separate fellowships. But because of that very division they often unite more closely together those within their respective communions. This compact group, if it sees and seizes its opportunity, will serve its church and faith the best by serving its neighborhood and the whole community most. By being tributary to every human interest of its neighbors, they will be all the more impelled to be neighbors to the church. But the church must be a neighbor itself, in order to have the people of its community outside of its membership, neighborly to it. Neither the neighborhood nor the church can afford to lack or lose anything of neighborliness which it can promote.¹ One of the supreme tests which the Bible in both testaments applies is the question put to every one, the answer to which measures the religious value of the character of each: "Who is my neighbor."

Where neighborliness has died out or never been born, or has been weakened by removals, or is difficult because of the differences of race, language, religion, customs, and condition,—there a social settlement finds its field to express the neighborhood that remains, revive that which wanes, or create that which is lacking. Whatever else it is or does, the settlement should be the neighborhood's own center for the enjoyment, practical expression, and use of its neighborliness. Self-initiated and self-governed neighborhood organizations should be as much at home there as the supplementary clubs and classes organized and managed by the residents. They should work not to do things for, but with, all people of the neighborhood. The settlement exists not to superimpose the ideals

or standards of one class or locality upon another, but to help the neighbors develop their own ideals and standards. Its aim is to make neighborliness more interesting, necessary, practicable, and valuable to every man, woman, and child. The settlement succeeds most and best when the neighborhood comes to the consciousness of itself, awakens to the possibility of doing for itself, and realizes its ambition to control itself and improve its conditions.¹

In the effort to bring this about, this fact demonstrates itself, that neighborhood is best promoted when neighbors have recognized their neighborhood to be a part of the whole city. Likewise the interests of the whole city are best promoted by cultivating this neighborhood consciousness among all the people of every locality.

A sense of detachment of the part from the whole, or the whole from any part, is as demoralizing, belittling or paralyzing to one as the other. People lose pride and power in their citizenship with the loss of their neighborly relations to each other. And on the other hand, their neighborly relations become interesting, influential and so well worth while that they cannot afford to lose them, when they are made effective in promoting the progress of the whole city.

Both of these tendencies have been strikingly illustrated in the political rehabilitation of the city council in Chicago. Seventeen years ago the voters in most of the wards had lost their sense of responsibility for the character and qualifications of the aldermen they sent to

¹HANDBOOK OF SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS, Woods & Kennedy; HISTORY OF THE SETTLEMENT MOVEMENT, Woods & Kennedy; TWENTY YEARS AT HULL HOUSE, Jane Addams; PHILANTHROPY AND SOCIAL PROGRESS, chapters on the Subjective Necessity for Social Settlements and Objective Value of a Social Settlement, by Jane Addams.

ENGLISH SOCIAL MOVEMENTS, chapter on University Settlements, Robert A. Woods; ARNOLD TOYNBEE, by Alfred Milner; by Montague, in JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY PUBLICATIONS, Vol. VII, No. 1; by Jowett, in TOYNBEE'S INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION; TOWARD SOCIAL REFORM, Canon and Mrs. SADBURN A. Barnett; WORK AMONG THE LONDON POOR, Edward Denison. The year books of Toynbee Hall, Oxford House, Mansfield House, Women's University Settlement, Hull House, Chicago, New York University Settlement, and College Settlement, South End House and Denison, Boston, Chicago Commons, and University of Chicago Settlement and other typical American and English Settlements, also many articles on settlements and neighborhood work in THE SURVEY and in the proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Johnson's Index, Bliss New Encyclopedia of Social Reform, Article SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS, Conyngton, HOW TO HELP, p. 316; Baker, SPIRITUAL UNREST, Chap. VI.

¹Richmond, Mary E., THE GOOD NEIGHBOR; Shaler, THE NEIGHBOR; Conyngton, HOW TO HELP.

the city council to legislate for the entire city. Their local pride and neighborhood self-respect in being properly represented there disappeared with their civic consciousness. The Municipal Voters' League, however, had faith in the people to believe that both could be revived. So they entered upon the struggle for the "long distance championship" by informing and appealing to the citizens' loyalty to the home-rule principle, applied to ward politics. And the people did the rest. Ward clubs independently arose, within and between party lines. Local improvement associations, women's clubs, parish societies, men's organizations began to play politics with a public purpose. As these local groups became conscious of a city-wide sphere and influence they began to take hold of the problems of their home localities far more effectively than ever before. The political revolution found the source of its sustained support in the revival of the neighborhood spirit. And yet the neighborhood spirit revived only at the call for civic loyalty. In no other way can the decisive victories of the people in electing the candidates endorsed by the Municipal Voters' League be accounted for. This revolution could not have taken place and maintained its increasing power during the past seventeen years, had it not been rooted in a quickened neighborhood life throughout the city.

Very notably did these two influences reciprocally develop each other in one of the largest family tenement house wards in the city. The racial transformation of its immigrant population had begun to set in. Northern Europeans began to disintegrate and lose heart in the maintenance of their ascendancy in the population. Judged by their representatives in the council, however, their political ideals and independence had not for several years been worthy of their personal character or standards of family life. But when the city's appeal for better representatives from this ward in the city council was put up to its citizens at Chicago Commons, they responded as promptly and effectively as those of any ward in the city. Swinging the independent vote as a balance of power, for sixteen years in succession they have

selected and elected the better men for aldermen irrespective of party. And they have superseded the very worst men in the council by aldermen who have ranked among the very best in their work for the ward not only, but in their service of the whole city. Meanwhile the people who found it possible to do this great service for the city were roused thereby to serve their own neighborhoods. Street paving, street lighting, and street cleaning were greatly improved. The ward got its share of new school buildings and secured one of the best of the new recreation centers. Vicious resorts and gambling houses were suppressed. The number of saloons decreased. Recreations of a higher type were supported. While these things could not have been done without the influence of the ward's better aldermen in the council, it would not have had influential aldermen, and they could not have gotten the necessary support from their constituents, without the revived neighborhood which united the people of twenty-five different nationalities in organizations of their own to overthrow the bosses and ignore the machines and take their own affairs into their own hands. The example set by this population of 60,000 immigrant working people inspired similar efforts all over the city.

If the plans for the city beautiful promoted by Chicago's commercial leaders and designed by its artist architects furnish the goal toward which the development of the city shall work, the realization of the greater and better Chicago will be made possible only by this revival of the family virtues, working through good neighborhood to make the city worthier of its homes, a better place for the next little child to be born in, and where its boys and girls may grow into a nobler manhood and womanhood.

Neighborhoods are the source of civic strength for progress, and the city is the source of inspiration for neighborhood spirit and co-operation. If detachment results in the apathy and demoralization of both, then in the re-attachment of each to the other, and in the identification of both in the common cause, is to be found the open secret of successful democracy.

AFTER THE COMMON LAW—WHAT?

INTRODUCTORY

[In drafting new legislation to take the place of our old scheme of employers' liability, American commonwealths are at the cross-roads. The German insurance legislation points in one direction; the workmen's compensation system of England in another.

The most sweeping attack upon the German system to date has been that of Dr. Ferdinand Friedensburg, former president of the senate of the imperial insurance office. A translation of his criticism is being circulated widely in the United States by an organization of American casualty companies. Dr. Brodsky's reply printed on the succeeding pages is the first comprehensive rejoinder available for American readers. The writer, who was formerly contributing editor to the *Mutual Underwriter* and *Fraternal Monitor*, is a free lance in insurance matters. He spent last summer in Germany, France, Belgium, and England, studying the governmental systems in vogue there.

With the Friedensburg pamphlet and Dr. Brodsky's article as texts, THE SURVEY asked for contributions of opinion from some of the leading thinkers in this field in America who, in their points of view, represent those who favor state and those who favor federal systems; those who would hold to the old liability principle; those who favor the English compensation system in conjunction with private insurance; those who favor the German system of collective liability and insurance under governmental compulsion; and those who, as illustrated in Washington and Ohio, would create direct state insurance funds through the taxing power.

The lawyer, the economist, the manufacturer, the labor leader, the socialist, and the insurance expert contribute to the symposium which, in the very clash of its judgments, should prove a contribution to open-minded and incisive thinking at this juncture.

In later issues, THE SURVEY will publish interpretations of the workings of the various insurance and compensation plans in operation in the small group of American states which have already enacted legislation in this field.]

To be friends in citizenship and neighborhood is necessary to both. Friendship among neighbors and citizens as such, in securing justice and opportunity for themselves and all others, is the real thing which is only beginning to supersede the perversion of it in politics. It is both the opportunity and obligation of religion to promote such friendship, because through it only can be obtained not charity alone, but that justice which, by giving equality of opportunity to the citizen, makes possible the progress of the city and the state. "If citizens be friends they have no need of justice, but though they be just they need friendship or love also; indeed, the completest realization of justice seems to be the realization of friendship and love also."

The neighborhood is to be regarded as an extension of the home and the church, and is identified closely with both. As such it should be sacred both to the family and the religious instincts and inter-

ests in every community. Indeed the community of family interests and the communion of the church fellowship are akin to those of the neighborhood. In all three of these vital human relationships having in common and sharing in common are the sacramental signs of membership. All three, home, neighborhood, and church, share a common religious origin, sanction, aim, and spirit. No one of them can fulfill its function without the co-operation of the others. They are inter-sphering circles whose circumference includes most that is human and whose center is divine.

[THIS IS THE EIGHTH OF PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH IS RUNNING PERIODICALLY IN THE SURVEY DURING THE MEN AND RELIGION CAMPAIGN. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I. LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II. THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16; III. PERSONALITY A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE, JANUARY 6; IV. THE CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE, JANUARY 20; V. CHANGING CONDITIONS OF A WORKING FAITH, FEBRUARY 3; VI. THE RELIGION OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS, MARCH 2; VII. THE FAMILY: FIELD, FUNCTION AND TRIBUTARY AGENCIES, APRIL 6. THE TITLE OF THE NEXT ARTICLE WILL BE: INDUSTRY AND RELIGION: THEIR COMMON GROUND AND INTERDEPENDENCE.]

IS THE GERMAN INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE SYSTEM A FAILURE?

A REPLY TO DR. FRIEDENSBURG

RANDOLPH T. BRODSKY

Following an announcement made several years ago by the German government inviting suggestions for reform of its system of workmen's insurance, a lively discussion of the defects and necessary reforms arose. This discussion brought out in the sphere of accident insurance the increasing litigation that resulted from the *ex parte* decisions of employers' insurance associations and that overburdened the imperial insurance office, and the unfavorable course toward the insured which the courts of arbitration as well as the imperial insurance office itself had taken in recent years. At the close of discussion, when in 1911 the new insurance bill became law coincidentally with the great celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the German system, a series of scathing magazine articles by Dr. Ferdinand Friedensburg appeared, which were later published in pamphlet form. The Workmen's Compensation Service and Information Bureau, an organization of American casualty insurance companies, confronted with the constantly growing agitation for state and national insurance in this country, have deemed this the proper moment to present this pamphlet to the American public under the title, *Practical Results of Workmen's Insurance in Germany*.

Dr. Friedensburg's wholesale indictment of the German system, coming as it does from a high Prussian bureaucrat,

¹This article is a digest of a more extended criticism of Dr. Friedensburg's article on the German insurance system by Dr. Brodsky. The principal German sources of Dr. Brodsky's article are as follows:

Dr. Conrad Weymann, *THE SOCIAL VALUE OF WORKMEN'S INSURANCE IN THE Invaliditäts und Alters-Versicherung*, September 1, 1911;

Dr. F. Lange, *THE JURISDICTION OF THE IMPERIAL INSURANCE OFFICE*, *Soziale Praxis*, Nov. 28, 1911;

Professor Zacher, *GERMAN SYSTEM AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN THE Arbeiterversorgung*, March 21, 1911. COMBINATION OF COMPULSORY STATE INSURANCE WITH VOLUNTARY PRIVATE, *ibidem*, October 1, 1911;

Dr. Alfred Manes, Review of the pamphlet in question in the *Zeitschrift fuer die gesamte Versicherungs-Wissenschaft*, May, 1911, pp. 576-577;

Books, reports of the Arbeitersecretariats and numerous articles in *Arbeiterversorgung* and other German scientific periodicals.

who was for a long time member and president of the senate of the imperial insurance office, who himself helped to build up the system he now attacks, cannot be ignored. The courage with which he scores the "official laudations" and incompetence of the bureaucracy, his own fraternity, makes the once humiliated insurance interests rejoice. Moreover, his sincere alarm about what he considers to be the disintegrating moral effect of the German system of social benevolence calls for a serious consideration of his arguments.

Since 1884, when the system went into effect, he holds that class antagonism has increased and not, as was hoped, diminished, in great part owing to the insurance system itself. The workers, he holds, on the one hand have grown more arrogant in their demands, and the employers have grown restive under the heavy financial burden put upon them by insurance which has increased from 78,241,023 m. in 1888 to 767,428,904 m. in 1909. Another evil that it was hoped that insurance would remove, namely, litigation, has not only not ceased but is constantly increasing, until to-day it has assumed an alarming extent. In 1909 not less than 76,352 appeals were made on 422,076 awards given out by employers' accident associations, or 18.9 per cent of the total number. Searching after the causes that have produced this deplorable situation, Dr. Friedensburg finds one of them in the taking away of the power of enforcing the decisions from the accident associations; but the main responsibility for litigation is in his opinion to be put on the administrative and judicial departments of the imperial insurance office. The educational work of the former department makes it so easy for workmen to bring suit as practically to induce many to appeal¹

¹Under this educational work he includes such instructions to petitioners as the following: "Should you be dissatisfied with this decision, you have the right to appeal. In case you fail to be satisfied with the verdict then rendered, you next have the right of recourse to the imperial office."

from decisions who would not have done so otherwise.

The jurisdiction of the imperial office, on the other hand, has, Dr. Friedensburg charges, brought about a state of chaos throughout the system, and among the insured a "pension hysteria" which has demoralized them. Instead of interpreting the laws according to strictly legal conceptions the imperial office has adopted what he regards as strange and extra-legal principles of "social obligations" and "social benevolence." He charges that it now undertakes to "help" the insured by the free interpretation of the law; that to prove an accident facts are no longer required, the mere probability being sufficient; that the meaning of work-accident is strained to cover accidents not remotely connected with employment, and compensation is paid where there is a very small percentage of disability, resulting in no loss of earning capacity; that the decisions of the imperial office are frequently contradictory of each other and show that the office has no clearly outlined policy, and accident associations and courts of arbitration lack precedents and rules; that the office is filled with cases of little importance, which enormously increases the administrative expenses, make it possible on the one hand for radical politicians, basing their statements on official figures, to point to an enormous accident rate, and, on the other discredit the principle of accident compensation to the minds of foreign students. The imperial insurance office, with its courts and social reformers, have to his mind engendered a spirit of excessive benevolence and created on the part of the insured a tendency toward unlawful claims which are frequently supported by fraudulent medical certificates extorted from a medical profession terrorized by the dominance of the labor element. He attacks its invalidity system on the ground that it has erected institutions for the care of the sick which have by their palatial buildings created among the insured dissatisfaction with their home conditions and made them increasingly arrogant in their demands. One branch of the insurance system, the

sick clubs, is, he asserts, openly controlled by the leaders of the Social-Democratic Party and used by them as a means of attacking more vigorously the present economic system. The final charge he brings against the system is that it has put an undue social burden upon industry without, as was originally hoped, substantially decreasing poverty. As remedy he suggests the simplification of the system, with possible dropping out of accident insurance.

Such in brief is Dr. Friedensburg's indictment of the German system. To estimate its value, a few words about views on the proper policy of the office, would be in point. During the time that he was in office¹ he stood alone among insurance officials in his views on the proper policy of the office, seeing in the insured nothing but a body of malingerers. He almost alone of the legal profession has staunchly adhered to that strict interpretation of the law which does not tolerate social or economic considerations.

Since his retirement he has constituted himself, though from the opposite point of view, as untiring a critic of the system as is Herr Bebel, leader of the social-democrats, the party which represents that "King Mob" with which this Prussian bureaucrat has so little patience. Underlying his whole line of criticism is the sense that he holds the insured—in collusion as it were with the imperial office—responsible for all the evils in the system. The chief defect of his pamphlet lies in the fact that the whole subject of social insurance is examined in the words of Dr. Conrad Weymann, himself also a retired president of the senate of the Imperial Insurance Office and therefore likewise under no constraint to defend the system, "through dark glasses," in a spirit of pessimism. That there are defects in the system Dr. Weymann, in common with all critics of Dr. Friedensburg, has no doubt, but they are all defects which are well known to the thoughtful German, which can be removed by a thor-

¹Up to 1897 he was in the invalidity insurance department, and a few years later he severed his connection with the imperial office altogether on account of neurasthenia.

ough cleaning-up; and in any case this cleaning-up is already under way. Furthermore, granting these evils, the benefits, Dr. Weymann believes, far outweigh them. Constructive and not destructive criticism is what is needed. Dr. Weymann's views are echoed by Dr. Zacher¹ who says that in any comprehensive social system, particularly on the scale of the German system, which covers in its various branches 53,000,000 persons insured, shortcomings are unavoidable, but that many of the shortcomings which Dr. Friedensburg brings out are by no means typical. The criticism of other authorities, among them Professor Manes, general secretary of the Association for the Study of Insurance Science, a recognized intermediary between social and private insurance; and F. Lange, attorney of the Union of Public Legal Bureaus in the imperial insurance office, can be summed up by the statement of the latter that the pamphlet is so one-sided as to be a parody of present conditions.

Dr. Friedensburg gives a false impression by lumping together in his criticism the weakest with the strongest elements. His critical method follows blind routine, limiting itself exclusively to the legal phase of the problem and ignoring those facts of inner organization and administration which give real light on the efficiency or weakness of the whole scheme. Consequently his method while assisting us perhaps considerably in understanding how the law was applied, fails to explain what interests the law reflected at its passage and during its application and how much and before whose doors the shortcomings of the law and of the system have to be laid, and how these shortcomings are gradually being met and overcome.

Reading Friedensburg's own statements, it is impossible to believe that the increased litigation is solely to be blamed on the "too benevolent" and demoralizing jurisdiction of the imperial office. All foreign investigators have noted the *ex parte* decisions of the employers' accident associations. Frequent judgment in favor of the employer

is as natural and inevitable here as would be frequent judgment in favor of the worker, if accident associations were made up exclusively of trade unionists or social-democrats. This results to a large extent from the financial method, which is the chief defect of the system, of assessment on employers. The effort on the part of the employers' associations to keep down the rate of assessment must inevitably cause some too rigorous settlements and in such cases the injured workman can seek justice only by appeal. To Dr. Friedensburg, however, these "battles for pensions" are the results solely of litigiousness stimulated by the imperial office.

To take up the specific points in Dr. Friedensburg's criticism of the amount of litigation, his figures to illustrate the increase in litigation—76,352 cases, or 18.9 per cent, of all awards appealed, and 22,794 recourses, or 24.7 per cent, of appeals to the highest court, are misinterpretations of the real situation. The question is one not of absolute but of relative increase, viewed historically. Judged on this basis, it is found that a steady decrease has taken place. In 1887, 33 per cent of awards by employers' associations were appealed to the courts of arbitration; in 1897 this fell to 23 per cent and in 1910 stood at 17.5 per cent. Judged by a like standard, the movement of recourse has remained practically constant, varying in different years from 28 per cent to 30 per cent of all appeals.

So much for relative increase or decrease. The absolute increase of disputes is due to increase of population, which shows a net annual increase of one million, to the greater industrialization of the country, and to the larger employment of foreign unskilled labor. But the most important cause of the absolute increase of litigation must be sought in the tendency since 1898 to cut out compensation for minor accidents, and in the vigorous application during the last decade of that clause¹ of the insurance law, which prescribes a change of rate of compensation following a change in physical condition of the insured, or rather what as a rule is a dim-

¹Author of WORKINGMEN'S INSURANCE AT HOME AND ABROAD.

²Clause 88 of the law, as it stood up to 1912.

inution or a suspension of pension following the improvement in or "adaptation" to the condition. In the aggregate, for the whole German empire, for instance, the number of applications for decrease on the latter ground tendered on behalf of employers' associations to the courts of arbitration rose for the period 1898-1910 from 4,563 to 37,422, or increased eight times, whereas the total number of appeals made by the injured on account of first awards rose from 50,502 to 72,917, or was hardly doubled, and the number of applications for increase of compensation tendered by the insured rose from 1,146 to 3,059, or increased hardly three times. It is not surprising as Herr Lange says, that the workman who sincerely considered a compensation to be a life pension—as it practically was up to 1896-1898—and calculated it as an element of his budget, has vigorously resisted such a legal innovation as a "robbery" even to the extent of carrying his case to the imperial insurance office. This is the principal reason that this office is overburdened with a vast number of frequently petty old cases. In 1910 not less than 13,187 out of 20,148 recourses were considered on account of this clause, that is, two out of three recourses, as against every second in 1906. To decisions of employers' associations considered unjust by the workmen as a cause of appeal may be added, therefore, those appeals due to the effort of the employers' association to clean up old cases, making two whole classes of appeals not directly attributable to either pension hysteria or the undue benevolence of the imperial office. In this connection, too, we find an interesting commentary on Dr. Friedensburg's charge that the medical profession are, as they undoubtedly are to some extent in sickness insurance, terrorized by working-class malingerers, in the terrorizing of many hospitals by the employers' accident associations. It is to-day an open secret that the managers of medico-mechanical institutions who are frequently entrusted with the curative work under the insurance system, being financially dependent on the clientage of employers' trade associations, have been too willing

to certify a lower degree of disability than the case really presented. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at that injured persons having noticed that all the frequent medical examinations and visitations to hospitals merely result in reducing their pensions, have become quite suspicious of the impartiality of the examining physician. The insured have nicknamed a hospital *Rentenquettche* (pension lever) and, in order to offset what they believe to be the intentional underestimate of physicians, they sometimes exaggerate their pains. This is one of the main causes of malingering under the accident insurance system. That the amount of this malingering, which does exist under any workman's compensation plan, is nevertheless often overstated we can gather from the attitude of great surgeons like Professors Thiem, Ledderhose, Köpper, and others who, while deploring the "defensive attitude" of the injured, deplore equally the "ready-for-battle-attitude" of the associations, and warn physicians against committing the error of assuming wholesale dissimulation on the part of the injured. Professor Thiem is quoted by Herr Lange as warning them of the mania for "nosing out" malingering and lays down the rule that "the number of malingerers a physician discovers is in reverse relation to his medico-psychological knowledge and observation."

Accident associations made up of both employers and employes, as first proposed by Prince Bismarck, would probably render more equitable decisions and prevent much litigation.

The above criticism of the present accident associations is not, however, to be construed as a wholesale condemnation, since their very efforts to escape heavy liabilities have led to the development of a system of accident prevention unequalled in any other industrial country. Their curative work is for the same reason on an equally high plane, and has undoubtedly contributed to the reduction of the average award from 232 marks in 1888 to 155.5 marks in 1908. In view of the fact that wages, on which the rate of pensions is based, have risen, this means nothing else than that the more serious and lasting types of injury have

become less frequent, or that the cost of insurance is decreasing.

By Dr. Friedensburg's interpretation of these figures, however, this decrease in the pension rate is made to mean simply that pensions are paid for trivial injuries to demoralize pensioners and to overburden employers.¹ Up to the time that he left the invalidity bureau, in 1897, there might have been some truth in this accusation, as during the first years in which the system was in force pensions were too liberally granted, partly with the object of conciliating the embittered working class, partly because of lack of experience. In 1899-1900 the annual increase of pensions in invalidity insurance was the subject of an investigation. After this, pension grants fell, so that between 1903 and 1906 the number was reduced from 52,000 to 110,000. By 1910 it was 114,000, a figure which in view of the earlier records is by no means as sinister as Dr. Friedensburg would have us think. The decrease in accident insurance is, it is true, less marked, but this is chiefly due to the conservatism of the employers' accident associations themselves which have bitterly resisted attempts at reform.

Somewhat similar to Dr. Friedensburg's charge that social insurance has caused moral deterioration of the German working class is his disappointment that it has not served as a preventive of poverty, but that on the other hand the amount of charitable relief has actually increased. The following quotation from Dr. Zacher tends to show that the nation is neither degenerating morally nor becoming impoverished. For the last 25 years, says Dr. Zacher,

Germany has presented an example of unprecedented expansion and progress. Our exports to foreign countries aggregate today 7,000,000,000 marks, having risen from fourth to second place in international trade. . . . Industries employ ever larger numbers of persons, so that emigration has practically ceased, and the country is obliged to import annually a million laborers. The national wealth has doubled. The savings-banks books of 18,000,000 people show total deposits of 14,000,000,000 marks, against 2,000,000,000 marks in 1875. . . . Wages have risen for the

same period, for unskilled labor 25 per cent, for skilled 50 per cent, in certain trades the increase being as high as 100 per cent, an increase which, according to the English economist, Prof. Ashley, is without precedent in any country, and which was but slightly affected by the increased cost of living. The English commission that visited Germany stated that the standard of living of German laborers moves in a constantly higher direction. . . . Germany has the lowest percentage of unemployment.

The average duration of life, Dr. Zacher continues, has increased for males from 38.1 years to 48.8 years; for females from 42.5 to 54.9 years and this lowered mortality rate is in great part due to the curative and preventive work of the insurance system.

But few sincere believers in the German insurance system would claim that it is responsible for the whole of this prosperity; so all social distress cannot be met and prevented by any system of insurance. All that insurance can do is to compensate for the loss or damage brought to an individual by a force over which he has no control and thus prevent extreme poverty. Workmen's insurance cannot altogether prevent poverty, since the causes of poverty are more numerous than those risks which can be covered by insurance. Furthermore, the German system does not as yet pretend to cover all the risks of life, nor does it cover all insurable persons, but leaves entirely out that class which is always nearest to the poverty line, the home-worker. The increased amount of charitable relief now given in Germany is due on the one hand to the facts stated above and on the other to the increase in the amount of preventive work now being done, to the higher cost of maintaining institutions, and other causes not to be considered here.

Dr. Friedensburg's specific criticism of the luxurious curative institutions is not only an exaggeration of conditions, but, furthermore, like many of his other criticisms, it takes no account of the fact that many of these institutions were built and equipped in the beginnings of the system and before the imperial office was given control. With the law of 1899—after Dr. Friedensburg had left the department—its control was extended,

¹The trivial and temporary accidents for the most part fall not on the employers but on the workmen's sick clubs.

and the law of 1912 definitely prescribes a limitation of expenses for such purposes; that is, as in the case of many of Dr. Friedensburg's other charges, the cleaning-up process is already well under way.

The charge of political control of the working-men's sick clubs by the social-democrats would need too detailed a reply to undertake here. Suffice it to say in the first place that this control has been exaggerated by enemies of organized labor¹, and in the second that the new law of 1912 has to a great extent curbed what control there was by reducing the representation of the workmen in the boards to one-half instead of two-thirds.

The social burden of the insurance system of which Dr. Friedensburg makes so much brings us to a moot question. The social burden on industry must be considered, as critics of the German system often fail to do, as covering the whole of taxation, not merely that part devoted to social legislation. Of social legislation itself, the burden of insurance is but one part. Estimating the total social burden on the basis of cost of production,² it varies in different industries from 1 to 4.5 per cent of this cost, and but a part of this is the price of social insurance. Furthermore, though this burden does not in itself seem excessive, it is larger now and falls more heavily on the business man than it will as the insurance system develops. For, in the first place, the accident system is still burdened with some of the original pensioners. These are, however, gradually dropping out by death, or being weeded out by the rigorous periodical medical examination already spoken of, and by wider application of lump sum settlement as authorized by the law of 1912. Some industries have indeed already reached their maximum assessment for pensioners—the point of saturation as it is called; a few others seem already to have passed it. A few started as capitalized societies, with a fund to "meet the debts of the last generation" and thus escaped the heavy

yearly increase that has fallen on those societies which are entirely on the assessment basis.

In addition, up to within a few years Germany was the only country which had any financial burden for social insurance legislation, and her industries were to that extent handicapped in foreign competition. Of late, however, her rivals in trade have themselves been forced to adopt such legislation, so that this handicap is rapidly being removed. We can expect, in fact, that with her riper experience in this field of legislation she will for this reason in time have an even greater advantage over her industrial competitors than she has enjoyed for the last quarter-century.

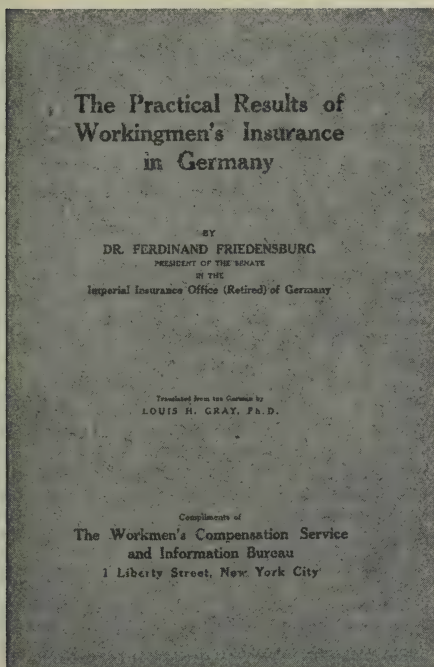
The German system like all others has its defects, some of which Dr. Friedensburg has pointed out, and others which he left untouched, since he is not familiar with the insurance phase of the subject. Perhaps the best service that Dr. Friedensburg's exaggerated statement of these defects can be said to have done is to balance the extravagant eulogies of many supporters of the German system here and abroad, to put that system in its historic light, and in this way to bring out its advantages and its limitations. The consensus of opinion among delegates to the last international conference on social insurance in Dresden was to the effect that compulsory state insurance should be limited to the wage-earners and to certain risks only. Such insurance so limited is not like private insurance, an ordinary commercial enterprise, but has a social or relief aspect. The humane element, social responsibility—"social benevolence," as Dr. Friedensburg calls it slightly—is therefore a *sine qua non* of the jurisprudence of a national insurance system. That the social benevolence of the Imperial Insurance Office is strongly tempered by common sense is evidenced by the fact that French employers' liability companies commend the German office for its rigorous claim settlements by contrast with their own too liberal tribunals, on the ground that it has done away entirely with compensation for petty accidents. Furthermore, its compensation schedules are used as models by every continental claim examiner.

¹One of Dr. Friedensburg's chief sources is a publication of the Imperial Union to Combat Social Democracy. (Moeller.)

²Wages, net revenues, total income, or total expenditure are other bases sometimes used.

AFTER THE COMMON LAW—WHAT?

A SYMPOSIUM



THE FRIEDENSBURG PAMPHLET

BY HENRY R. SEAGER

For the United States, the system of compensation, as distinguished from the system of employers' liability, is still novel, and any plan that may be introduced must be viewed as an experiment. For this reason I am inclined to believe that at the outset a system of simple compensation without any insurance requirement will be found to be best suited to American conditions in our eastern states. A system of compulsory insurance through employers' associations could not be made effective under state law as regards many industries, because often the employers who should be included are not found within the borders of a single state. Again, American employers have made such unequal progress in their efforts to cope with the problem of preventing accidents, and in their policies with reference to compensating accidents, that to force them to join together in associations would be viewed by employers themselves as unfair. The efficiency of the German accident insurance associations has been due to the fact that they embrace all employers in the same industry within the German Empire, and that the requirement that German employers belong to such associations is along the line of similar requirements which the German government imposes on employers

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in other connections; it harmonizes with the temper and habits of German business men. Exactly the same plan would, in my judgment, be quite out of harmony with the temper and habits of American business men. The same considerations apply even more strongly to compulsory state insurance.

One of the most serious accidents that has happened in the state of Washington since the insurance system came into operation was the blowing up of a small powder mill controlled by an independent company. Under the Washington system, all powder mills in the state must contribute pro rata to the compensation of the victims of this accident. The owners of other powder mills contend that with the greater care which they devote to the problem of accident prevention such a disaster could not have happened in their mills, and on this ground they are contesting the validity of the Washington law as taking their property without due process of law. Notwithstanding that the law has been sustained by the Supreme Court of Washington, it is still possible that on this state of facts the United States Supreme Court may declare the Washington act invalid.

As this illustration brings out, the weakness of state insurance, as usually administered, is

that it fails to give the careful employer the benefit of the reduced ratio of accidents in his own plant that results from his care. Along with careless employers in the same industry, he is required to contribute to a common fund, out of which compensation to all those injured in the industry is paid, in proportion to his pay-roll. Such a policy discourages efforts at accident prevention on the part of the individual employer, and is highly unfortunate because, after all, the surest means of reducing accidents is the incentive which the compensation system gives the individual employer to do everything in his power in this direction. It may of course be urged that this is not a necessary condition of a state insurance system. As the German insurance associations vary the rate according to the accident record of each individual employer, rewarding the careful employer with a lower rate and penalizing the careless employer by a higher rate, so it may be said a state insurance department may vary its rates. The difficulty here is that the mere suggestion that rates may be shaded for the benefit of individual employers at the discretion of the state insurance department would in any American community, give rise to charges of favoritism and suspicions of graft that would go far to neutralize any benefits that might result from variable rates.

These disadvantages connected with compulsory insurance may and doubtless will in time be overcome. My contention is that because of them the first step in the development of a wise compensation system for the United States should be simple compensation like that proposed in the bill now before Congress. As a result of experience of a simple compensation system supplemented by optional insurance, public opinion will, I believe, be educated to demand the next step, that is, certain provision through compulsory insurance or otherwise for the victims of accidents of employers who may become insolvent. I am quite willing to go further and assert that, in the end, a system of state controlled insurance will probably prove on the whole best. I should, however, look with a good deal of misgiving on the introduction of a system of compulsory state insurance in our own state of New York under present political conditions.

BY LOUIS MARSHALL¹

My answer to the question propounded is, that neither the English nor the German system of workmen's accident compensation legislation should be adopted in this country. If a workman is injured through the fault of the employer, the latter should be made to respond for the damages which he has occasioned. If the law which at present fixes the employer's liability is not sufficiently stringent and comprehensive, then, so far as it is reasonable to

impose further obligations and liabilities on the employer in the interest of safety and the preservation of life and limb, the law should be amended so as to accomplish that desideratum.

The decisions of the courts, and the acts of congress and of the several states, indicate that, during the past twenty years, this policy has been steadily pursued. The rigor of the fellow-servant rule and of the doctrine of assumed risks has, in the natural course of legal evolution, been modified in important particulars. The employers' liability acts have gradually eliminated these doctrines, so that today but a vestige of them remains, and there is nothing to prevent the legislatures from wiping them out altogether. It was so adjudged in the much decried and misunderstood decision of the New York Court of Appeals in the *Ives* case, and has been recently reiterated by the Supreme Court of the United States in the *Mondou* case.

Such legislation is just and in keeping with the conditions of modern industrial development, to which the ancient doctrines no longer apply. This legislation may be supplemented by requiring the introduction of further safety devices, and the adoption of methods which afford an assurance of safety to the workman so far as human foresight can do so. Many good laws have been enacted in this state since 1885, all looking to that end. Compliance with this legislation is made compulsory, and neglect is severely and properly penalized by juries. The courts have sustained and liberally enforced every statute intended as a protection for the workman, and by applying liberal canons of interpretation they have proceeded beyond the strict letter of the law in order to carry out the legislative intent. A lawyer familiar with the decisions of twenty years ago, relating to the law of master and servant, whose studies have led him into other paths of investigation, must be astounded by the changes evidenced by the more recent decisions, which in every respect favor the workman.

All of these decisions are, however, based on the theory that liability depends on fault and on a breach of duty, whether it be one originating under the common law or is of statutory creation. A system of laws, however, which imposes liability on the employer, irrespective of fault on his part, although he may have done all that finite man can do to avoid injury, though he may have complied with every moral and statutory obligation, and even though the workman may himself have been at fault, under conditions which may have imperiled the lives of his fellow-workmen, is neither based on fundamental concepts of law, nor on sound economics. The employer is, under the circumstances indicated, under no greater moral obligation to an injured workman, than is the remainder of the community. He is no more responsible for the unpreventable misfortune to the workman, due to accident, than the workman is responsible for the losses which the em-

¹Inasmuch as Mr. Marshall's retainer ceased with the decision in the *Ives* case he is giving expression sheerly to his personal views as a lawyer and citizen who has given thought to this subject.

ployer sustains from the consequences of a panic, of market conditions, or the bankruptcy of his customers. When, therefore, a workman is injured without the employer's fault, then the duty of caring for the needs of the injured workman, if pecuniary assistance be required, rests upon the public, and should be borne by it, and not by any one individual rather than by another, merely because of the fact that the former occupies the relation of employer to the person injured.

In my judgment workmen's compensation acts, in so far as they impose liability on the employer in any event, are not only in conflict with the constitution, if reference to that instrument may be permitted, but they are likewise unsound in principle. They are objectionable not only from the standpoint of the employer, but also from that of the employed, when the remedy which they confer is exclusive of any other remedy now existing in favor of the workman. The tendency of the reasoning upon which these statutes depend is, to make the remedy which they confer exclusive. Under such a statute, a workman would be deprived of the compensatory damages which he is now enabled to collect from his employer, if fault can be laid at the latter's door, and the workman would be compelled to accept the limited compensation which the statute allows.

For these and other reasons, powerful organizations of workmen are opposed to this legislation. The advantages which are claimed to result from it are largely fanciful. They do not create a better feeling between the employed and his employer. Far from preventing litigation, the English prototype of the workmen's compensation laws which we are urged to adopt, has been the fruitful occasion of controversy. The law reports are replete with decisions interpretative of the act. In a recent volume of the House of Lords Reports, an extraordinary proportion of the cases adjudged were those arising under this act. Litigation has not been prevented. On the contrary, there is reason to believe that in many respects it has been increased.

So far as workmen's insurance in Germany is concerned, the brochure of Dr. Friedensburg paints a dark picture. Making due allowance for the somewhat pessimistic prepossessions of the author, it nevertheless is evident that, even though the average compensation per accident amounts to less than \$50, there has been constant abuse in the application of the system; there has arisen a perfect wilderness of decisions, appeals, and conflicting awards of boards of arbitration, a shocking exhibit of malingering, fraud and perjury is presented; there has been a tendency to pauperization and a loss of self-respect of the workman; and suspicion has been engendered which has not contributed to the preservation of amicable relations.

Moreover, conditions in Germany are such as to make it more easy for an entire indus-

try to bear the burden of accidents arising to the workmen employed therein, than is possible under our system, where every state has its own code of laws and its own public policy. It is practically impossible to unite into one insurance organization all of the leather workers, for example. Consequently those of one state may be at a disadvantage as against those of other states where such a system of insurance does not exist. The expense of administration of such a fund would be enormous, if the experience of Germany is to serve as a guide; and the very fact that there would have to be governmental control of such a system in order to make it effective, would in itself afford a serious objection.

It is far better, therefore, to develop our own theories of legislation on the subject of employers' liability, on natural lines, than to adopt the experiments of other countries, which, when viewed at close range, are found to be less roseate in their promises of improvement than the statements of enthusiasts would lead one to expect.

BY FRANK E. LAW

Provision for payment of workmen's compensation benefits may be made by one of three methods:

1. The employer may be made directly liable for the payment of the benefits, it being left to his individual initiative to provide insurance. This is the English system.

2. The employers may be grouped in associations by industries, each association assessing its members to provide a fund out of which the benefits are paid, and the operation of the associations being supervised by the government. This is the German system.

3. The employers may contribute directly to a state insurance fund from which the benefits are paid. This is the system of Norway and, in this country, of the state of Washington.

The English system, it would seem, embodies the method best adapted to the conditions existing in the United States. The spirit of American institutions is individualistic and the American people would not brook the bureaucratic and paternalistic control essential to the success of a system modeled on either the German or Norse lines. It is best for a country to adopt a system which develops naturally and logically out of its existing organizations and laws. A system that does not harmonize with the temper of the people or with the existing conditions will not work well.

There are a number of reasons why the German system has worked fairly well in Germany. It utilized the sick benefit societies and other organizations already existing and thus grew naturally out of the institutions to which the people were already accustomed. It fitted in with the close control exercised by the government over the people. Public records of the personal and family history of

workmen are kept in Germany, and this joined with the fact that the working population is more stable and shifts about to a less extent than in the United States, renders it practicable largely to prevent fraud in compensation claims. It has been found possible in Germany to endow employers' associations with administrative powers that the constitutions in the United States would forbid. Moreover, it must be borne in mind that benefits are paid in the first thirteen weeks by the sick benefit societies for the most part, to the funds of which the employes contribute two-thirds and the employers one-third, so that the employes have a direct and vital interest in detecting malingering and simulation. Despite all this, the system is far from being an unqualified success. Abuses have developed and these are not easy to root out.

Any system of state insurance in this country is bound to work badly in the long run. It will tend to build up a great political machine. It will put the greatest possible strain upon the state administrative machinery because of the disbursement of huge sums of money practically without check. It will be inefficient in sifting out fraudulent claims because the choice of state officials will be dictated by politics and these officials will curry favor with claimants and their friends by making adjustments pleasing to them. There will be no advantage to honest workmen in state insurance. Even under a highly centralized government it is difficult to make state insurance work well and such a thing is quite impossible under the loose system of government in the United States.

I do not understand that Dr. Friedensburg inveighs against workmen's compensation for accidents, but only against the abuses that have crept into the system.

A misconception of the cost of the German system is largely prevalent. Messrs. Schwedtmann and Emery point out in their book, *Accident Prevention and Relief*, pages 146 and 147, that the final and permanent cost will not be reached until 1935, and will then be twice the present cost.

BY W. G. COWLES

Dr. Ferdinand Friedensburg, who for more than twenty years was an official in the imperial insurance office in Germany, wrote a monograph which was published in a German periodical in 1911, in which he recorded certain facts which came, in their original form, under his official observation. Upon these facts he predicated certain theories and conclusions.

Dr. Randolph T. Brodsky of New York, an ambitious but deserving young man, has offered a criticism. If Dr. Brodsky assumes to criticize, he must accept the treatment ordinarily given to a critic.

Dr. Friedensburg reviewed his monograph after its first publication with due regard for criticism, but no regard for the abuse which the first publication had brought to him. In a preface to the second publication the

author acknowledges helpful criticism and refers to his opportunity to read the handbook of the imperial office published since his monograph first appeared, all of which gave him an opportunity to eliminate such crudities and inaccuracies as not infrequently develop after first publication followed by criticism and review. Referring to this opportunity Dr. Friedensburg says in his preface: "I emphasize this fact with the greater pleasure since it renders nugatory the allegation that my monograph was written to attack or to weaken this most magnificent work. On the contrary, I am happy to find that this report itself recognizes that a large portion of my strictures are justified, and that it acknowledges the existence of many of the abuses of which I have complained."

This publication so revised by the author was translated and circulated under the author's title for the information and assistance of those interested in the questions discussed and particularly in the facts disclosed.

Dr. Brodsky of New York thinks this thing is all wrong, so he prepares a criticism. Being unable to qualify as a critic with any personal experience, he proceeds to treat with some contempt the experience of his well informed and accomplished opponent. Dr. Brodsky writes, "Up to 1897 he [Dr. Friedensburg] was in the invalidity insurance department and a few years later he severed his connection with the imperial office altogether on account of neurasthenia." Replying in kind, it might be observed that up to 1897 Dr. Brodsky was probably attending school. Again, Dr. Brodsky writes: "Up to the time he left the bureau in 1897 there might have been some truth in this accusation as during the first years in which the system was in force pensions were too liberally granted," etc. By these and other expressions this critic endeavors to cut Dr. Friedensburg's period of service in half and seriously questions his competency, if not his reliability. Dr. Brodsky, having no experience upon which he can rely for his criticism, has recourse to certain chosen publications, of which he gives a list. From these publications he quotes sparingly and deduces liberally. Thus equipped, a general symposium of the criticism is developed in the following form:

"The chief defect of Dr. Friedensburg's pamphlet lies in the fact that the whole subject of social insurance is examined in the words of Dr. Conrad Weymann, himself also a retired president of the senate of the imperial insurance office, and therefore likewise under no constraint to defend the system, 'through dark glasses' in a spirit of pessimism. That there are defects in the system Dr. Weymann, in common with all critics of Dr. Friedensburg, has no doubt, but they are all defects which are well known to the thoughtful German, which can be removed by a thorough cleaning up; and in any case this cleaning up is already under way."

So, this is the criticism. This system has been subject to rank misapplication and malfeasance for more than twenty-five years,

everybody knew it who knew anything about it, and no one save Dr. Friedensburg considered it his duty to tell the truth. The facts being disclosed, all hands propose that the mess be cleaned up. The resolve is a good one, but it will be quite soon enough if we accept it as a fact, to be substituted for the facts related by Dr. Friedensburg, when it is accomplished. If offenses could be eliminated by promised reforms, our jails would be empty and our sheriffs comparatively idle.

A careful reading of Dr. Brodsky's criticism shows no attempt on his part or on the part of the authors upon whom he relies to raise a single question about Dr. Friedensburg's tremendous array of convincing facts. Dr. Friedensburg's indictment stands unanswered as to facts while issue is taken only with occasional conclusions. The point about litigation is one example. There two entirely dissimilar conditions are compared unfairly by the critic to disprove Dr. Friedensburg's theories, but his facts are admitted.

The same method is employed several times to throw doubt upon the conclusions of the author.

If we eliminate all conclusions and prognoses, the undisputed facts remain and those are sufficient for all purposes.

This attempted criticism adds no new information, it is destructive rather than constructive, it is misleading rather than helpful. There are a whole lot of people who know things which are not so. We do not put Dr. Brodsky in that class, but we cannot concede that he is in a class which permits him to assume the right to criticise Dr. Friedensburg in public. Dr. Friedensburg is a savant. Dr. Brodsky is an apprentice. "A cat may look upon a king," but a cat can never dethrone a king except in a kingdom of cats.

BY HENRY W. FARNAM

Dr. Friedensburg's study of the Practical Results of Workingmen's Insurance in Germany interests me exceedingly, because it is a confirmation, from the point of view of the administration, of some of the conclusions which I reached several years ago, after a careful study of the statistics and official publications. In the *Yale Review* for May, 1904, and in the Yale Insurance Lectures, I pointed out what seemed to me some of the unfortunate effects of the compulsory system. The second edition of the latter book, published in 1909, sums up my conclusions in the following words:

"When we find that, in spite of measures to diminish accidents, and in spite of a diminution in the more serious accidents, the proportion of minor accidents is steadily increasing; when we find that, in spite of generally improved sanitary conditions and a diminished death-rate, the cases of sickness are increasing in proportion to the number of the insured, and that the average duration of each case of sickness is lengthened, the conclusion seems inevitable that the working

classes as a whole are taking advantage of the insurance benefits to make more of their accidents and ailments than they did in the beginning. If such a thing is possible under an administration which is, on the whole, very strict and punctilious, we naturally ask, what would it be, if the government officials were lax, or corrupt, or subject to political influence? In other words, the indications are that unsuspected and rather insidious evils have developed under the system, which must be taken account of by any country which aims to copy it."¹

Such a study as that of Dr. Friedensburg, while it, of course, presents but a partial view of the situation, is valuable as a corrective of the views of German officials which tend to be decidedly rose-colored. Even so distinguished a statistician as Dr. Zacher commits himself to such a statement as the following:

"The number of persons who are insured against sickness, accident, invalidity, and old age, and the figures for the disbursements of the three branches of insurance, prove in themselves that poor relief must have been relieved in a surprising degree."²

To the scientific mind this is a clear *petitio principii*. There are, unfortunately, no general figures to conclusively prove or disprove the alleviating effect of insurance upon poor relief, but such facts as we have, some of which I have marshalled in the studies referred to above, indicate that both the administration of poor relief and the administration of the insurance laws are powerfully influenced by a desire to exercise liberality towards the unfortunate, and the effects of poor relief in England before the reform of the poor law, as well as similar experiences elsewhere, show that such a policy, however well-meant, is in danger of producing demoralizing effects which the law and the administration should aim to guard against.

BY ADELBERT MOOT

There are many strong reasons for trying workmen's compensation, rather than compulsory insurance, as a legal measure of the damages caused by industrial accidents. A few may be thus stated:

Germany has tried compulsory insurance for more than thirty years, under more favorable conditions than we can hope for in this country, and yet the most earnest discussion is now going on in that country over its success or comparative failure. That compulsory insurance is a great improvement upon our own antiquated negligence common law is not to be denied. But after several years' trial, in 1888 its financial burdens were 78,241,023 marks, while in 1899, or only eleven years later, those financial burdens had doubled, and doubled, and doubled again; in other words, had grown to 767,428,904 marks. Nor did even this amount produce peace and con-

¹Yale Readings in Insurance, Fire Insurance. Edited by Lester W. Zartman, Ph.D. Yale University Press, 1909, p. 430.

²Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, June, 1911.

tentment among the beneficiaries, for in 1909, out of 422,076 awards, there grew 76,352 appeals. So, too, in 1898 there were only 4,563 appeals for causes that gave rise to 37,422 appeals in 1910. This increase in appeals is partly explained as due to substituting lump sum awards for continuing pensions. Another partial explanation is that pensions were "too liberally granted," but if such was the case in stringent Germany, what would happen in this country in cases where the victim could bring a "pull" to bear in favor of his demand for a pension?

In Ohio we are told that premiums, as fixed by the state officials, have a wide range. That range gives those manufacturers having a "pull" a great chance with political officials. That range is, for example, from 35 cents to \$15 per \$100 in wages in textile manufactures; from 95 cents to \$21.20 in metals; and from \$2.20 to \$29.80 in ore and coal handling.

With a board made up of political appointees, such as some governors of some states are sure to appoint, without experience in either business or insurance, and such a wide range of premiums, what is to become of business? Where will the little business concern, without experience or influence, come out, in competition with a big and influential competitor? Will not the shop of the big concern be found safe and get a low premium, where the little one will be found unsafe, whether really so or not, and so get a maximum premium? And if not, is it not clear that risky business must leave the state, because it cannot pay any such maximum premiums and live? Life and limb are more than business, but if the workman cannot get work and must see his family starve, is he better off than he would be to have work to support them, at some risk of life and limb? In Germany it is said the expense ranges from 1 to 4.5 per cent of the cost of production; but we cannot see how the Ohio premiums in risky business could produce any such results. Those premiums seem to be prohibitive in risky business. The truth is that in Germany, with politics excluded, and experts included, there has been prosperity under compulsory insurance, just as there has been prosperity in England under workmen's compensation. That compulsory insurance is not so well adapted to free government, is seen, however, from the struggles of France with compulsory insurance; for as to France it is explained that the trouble is due to her "too liberal tribunals." That "malingering," and "wholesale dissimulation," have compelled Germany to recently amend her law to cut out "minor accidents," and avoid so many "battles for pensions" by a "clean up" with lump sum awards, shows that all is not as bright as painted; also a tendency towards the principle of workmen's compensation, not compulsory insurance, even in Germany.

The attempts of Ohio, Washington, and Massachusetts, to adapt the compulsory insurance system of Germany to this country,

seem unsatisfactory. We want to keep away from bureaus, centralized government, politics, and political pulls, and, therefore, despite the fact that no workmen's compensation act is perfect, we will do better to follow England and our own states with workmen's compensation acts. The proposed federal workmen's compensation act, if made applicable to all interstate industries employing many persons, would be a suggestive model for such an act for the states, as to intra-state industries.

BY F. S. TOMLIN

The great benefit to society of a properly conceived and administered law providing compensation to employes for injuries caused by accident should cause everyone to do all in his power to direct the agitation into lines that will result in a law economically sound and equitable, which will not encourage sound malingering or other destructive practices.

The weaknesses of the German system are that the workmen pay part (about 8 per cent) of the cost of the compensation; that the system is complicated and cumbersome, the administration unnecessarily expensive; that it breeds discontent, encourages malingering; that it has created a large and constantly increasing class of parasitic mischief-making intermediaries a little lower in the moral and professional scale than the ambulance-chasing lawyers of our own country, aided and abetted by the imperial office. In spite of these drawbacks, however, since the passage of the law, Germany has grown from a negligible quantity in the industrial world, to the front rank in manufacturing nations.

As against the German defects, the defects of the English system are the low rates of compensation. Furthermore, in the English system the employer is not compelled to insure and too much incentive is given to appeal to the courts and to bring suits on the gambler's chance of a big verdict. On the whole, however, if I were compelled to choose between the English and the German systems, I would unhesitatingly choose the English. In my opinion neither system would be acceptable to the workmen of this country. The full cost of compensation should be paid by the employer and made a charge on the industry through compulsory state insurance. The rates of insurance should be adjusted to the hazard of the industry.

Administration should be by an impartial commission of three or five persons who should examine and pass on all claims, and so far as possible, the decisions and awards of the commission should be final, no claim for compensation should be allowed in which the injury does not cause an impairment of the efficiency of the workman 5 per cent.; compensation should be awarded on a strictly business basis and the idea of sympathy or charity should find no place in the minds of

the commission. I am of the opinion that any other plan of compensation will prove ineffective and will not work out to the best interest of the employer, the workman, and the general public.¹

BY P. TECUMSEH SHERMAN

We are confronted with two *distinct* questions, first, should we correct our law of employers' liability for work-accidents by substituting the law of compensation in place of the law of negligence? Second, should the state, by law, provide or require insurance for working people against such misfortunes as sickness, accident, and old age? Nearly all European countries have answered the first question affirmatively by substituting the compensation law for the negligence law at least in application to hazardous employments. But as to work-accident insurance there is wide diversity. In Great Britain, for example, such insurance is neither provided by the state nor required of the employer. In some other countries where the law of direct liability for compensation prevails employers are required to insure the payment of the compensation. In Germany a comprehensive system of compulsory, mutual, state-regulated, sickness, accident, and disability insurance has been established, under which employers bear the cost of insuring compensation for work-accidents. And in Norway the state itself insures compensation therefor, and meets the expense by taxation of employers.

Insurance of compensation is not necessarily good, but in some respects is inevitably harmful. And state-insurance schemes generally are more harmful than beneficial, for they are unjust to the better employers, tend to increase industrial accidents, and are fraught with political abuses and economic defects and dangers. On some or other of these scores the Norwegian, Ohio, and Washington schemes each deserves condemnation. The German insurance system is exceptional, and merits admiration as much for the skill with which harmful consequences have been avoided as for its positive benefits. But it is an extraordinarily complex system of checks and balances, fitted to conditions in Germany; and it is an unsolved problem how that system can be adapted to conditions in America without sacrificing features essential to its success. Moreover, although Dr. Friedensburg's criticisms should perhaps be discounted, yet it must be admitted that the German system has failed more or less in some directions and in some of its purposes, and that it is a perilous experiment in industrial economics, which has not yet passed its crucial test.

Bearing in mind that insurance of one class at the expense of another or of the body of tax-payers is paternalism and involves a radical departure from the political principles to which we owe our progress and prosperity, and that once undertaken it cannot be aban-

doned without great harm, it seems only common prudence that, before experimenting with state-imposed schemes for insuring compensation for work-accidents, we should first try the law of employers' direct liability for compensation. That would promote justice, decrease industrial accidents, and assure compensation for such accidents to a large majority of the working-people who need it most. We could thereby learn where or under what conditions, if at all, compulsory insurance is truly desirable, and could then fit our insurance to the facts.

BY ERNST FREUND

There seems to be a general misapprehension as to the nature of Dr. Friedensburg's pamphlet on the Practical Results of Workmen's Insurance in Germany. Suppose one were to recount all the evils that the introduction of railroads has brought in its train,—franchise grabbing and stock-watering, defaulted municipal bonds; legislative corruption and judicial favoritism, above all, the maiming and killing of many thousands of human beings—would such an indictment be understood as an invitation to return to the old stage coach? Dr. Friedensburg speaks of "the blind fool who fails to recognize that the blessings of this insurance cannot be adequately described even by the usual phrases of unconditional laudation." His criticism is directed to incidental evils and not to the fundamental features of the system. No one in Germany questions these at the present day. When a year ago the insurance code was revised and recast, no party in the Reichstag ventured to assail the principle of the law.¹

It would require a much more intimate acquaintance with the workings of the German methods of settling accident claims than most observers in this country can lay claim to, to judge of the justice of Dr. Friedensburg's arraignment.

On the face of it the pamphlet does not seem to distribute light and shadow quite evenly, and Dr. Brodsky's reply shows the account to be exaggerated or misleading in some respects. However, our knowledge of human nature and human institutions should tell us that a system of accident relief must carry with it grave dangers of fraud and abuse. It is natural that in the agitation for the reform of our personal injury law in this country these should not have been overemphasized, but they were not ignored, and many advocates of the new system have again and again called attention to the necessity of framing the laws in such a manner as to minimize these evils.

It seems to me that a reading of Dr. Friedensburg's pamphlet, even if due allowance is made for possible exaggeration or bias, points two lessons for legislation in this country:

In the first place, it would not be wise to deprive the parties of their right to court

¹In his suggestions, Mr. Tomlin outlines the main provisions of the Merrill bill introduced in the last session of the New York legislature.

¹For the text of the New Code see Bulletin 96 of the Department of Commerce and Labor.

review, however desirable it may be to require in the first instance a resort to arbitration proceedings; for administrative boards do not furnish adequate guaranty of impartiality and strict adherence to the law. Fortunately, our constitutions generally secure this ultimate judicial control; but the proposed constitutional amendment for New York seems to sacrifice it if the legislature desires to make administrative decisions conclusive.

In the second place, the compensation system seems to meet the dangers of abuse more effectually than state insurance. Private accident insurance companies will fight fraudulent and extravagant claims in a manner which cannot be expected of official boards, and it need not be feared that they will meet with undue favor in resisting claims. The relative merits of the compensation and state insurance plans in this respect have been fully set forth by P. T. Sherman in the memorandum submitted by him to the Federal Compensation Commission,¹ and those responsible for legislation should carefully read and consider this admirable statement.

BY LOUIS BRANDEIS

Only those familiar with the detailed practical working of the German accident system are entitled to express an opinion on the soundness of Dr. Friedensburg's criticisms, so ably reviewed by Dr. Brodsky; but certain points seem clear.

First, The social need of a comprehensive system for indemnifying working men against industrial accidents is unquestioned. Any and every system when applied will be found to be defective in some respects and subject to some abuses. No mechanical invention is 100 per cent efficient; and we have no reason to expect better results in the newer and more difficult field of social invention. Even if the defects and abuses of the German system are as great as Dr. Friedensburg contends, it would afford reason for greater effort in perfecting the machinery, and no adequate reason for adopting the English system.

Second, An adequate system of accident insurance must tend to eliminate preventable accidents as well as to compensate adequately for the loss sustained. No system can be effective in preventing accidents which is not of a nature to secure the fullest co-operation of employer and employee; and none can be just which does not place the burden of making compensation for accidents actually occurring jointly upon those who jointly had the responsibility of preventing them. The responsibility for the prevention of accidents and the administration of the compensation fund should be vested in a board composed of representatives of both employer and employee. The funds required to make compensation should be raised by contribution from both employer and employee.

Both the German and English systems lack these essentials of complete success,—neither is democratic.

BY CARROLL W. DOTEN

The exploitation in this country of Dr. Friedensburg's criticisms of the German system of social insurance is an unfortunate incident of the campaign on the part of the employers' liability insurance companies to prevent the growth of public sentiment in favor of state and mutual insurance. It arouses an unwarrantable prejudice against all compensation systems at a time when it is most important that open-mindedness should prevail.

It is apparent to any one who reads Dr. Friedensburg's paper with even a slight knowledge of the splendid results accomplished in Germany under its insurance system that most of his criticisms are directed against sporadic abuses, the mistakes of inexperience, and incidental defects in organization and administration, which have either been corrected or are in process of correction or which are the inevitable consequence of human imperfections, such as prevent the attainment of ideal results in every line of social endeavor.

In considering the relative advantages of the German and English systems of compensation, it should be remembered that both are based upon the same theory, namely, that each industry should provide for the human cost in the way of disabling injuries, just as it does for all other costs of production, and distribute the burden through the price of the product. Both systems came into existence as a result of an almost universal recognition of the inadequacy of the old laws based upon fault or negligence and of the injustice and inexpediency of these laws.

The difficulty with the English system is that it is too much like an extension of the old liability laws. It still puts the burden of compensation, and therefore of loss, upon the immediate employer so far as it has removed it from the shoulders of the injured employees. In effect it makes him responsible not only for those accidents which are due to his negligence but for those which he could not in any way prevent or foresee. On the other hand it leaves the injured workman and his family dependent upon the financial ability of his employer, unless the latter chooses to insure the risk.

The German plan recognizes that compensation is not a penalty nor a charity; but that it is a form of social insurance due to those who risk life and limb in the increasingly dangerous occupations of modern industry. It puts the burden on the whole industry instead of the individual employers, and guards the beneficiaries against loss through the insolvency of the employer.

It interposes a mutual association between the employer and his injured employee and thus removes the antagonism which must necessarily exist when direct payments are

¹ Federal Compensation Commission Hearings, Part 2, pp. 590-609.

made, but it does not remove the matter so far from the employers as to prevent the full operation of self interest in preventing accidents and making settlements which shall promote the general improvement of the industry.

The Massachusetts law¹ was modelled on the German plan. The members of the commission who drafted the bill and those who supported it in the legislature were convinced that no compensation law should be enacted which did not provide by means of insurance against overwhelming loss to the employer and against the consequences of his bankruptcy. They were convinced that the German system accomplishes this purpose and also tends to prevent accidents to a much larger extent than does the English system, and they were hopeful that like results would flow from a similar law in Massachusetts.

BY PAUL KENNADAY

It is becoming fairly well established in America at last that the charge for industrial injuries should be placed upon industry irrespective of "fault." But with an American fear of democracy and with our own peculiar faith in private regulation of matters of public utility, we propose to turn over to private individuals and to private insurance companies the whole scheme ostensibly worked out for the protection of the great body of wage-earners. We make brave announcement that industry and not the individual, is to bear the cost of industrial injury, and then straightway we begin to make exceptions and to compromise. In one state law we except employers of fifteen or less, and in another we except farm laborers and railway employees. We compromise in others to such good effect that in case of the death of a wage-earner, no matter how high his standard of living and no matter how many his actual dependents, the widow receives compensation within a maximum of \$10 and a minimum of \$5 per week for five and one quarter years only. In three of our states for *total and permanent* incapacity but 50 per cent of the weekly wages are paid, not during the period of the incapacity but during a period arbitrarily limited by statute to 300 weeks. Is this putting on industry the charge for industrial injury or is it not rather poor relief *à la mode*?

It seems incredible that after all the noise of chicanery and fraud, of lawyers' fees and law's delays, of obvious risk and fellow servant and contributory negligence, there should have come forth but these mouse-sized doles. What the workman wants, and if I mistake not, what justice demands, are: First, prevention, and that is to be had best through state insurance fixing premium rates according to the hazard and making a business of prevention. Second, adequate compensation, and if what employers and statesmen now offer is a criterion, only state insurance will provide this; Third, absolute security of payment, which cannot be given by any mere preference among creditors or subrogation

of employees to the limited claims of employers against private insurance companies, in a land of Triangle fires and Altoona dam disasters, where sub-contractors and sub-lessees play hide-and-seek with their workers and where failures during the past ten years have numbered over 124,000 with total liabilities of over fifteen thousand and ninety millions of dollars.

No doubt state insurance in these United States will be no easy task. Yet difficulty of performance will not excuse dependence upon wrong principle. We in the halls of practical, very practical, legislation, and variously referred to by bewildered labor leaders as employers, lawyers, high-brows, sociologists, philanthropists, are presuming to ask the majority of our fellow citizens to surrender not only common law and statutory rights, but rights secured to all of us in the bills of rights and embodied in our state constitutions. It is hardly to be expected that they will accept with avidity, or if they come to understand what they are surrendering and what it is proposed to give, that they will accept at all, any scheme which will not guarantee adequate payment for total or partial loss of ability to work and earn. And then they will demand, even more than this, something much more than adequate pay for loss,—prevention of loss, such as can come with control and operation by the state working in a big way for the whole community.

BY HENRY L. SLOBODIN

"Is that all?" one asks after perusing Dr. Friedensburg's arraignment of the German workingmen's insurance system. Even this severest critic did not dare to condemn the German plan as a whole; nor directly, or by inference, express a preference for the English or any other plan. It is obvious that even in Dr. Friedensburg's mind the question is no more debatable. The German system is beyond comparison and has come to stay.

Dr. Friedensburg's strictures cannot be viewed as serious criticism. They produce in one the impression of petulant fault-finding. Why do workingmen try to get more than they are legally entitled to? Why is the insurance office administered in the spirit of benevolence rather than law? Why do the workingmen continue to be ungrateful and discontented? Why has insurance failed to eradicate socialism? Why do the sanitaria, some of which are actually under the control of the socialists, treat the workingmen with unheard-of humanity?

The socialists, far from denying all this, are shamelessly rejoicing that this is so. They are grateful to Dr. Friedensburg for confirming their own views as to how state insurance will pan out. The German system meets the biggest argument against state ownership, namely, that state dependents will be subservient tools of the government or politicians. Dr. Friedensburg learned that the comfort offered to the workingmen in a sanitarium arouses their discontent with the con-

¹Chapter 751 of the Acts of 1911.

ditions outside. Nothing better could be said in favor of those institutions. Let the workmen open their eyes and see that there are plenty of good things in this world which all of them could enjoy under a rational economic system.

Why! exclaims Dr. Friedensburg in horror. You will make a nation of shirkers!

Tut, tut, dear doctor. The workmen will do their share of the nation's work, if only you and yours will do your share. However, the socialists admit that shirking work is bad and anti-social. But what can you expect in a system where enjoying an income in idleness is considered creditable and honored?

State insurance is so obviously superior to any other plan that it will have to be adopted eventually, no matter what else is tried. There is one substantial objection to state insurance,—the private liability companies. The question of constitutionality is of much less importance for us than some would think. The liability companies prefer the compensation act to state insurance. And they will have no difficulty in bringing the courts about to see "the light of reason."

BY HUGH F. FOX

The development of social insurance in Europe is based on the principle that individual misfortunes which are the result of industrial and social causes, must be distributed and borne lightly by the community, instead of falling with crushing weight upon the individual. The application of this doctrine to state insurance against sickness, accidents, invalidity, and old-age dependence, will necessitate much more thorough preventive work than has been done anywhere hitherto, in factory inspection, housing inspection, medical inspection, the treatment of tuberculosis and other devastating diseases, and in a better regulation of dangerous and unhealthy trades and occupations.

In the application of this principle, the difference between the German and the English method, reflects the difference between the collectivism of Germany, and the individualism of the English. It would be impossible to transplant the German system to the United States, in our day and generation. The federal government will have to solve many other administrative problems efficiently and economically, before it will be justified in tackling such a colossal undertaking as a federal department of insurance.

The English plan of requiring the individual employer to pay his own workmen a definite sum in case of accident, irrespective of negligence, has been followed by the state of New Jersey. The law leaves it to the employer's individual initiative to make his own provision for the payment of compensation in case of accidents, and since such laws have resulted in a very large increase in the premium rates by employers' liability and casualty companies, it is probable that many large employers will follow the plan now being considered by the brewing industry, of forming its own fund for accident insurance. Under a system of compulsory insurance, the cost of get-

ting the business and of commissions thereon, which is such a large item in the overhead charge of a commercial insurance company, ought to be eliminated.

The weak point in the English system is that the workmen are not completely protected against what might be called "the commercial hazard." One can conceive of some immense calamity, such as a mining disaster, which would wreck any private insurance fund, and ruin any individual employer. The burden is one which should be borne in part by the employer, in part by the working man, and in part by the state itself.

There are, of course, serious difficulties in the way of state insurance schemes, particularly in relation to interstate complications, but I believe that eventually the states may have to undertake the supervision, if not the actual conduct, of industrial insurance.

BY F. C. SCHWEDTMAN

The basic difference between the English and German workmen's compensation systems is, that under the English scheme the burden of compensation for injuries is thrown upon the individual employer and made a feature of his individual relationship with his employees. Under the German scheme individual responsibility is eliminated and the burden of compensation is solved by compulsory insurance.

Experts of all European nations, including England, assembled in Rome in 1908 and again at The Hague in 1910 recognized officially "compulsory insurance" as the best and most efficient means of reducing human and economic loss from work-accidents, sickness, and invalidity. During my European investigation I found a general pessimism and dissatisfaction among Englishmen with their scheme, and general optimism and satisfaction among Germans with their system.

Lloyd-George's national insurance bill, which was passed recently by the British parliament, is suggestive of an intended nucleus for a general system of compulsory insurance which will ultimately displace the present English system. Speaking of this recent English act the *Bulletin Des Assurances Sociales* says: "Here is Bismarck out-Bismarcked and Mr. Lloyd-George has gone farther than the first initiator of German workers' insurance."

An analysis of German accident insurance expenditures for 1908 shows 77¼ per cent of the total expenditures paid to injured workers or their dependents; 9¼ per cent for reserve fund; 7¼ per cent for management, 2¾ per cent for investigations; 1¼ per cent for litigation; 1¾ per cent for prevention activities, etc. Such efficiency is entirely unknown in the United States or in England, and especially are the legal expenditures of 1¼ per cent remarkably low.

I saw accident prevention practiced more generally and systematically under the German scheme than under the English law. An English commission, consisting of members of the Labor Party and trade union commission, says, after a visit to Germany, in its of-

ficial report: "One effect of all this . . . organization is to prevent the hideous open social sores, with which we in Great Britain are so familiar. There are certainly poor in Germany . . . but there are few so utterly broken on the wheel of misfortune as those who are allowed with us to wander about, parading their sores and propagating their kind. . . . Germany, individually and collectively, is realizing itself and organizing itself. . . . We are convinced that it is having considerable effect at present in increasing the productive efficiency of the nation."

Professor Edouard Fuster of Paris, one of the greatest international experts upon this subject, says: "The money which Germany is devoting to social insurance reappears in a thousand forms. It promotes happiness of the family, health, and self-respect. It makes for a strong, enduring nation and for international supremacy."

Dr. Paul Kaufman, president of the German Imperial Insurance Department, writes me as follows:

"It is not an accident that the unprecedented expansion of German commerce and industry has happened concurrently with thoroughgoing improvement in the condition of workers. There is a close connection between the two events. The successful handling of the labor problem by means of social insurance is one of the strongest factors in Germany's constantly growing industrial progress."

Dr. Spiecker, president of the Siemens and Halske Company of Berlin, writes me as follows:

"It is perfectly evident today that we have secured higher efficiency in our industries due to increased workers' efficiency, all brought about by relieving our workers from worry and distress, due to sickness, injury, and superannuation."

Dr. Zacher, director of the Imperial Statistical Department, who is honored and respected internationally as probably no other German expert, wrote me nearly a year ago:

"His [Dr. Friedensburg's] statements must not be taken too seriously. He has been generally known, even during his active connections with the Imperial Insurance Department, as the solitary advocate of extreme tendencies. His articles show an unwarranted tendency to condemn a great national social insurance system on account of a few trifling shortcomings in some of its details."

A clipping from a recent issue of *Neue politische Correspondenz Berlin* reads, translated, as follows:

"It is proper to call attention to the fact that Friedensburg's statements are in many directions incorrect and make individual shortcomings appear general to an unwarranted degree. As a whole Dr. Friedensburg's statements give a wrong picture of the results of German workers' insurance and are, therefore, unfitted to inform foreign countries accurately and conclusively concerning German workers' insurance system."

Let me say in conclusion that we cannot and will not transplant either the English or

the German scheme as a whole, but we must study all foreign systems and translate their best features into American ways of thinking and doing things. This alone will give us a system in keeping with the institutions and the traditions of the United States.

BY CHARLES R. HENDERSON

Dr. Friedensburg's criticisms deserve careful study and the warning they convey should preserve us from some errors in administration. But they should not turn our attention from the fact which even he does not deny, that Germany has no party which has lost faith in the principle of social insurance. Dr. Zacher's counter-statement may be taken as an antidote. The casualty companies have nothing to fear if they will be good; there will be business enough for them, and even if they were hurt, the national interest is greater than any private interest. Many a poor workingman has lost his all by some improvement in machinery or industrial organization.

It is too early to foretell whether the English compensation idea or the German social insurance principle will be found better for American conditions. In favor of the English principle of compensation it may be argued that it represents only a slight departure from our previous legislation under the liability laws. The trade unions cling to the old laws because they are the only legal defenses we have ever, as a nation, offered them; and they have no experience of anything better. Habits of thoughts linger after conditions have changed. It is claimed by many lawyers that the courts are more likely to sustain an imitation of English law than one based on German public law; but, in the light of the New York decision, this seems doubtful, and English law is moving rapidly away from its former basis.

In favor of the social insurance principle, it may be argued that it aims simply, openly, and directly at its end—the assurance of a certain income in case of disability from industrial accident,—while the compensation scheme follows a circuitous route. Further, just because the compensation law is so closely akin to the liability law, it is objectionable because it cannot quite clear the minds of men of the notion of getting even for a personal wrong done. Compensation suggests a fine for a fault of the employer, while insurance is based on national co-operation for the benefit of its citizens, and is entirely impersonal.

No scheme of compensation by individual employers yet proposed protects the injured employee in case of bankruptcy of the employer,—no fund is provided to cover this possibility. Social insurance would be more economical than compensation, and the rate of cost could be determined more exactly and certainly. 'T was this consideration which led Messrs. Schwedtmann and Emery, in their report to the National Association of Manufacturers to say: "If every employer becomes a limited insurer in law, he should become an insurer in fact, and the obligation of contributing to a compensation fund or provid-

[Continued on 2d advertising page, following page 256.]

STEEL CORPORATION LABOR REPORT

JOHN A. FITCH

In April, 1911, at the annual meeting of stockholders of the United States Steel Corporation, Charles M. Cabot of Boston introduced a resolution calling for the appointment of a committee to investigate the truth of statements contained in an article in the *American Magazine*¹ in which conditions in the steel industry were summed up as follows:

A daily and weekly schedule of hours, both shockingly long; a system of speeding which adds overstrain to overtime; and, crowning all, a system of repression that stifles initiative and destroys healthy citizenship.

The motion carried and the committee, which was not appointed until fall, held its first meeting October 31. In January, William H. Matthews formerly of Kingsley House, Pittsburgh, was secured as secretary of the committee, and the brunt of the investigation, on which its recommendations are based, fell on his shoulders.

At the annual meeting of stockholders held April 15, a report was presented which reflects great credit upon the members of the committee and upon the stockholders who voted to accept it. It is a straightforward statement that is bound to have great influence. One need not agree with everything in the report, but no one can fail to be impressed by its fairness. The committee faced the issues squarely and did not hesitate even to express disapproval of some of the policies of the Corporation.

In the face of the reluctance of some of the independent steel companies to adopt a six-day schedule and the aggressive opposition of some, the Corporation's stand against

the seven-day working week is clinched in by the report.

The position taken by the committee on the twelve-hour day is exceptionally striking. After reporting that 45,248 men in the employ of the Corporation are working twelve hours a day, the committee makes very little of the plea that many of these men are not incessantly at work. It sweeps aside all misleading arguments and gets at the very kernel of the situation when it says:

The question should be considered from a social as well as a physical point of view. When it is remembered that the twelve hours a day to the man in the mills means approximately thirteen hours a day away from his home and family—not for one day, but for all working days—it leaves but scant time for self-improvement, for companionship with his family, for recreation and leisure. It is important that any industry be considered in its relation to the home life of those engaged in it as to whether it tends to weaken or strengthen the normalness and stability of family life.

In its discussion of "speeding up" the recommendation is made that *all* workmen "contributing to any resultant increase in production, or economies" should participate in the distribution of the bonuses, instead of the foremen and superintendents alone as at present. If this recommendation were adopted it would do away with some of the most serious objections to that method of encouraging activity.

The discussion of the attitude of the Corporation toward collective bargaining is not as full as might be wished. Much evidence has been brought out at different times showing that Corporation officials have denied to their employees rights that must be held as fundamental if this country is to remain a real democracy. But here, as elsewhere, the committee



WILLIAM H. MATTHEWS.

Former Head Worker of Kingsley House, Pittsburgh, who acted as secretary of the stockholders' committee.

¹Old Age at Forty, John A. Fitch, *American Magazine*, March, 1911.

did not fail to put itself on record. It believes that the Corporation policy is the right one. It is worth while to know where it stands. It is a significant statement, however, that the committee makes in this connection:

We do not believe the final solution of the problems involved in this question have been reached. . . . May it not be reasonably hoped that men, whether they be officials or wage-earners, may more and more be found working together to bring forward the day when employer and employe shall enter into a common administration of industrial interest?

The report very properly gives consideration to the policies of the Corporation having in view the improvement of the condition of the wage-earners, such as the accident relief plan, the safety campaign, the pension system, the welfare and sanitation work and the issue of stock to employes. These policies have all been reviewed by THE SURVEY, and the committee's discussion of them may be found with the full report on the pages immediately following.

Undoubtedly, the recommendation that is of greatest importance in the entire report is that contained in the last paragraph. After having pointed out that the policy of publicity in financial matters that has been followed by the Steel Corporation has resulted in giving the public a large amount of confidence in its scheme of management, the committee recommends, in effect, that similar publicity be given to labor conditions. If the Steel Corporation will lead the way in such a move as this, it will have made a great contribution to the thing that is more than anything else a prerequisite to a solution of labor problems, namely, full publicity and open discussion.

It would have been fortunate, perhaps, if the committee had presented a concrete suggestion as to the shortening of hours of labor, but its recommendation that "steps be taken now" in that direction, puts the matter squarely before the directors. It is reasonable to hope that this suggestion will be given the full consideration that its importance demands, and that a better day is beginning to dawn for the steel workers.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE

At the annual meeting of the stockholders of the United States Steel Corporation held April 17, 1911, the following resolution was adopted:

RESOLVED, That the chairman shall forthwith appoint a committee of not more than five persons from the officers, or stockholders, of this Corporation, to investigate and report to the Finance Committee, as soon as may be, but not later than October 1, 1911, as to the truth of the statements contained in a certain article appearing in the March number of the *American Magazine*, under the title *Old Age at Forty*, and that such report, together with such comment as said Finance Committee may desire to add thereto, shall thereupon be printed and mailed to the stockholders of this Corporation.

Pursuant to such resolutions, Hon. E. H. Gary, chairman of the Board of Directors, appointed the following committee:

Thomas DeWitt Cuyler, of Philadelphia,
Stuyvesant Fish, of New York,
Darius Miller, of Chicago,
Charles A. Painter, of Pittsburgh,
Charles L. Taylor, of Pittsburgh.

The absence of several members of the committee, immediately following its appointment, prevented a full meeting until October 31, 1911, on which date the committee met for organization, electing Mr. Fish as chairman. Between that date and January 12, 1912, several meetings were held, at one of which Charles M. Cabot, the author of the resolution, and John A. Fitch, the writer of the article—*Old Age at Forty*—were present. They, with three members of the committee, held an all-day conference.

At the meeting held on January 12, 1912, William H. Matthews was chosen to act as secretary of the committee. Since that date he has devoted his entire time to visiting many plants of the Corporation, has interviewed workmen, superintendents, and officials, business and professional men in the mill towns, and has been in conference constantly with one or more members of the committee.

From the data gathered by our secretary, together with that obtained by the members of the committee, who, accompanied by Mr. Cabot on the committee's invitation, visited many of the works in the Chicago, Cleveland, and Pittsburgh districts—giving to such inspection all their time from April 3 to April 12—the facts and recommendations which follow are submitted.

As a result of the several meetings held by the committee, for the study of the article under discussion, as also through conference with Messrs. Cabot and Fitch, it seemed that the main questions calling for consideration were:

- (a) The seven-day week, and long turn,
- (b) The twelve-hour day,
- (c) The speeding of the workmen,
- (d) The repression of the men.

Before taking up these questions singly, we believe we but state the facts in saying that no one of these practices was inaugurated by the United States Steel Corporation. Rather were they in vogue, to a greater or less degree, in the various companies which were

brought into one when the Steel Corporation was organized.

(a) THE SEVEN-DAY WEEK AND LONG TURN

Until recent years the seven-day week has been the general rule and practice followed in all the operations which are necessarily continuous, particularly in that of blast furnace work. Nor was it always confined to departments where such continuous operation was a metallurgical necessity. Recognizing the harmful effects of such a schedule of work, the Finance Committee of the Corporation, on April 23, 1907, adopted and transmitted to the presidents of all subsidiary plants of the Corporation the following resolution:

On motion, it was voted to recommend to all subsidiary companies that Sunday labor be reduced to the minimum; that all work (excepting such repair work as cannot be done while operating) be suspended on Sunday at all steel works, rolling mills, shops, quarries, and docks; that there shall be no construction work, loading or unloading of materials.

It is understood that it is not at present practicable to apply the recommendation to all departments, notably the blast furnaces, but it is desirable that the spirit of the recommendation be observed to the fullest extent within reason.

While the efforts made by individual officials to carry out the recommendation of the finance committee resulted in some progress being made toward compliance with the same, in many plants it was disregarded in whole or in part. The explanation of this failure to detach from the steel industry the seven-day schedule of work may be best found, we believe, in that zeal of operating officials for output, exclusive of all other considerations. This being contrary to the policy of the board, and at variance with the resolution of its Finance Committee, a telegraphic order of a peremptory character was issued by Judge Gary on March 18, 1910, to the presidents of all constituent companies, reading as follows:

Mr. Corey, Mr. Dickson, and I have lately given much serious thought to the subject-matter of resolution passed by the Finance Committee April 23, 1907, concerning Sunday or seventh day labor. Mr. Corey has written you on the subject within a day or two. The object of this telegram is to say that all of us expect and insist that hereafter the spirit of the resolution will be observed and carried into effect. There should and must be no unnecessary deviation without first taking up the question with our Finance Committee and asking for a change of the views of the committee, which probably will not under any circumstances be secured. I emphasize the fact that there should be at least twenty-four continuous hours interval during each week in the production of ingots.

(Signed) E. H. GARY.

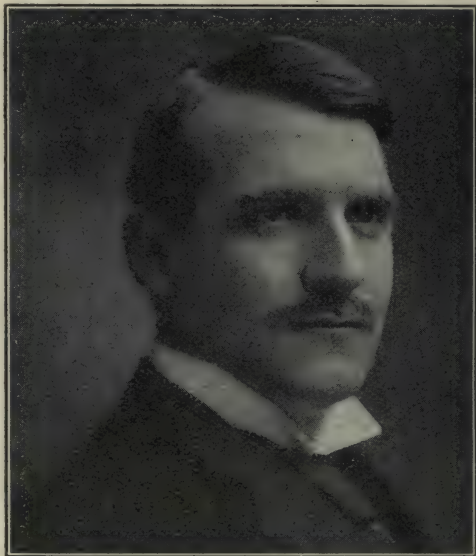
Whether viewed from a physical, social, or moral point of view, we believe the seven-day week is detrimental to those engaged in it. While not wishing to imply that the method adopted by any individual official or any combination of two or more methods would be the best to meet requirements in all mills, we are strongly of the opinion that no matter what alleged difficulties in operation may seem to hinder the abandonment of the seven-day week, they must be met.

The records of today indicate that with the exception of two or three plants, the seven-day week has been relegated to the past.

The resolution of the Finance Committee, as

subsequently emphasized by Judge Gary, was strictly mandatory in character and should, in our judgment, be absolutely enforced at all times, in all mines, mills, shops, railways, docks, and works of the Steel Corporation. Any tendency on the part of anyone to disregard the spirit or the letter of such order should be sufficient cause for removal from service.

Closely allied with the question of the seven-day week is that of the excessive hours of labor involved in continuous processes, caused by the changing of the working shifts from day turn to night turn and *vice versa*. An examination of the time sheets of many of the mills shows that this practice has been entirely abolished in many of the departments and not in others. We recognize that at rare



WILLIAM B. DICKSON.

Former vice-president of the United States Steel Corporation, who at the first meeting of the American Iron and Steel Institute, dealt a smashing blow to the seven-day week in the steel trade. Following his address, a committee was appointed which has worked out the six-day schedule in continuous processes now in force in the Steel Corporation's plants.

intervals there may come emergencies and unusual conditions that would make absolute enforcement of any exact schedule of work hours impracticable, a fact equally true in any field of industry and commerce. Our investigation, however, leads us to believe that it is feasible and practicable to eliminate the long turn formerly followed in the changing of shifts in continuous process work, and that it should be done. Further, that conscientious effort should be made by all to reduce to a positive minimum any undue length in work hours that emergencies and unforeseen conditions may sometimes demand.

(b) THE TWELVE-HOUR DAY

To ascertain the number of employees of

the Steel Corporation working on a twelve-hour schedule (exclusive of officers, managers and clerical forces), we have examined the records of 175,715 men. Of this number we find 45,248, or 25 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent, are at present working twelve hours per day. Generally speaking, this schedule of work finds its largest proportion in those departments which are more or less continuous, such as rolling mills, open hearths and blast furnaces, where the percentage working twelve hours varies from 50 to 60. The explanation of such fact may be found, partly, at least, in the introduction of a large number of mechanical improvements which have steadily cut down the exhausting drudgery and the severe physical labor that was characteristic of many of the processes in the earlier years of the iron and

mate thirteen hours away from his home and family—not for one day, but for all working days—it leaves but scant time for self-improvement, for companionship with his family, for recreation and leisure. It is important that any industry be considered in its relation to the home life of those engaged in it, as to whether it tends to weaken or strengthen the normalness and stability of family life. By a reasonable conserving of the strength of the working population of today may we be best assured of a healthy, intelligent productive citizenship in the future.

We are not unmindful of the fact that the twelve-hour day has, by its general acceptance and practice over a considerable period of years, become firmly entrenched, and that any sudden or arbitrary change would involve a revolution in mill operations. Nor are we at all sure that it would be possible for any one employer, or any number of employers, to inaugurate a shorter hour system, unless a similar policy should be adopted by all employers engaged in the same industry.

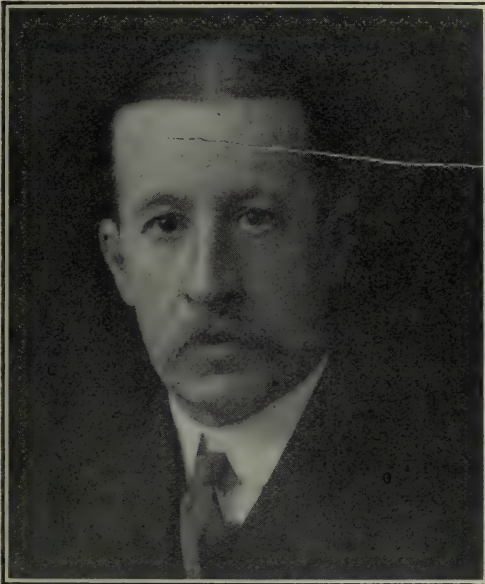
We do believe that following in the wake of other betterment of conditions in the steel industry, there will naturally come a shortening of the hours of labor and the eventual abolishment of the twelve-hour day, which will tend toward increasing the efficiency and resourcefulness of the working population and for that reason bring benefit to both employer and employed.

That steps should be taken now that shall have for their purpose and end a reasonable and just arrangement to all concerned, of the problems involved in this question—that of reducing the long hours of labor—we would respectfully recommend to the intelligent and thoughtful consideration of the proper officers of the Corporation.

(c) THE SPEEDING OF THE WORKMEN

In the article which is under discussion, considerable criticism is made against the system of payment of wages by piece work. We do not believe that there has been evolved any fairer or more generally accepted method of payment for labor. Likewise, what is known as the "bonus" system which has been largely employed by the Steel Corporation as an incentive to increase in output and efficiency, is objected to as tending to result in a system of speeding, harmful to the men.

That there is possibility of abuse in these systems is true. Have there ever been devised rules of procedure in any field of industry free from such possibility? Our observation of labor conditions in the mills of the Steel Corporation does not lead us to believe that there is either desire or tendency on the part of foremen and superintendents to pursue these policies to a point that would mean harm or injury to the men under their charge. It is, of course, within the province of the Board of Directors, and they should employ the necessary means whereby they would always be conversant with and able to promptly check any official, who in his anxiety for output, becomes disregardful of the possible injury to his men by overspeeding and excessive strain.



CHARLES M. CABOT.

The Boston stockholder of the U. S. Steel Corporation, at whose instigation the stockholders' committee on labor conditions was appointed. Early in April, Mr. Cabot sent to 15,000 stockholders a pamphlet lodging a vigorous protest against the twelve-hour day.

steel industry. The actual physical labor involved in many of the positions is, today, much less than in former years, this being especially true of the open hearth and blast furnaces, where the intermittent character of the work is such that there is less call for actual expenditure of physical energy than in many of the eight and ten hour positions.

Notwithstanding this fact, we are of the opinion that a twelve-hour day of labor, followed continuously by any group of men for any considerable number of years means a decreasing of the efficiency and lessening of the vigor and virility of such men.

The question should be considered from a social as well as a physical point of view. When it is remembered that the twelve hours a day to the man in the mills means approxi-

As general operating policies, we believe the "bonus" system and the payment of wages by piece work to be of advantage both to employer and employe, guarding as they do against that dead level of wages regardless of the ambition, the resourcefulness, the efficiency of the individual concerned. They are the exemplification of that *esprit de corps* that is essential to the success of all enterprises; they are but a part of that spirit of contest and competition that is characteristic of all American life, whether it finds expression in the schoolroom, on the athletic field, in the target contests of army and navy, or in the legitimate striving for "place" among workmen, foremen, superintendents, managers and higher officials in any field of commerce and industry. Through their operation, the qualities of perseverance, ingenuity and grit have opportunity for expression, development and reward.

As stated above, these special bonuses are offered as an incentive for increase in output and efficiency. That they should find fair and just distribution among all whose efforts and labor contribute to any resultant increase in production, or economies, would seem to be a subject calling for consideration and action.

(d) THE REPRESSION OF THE MEN

The Steel Corporation has made efficiency the one standard by which continuance of employment in its plants is determined. If we are to understand the term "repression of workmen" as a criticism of and objection to this defined policy, then the implied charge is true. If on the other hand, it involves the question as to what measures the officers of the Corporation should adopt for the suppression of organizations that in the past have, at times, proved irresponsible and incapable of self-control, that have advocated and oft-times insisted upon what are believed by many to be fallacious theories and practices, then, at least, the charge may well be open to discussion.

As a committee of stockholders, we do not believe the final solution of the problems involved in this question has been reached. We do believe the present methods are preferable to the old for all concerned, and that the Steel Corporation, in view of the practices often pursued by labor organizations in steel mills in past years, is justified in the position it has taken.

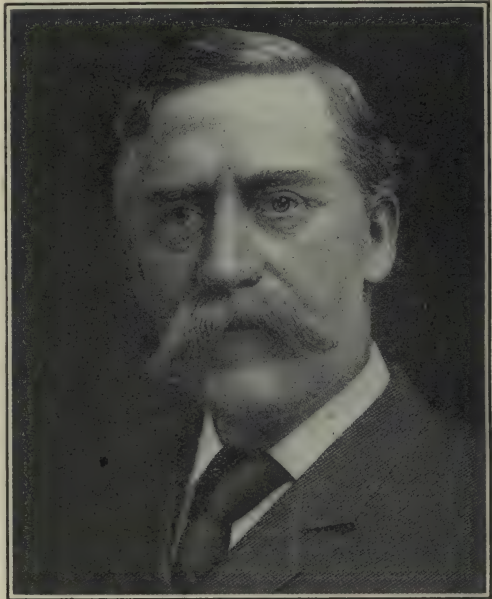
That the method of employment of to-day must prove to be the best for the future is a question on which there may well be a difference of opinion. The interests of society and the community at large will not best be served by that type of mind, whether it be employer or employe, which bases action on the assumption that might makes right. On the contrary, the adjustment of the relations between employer and employe is a task for men of sound minds, reciprocal natures, broad sympathies and courage, men who believe that the future may be made better than the present. May it not be reasonably hoped that such men, whether they be officials or wage-earners, may more and more be found working together to bring forward the day when

employer and employe shall enter into a common administration of industrial interests?

In the article under discussion, Old Age at Forty, mention is made of the general social welfare policies inaugurated at different times by the Steel Corporation. It would seem to be in the province of this report to briefly outline those policies, and to consider their value as affecting the relationship of employer to employe.

SAFETY DEPARTMENT

It is not necessary here to trace the growth of the earlier efforts made by different subsidiary companies toward the prevention of accidents, to the time when they found their culmination in the organization of a central committee of safety early in the year 1908,



STUYVESANT FISH.

Former president of the Illinois Central, who was appointed by Judge Gary as chairman of the stockholders' committee. Mr. Fish made the tour of the steel centers with the committee, and on April 15 presented the report which was adopted by a vote of the proxies held by Judge Gary.

which committee was given the power to examine all the various plants of the Corporation, and as rapidly as possible to bring every mill to the highest possible point of effectiveness in accident prevention.

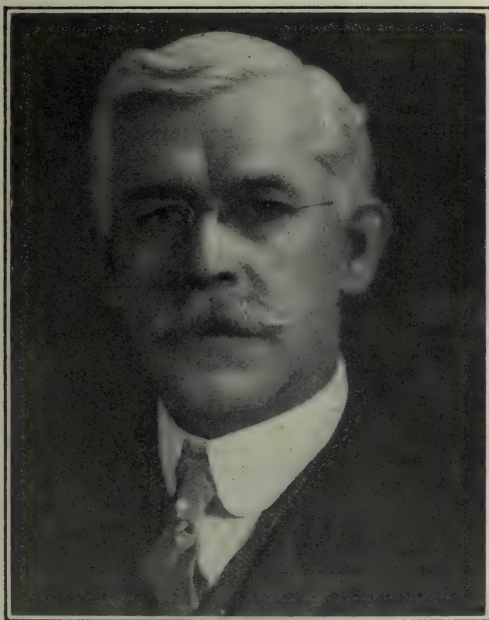
That committee has and is carrying on a determined and effective campaign for safety all along the line. Its work is considered as important a subject as any that the Corporation has to contend with in the manufacture of its products. From the start it has worked on a sound, vigorous and scientific system of accident prevention.

The central office of the Safety Department is in New York, in charge of an acknowledged expert, with several assistants, and supple-

mented by local safety committees in each of the subsidiary companies, which, in turn, are supplemented by sub-committees of foremen and workmen all striving to study and safeguard the lives and welfare of employes.

During the years 1910 and 1911, there was expended \$1,750,000 for safety, and large appropriations have already been granted for a continuance of the work. Gratifying results have been accomplished, as evidenced by the fact that the percentage of serious and fatal accidents throughout all the plants of the Corporation shows a decrease of 43 per cent since 1906. This reduction of serious and fatal accidents, based on the normal number of employes (200,000) means 2,300 less in 1911 than 1906.

Prevention is but the first step in the system of accident and relief work as carried on



CHARLES L. TAYLOR.

Secretary of the Carnegie Company under the Carnegie regime, chairman of the Carnegie Hero Fund Commission and chairman of the Carnegie Relief Fund throughout its operations from 1901 to 1911. Mr. Taylor brought a life-time of practical experience in the mills, plus a decade of devotion to various philanthropic enterprises, to his work on the committee.

by the Corporation. Nearly every plant has its emergency hospital equipped to render first aid to any workmen injured. Each mill has its surgeon and nurse to administer promptly the necessary assistance in case of accident, and the company provides efficient hospital treatment, either in its own hospitals or those of the community.

VOLUNTARY ACCIDENT RELIEF PLAN

In spite of all precautions taken and all efforts towards prevention, there will occur many accidents in any large industry, involving temporary or permanent disability, and sometimes death.

To Andrew Carnegie, the steel industry is indebted for the first voluntary relief measures. In 1901, he created a trust of \$4,000,000, the income of which was devoted, within the Carnegie interests, to the relief of families from whom the breadwinner had been removed by accidental death, to the temporary relief of those employes meeting with work's accidents, and to the pensioning of superannuated employes, and those permanently disabled. From this fund, there was disbursed in nine years the sum of \$1,756,955.59 among 9,746 employes.

What has been the policy of the Corporation in this matter of ameliorating the conditions which accidents often bring to the homes of its employes?

In May, 1910, it established a plan of relief whereby it made voluntary provision for the care and benefit of all employes injured, and for the families of those killed. In a report of this nature, we cannot discuss the considerable detail of such a system. During the years 1910 and 1911, \$3,133,000 was paid in aid of workmen who were injured in the mills, and to the families of those men who were killed in service.

In addition to this voluntary relief on the part of the Corporation, there exist in some of the subsidiary company plants employes' beneficial associations for insurance against sickness and death from causes other than mill accidents. To the funds of these both the men and the company contribute, and in their administration there is a similar partnership. That there should be an extension of this form of insurance would seem to us desirable.

PENSIONS

In addition to voluntary accident relief, the United States Steel Corporation appropriated in January, 1911, a fund of \$8,000,000 for pension purposes, which was combined with the fund of \$4,000,000 which had been established in 1901 by Andrew Carnegie, for the benefit of the employes of the Carnegie plants. The income from the aggregate amount is now being used for the benefit of all employes of all the subsidiary companies of the Corporation. The pension obligations of those subsidiary companies, which had put into operation pension provisions prior to 1911, were assumed by and merged into the new fund.

The record of operations of this fund for the year 1911 were as follows:

Total number of pensioners December 31, 1911	1,606
Number of pensions granted during 1911	565
Total disbursements during 1911	\$348,480.37
Average pensions granted per month	\$20.75
Average age of employes pensioned	66 2-3 years
Average length of service of pensioners	30 4-10 "

SANITATION AND WELFARE

We have found that much attention has been given to the matter of sanitation in many of the mills. Pure drinking-water systems, sanitary lavatories, locker rooms, shower baths, and other like provisions are being established in many of the plants. Not all have traveled as far nor as diligently along

this line of improvement as we think they might.

Along the line of general welfare work, scattering efforts are being made in the way of providing places of recreation, such as club rooms, playgrounds and other agencies for the families of employees. District nurses have been employed by some of the companies; sanitary engineers by others. Specialists have been employed to investigate and report on all questions affecting social welfare. An educational movement along these lines is now being inaugurated, and when that same energy and uniformity of practice that is characteristic of the safety department shall have been brought to bear on the question of welfare, either directly or by co-operation with agencies already at work in the towns, much of permanent value can, and, we believe, will be accomplished. With the question of shorter hours of labor is closely allied this one of providing means and places by and in which the leisure hours gained may be profitably spent. It is not a question for the Steel Corporation alone. Rather is it one to which society as a whole may well address itself.

During the year 1911 the Corporation expended \$1,250,000 for this general betterment work.

STOCK DISTRIBUTION

In the year 1903, a plan was inaugurated, under which shares of preferred stock were offered to all employees and which practice has continued yearly since. A premium of \$5 per annum for five years is paid on each share of preferred stock purchased by employees under this plan.

As of December 31, 1911, 24,588 employees were stockholders under this plan; their aggregate holdings amounting to 102,245 shares of stock.

In response to the 1912 circular concerning employees stock distribution, the following table shows the subscriptions thereunder:

	Number of employees subscribing.	Number of shares of stock.
Employees receiving less than \$800 per year.....	15,349	17,233
Employees receiving \$800 to \$2,500 per year.....	20,096	35,255
Employees receiving over \$2,500 per year.....	1,501	8,866
Total	36,946	61,354

While in the mills, we have made special point to ascertain from the workmen themselves their attitude towards this plan, and we have found most of them well informed as to its provisions. Many with whom we have talked were holders of one or more shares of the stock. Our belief that the plan has encouraged thrift and stimulated the men to save was but strengthened by the remark volunteered by several of the men with whom we talked—that they “had never saved any money until they began this way.”

An impartial examination of all the facts presented in this report will show that much work has already been done by the United States Steel Corporation for the betterment

of conditions under which their employees live and work.

We believe there is evinced a widening sense of social responsibility; an increased willingness to accept the heavier burdens and obligations which have come with the development of modern industry. Yet, not less evident is the fact that there is necessity for still larger accomplishment in the future. Elsewhere in our report we have suggested some of the lines along which that should be wrought.

It may not be amiss to say that the resolution passed by our fellow stockholders imposed a task upon this committee requiring much labor, careful investigation, and conscientious consideration. To approach the questions raised by the article under discussion with fair and open minds; to ascertain and present the real facts; to search for the practical, rather than the theoretical; to reach conclusions that should not be affected in any way by opinions gleaned from this or that possibly prejudiced source, whether of employer or employee—in that spirit have we endeavored to do the work entrusted to us. To that high tribunal, that final court of appeal—public opinion, we submit our conclusions and recommendations. The dissatisfaction and unrest which plainly exist in the industrial world today will not be lessened or removed by a policy that limits itself to a fault-finding, destructive line of action, but rather by one that will in tangible, definite fashion recognize and follow that constructive and conserving leadership of which we believe there is evidence, both in the ranks of employers and employees.

There may be those, perhaps, who will accuse us of unwarranted optimism in expressing the hope that the men who, in the manufacture of iron and steel have been so successful in the invention and application of wonderful mechanical appliances, who have won success in the administration of immense enterprises—that these same men will lead and achieve in the just solving of the social and human problems that in this same industry press for answer.

The publicity accorded by the Steel Corporation quarterly in its financial statements, and monthly in its tonnage statements, has placed it in this respect far in advance of other corporations, and by doing so has gained for it the confidence and trust of the public.

In conclusion, we respectfully recommend to the Board of Directors of the Steel Corporation that hereafter, and at stated periods, a statement shall be submitted to the stockholders, dealing with the questions discussed in this report, so that correct and reliable first-hand information may be available as to the advancement and betterments being effected in these equally vital and important fields of endeavor.

Respectfully submitted,

STUYVESANT FISH,
THOMAS DEWITT CUYLER,
DARIUS MILLER,
CHARLES A. PAINTER,
CHARLES L. TAYLOR,
Committee of Stockholders.

New York, N. Y., April 15, 1912.

May 4, 1912.

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[Continued from p. 249.]

ing an acceptable form of insurance should become a substitute for personal liability." There is no reason for excluding casualty companies from this business. In France much of the insurance required by law is carried by private companies; but the state protects employers against monopoly by having a fund of its own and by permitting the employers to organize their own associations for carrying the risk.

If M. M. Dawson's plan of a national excise tax is found constitutional it would have great economic advantages. The insurance provided would be sound, it would rest equally on all competitors in all states, and it would guarantee all workmen equal rights at one stroke. It would move our nation up from the rear to the front among the civilized peoples. Probably it is too good to be accepted at once; possibly a still better path may be discovered.

BY MILES M. DAWSON

Dr. Friedensburg's brochure upon social insurance in Germany acquires importance here merely because it comes when we are considering what system of workmen's compensation we shall employ. On that account, it is peculiarly fortunate that everything which bears upon the excellences and defects of a system in use in any country should at this time be presented.

But one portion of the social insurance program which he criticizes is before the American people at present, viz: compensation of workmen and their dependents for the consequences of industrial accidents. This, which in some countries, as Great Britain, is provided by making the employer directly liable, is furnished in Germany by requiring employers of the same general industries to contribute to a fund managed by their representatives a sufficient amount to pay the sums currently required to meet industrial accident claims, with a small provision for "equalization reserve." This differs from all other insurance plans in two respects, viz: first, that while compulsory, the management, adjustment of claims, etc., are left entirely to the employers' associations; and, second, that it does not collect more currently than is needed to pay the current instalments of compensation without regard to the year in which the accident causing the injury or death took place, instead of enough to set up "capitalized values" to take care of all the payments on account of the accident.

As regards this form of accident insurance, Dr. Friedensburg's criticisms are confined to his opinion, that arbitration boards to which workmen and their dependents may appeal if dissatisfied with the awards made by the employers' associations, are disposed to favor the workmen. As they do not increase most awards, it is difficult to see how the condition would be improved. The critic does not suggest a means to improve it, but merely that the entire social view-point of the arbitrators is so favorable to workmen that mal-

inger and simulation are encouraged. If this were true, it would not be a criticism of the German plan in particular but of all plans, since courts and juries under any plan must be made up from these classes.

Compensation during the first thirteen weeks of disability, due to accident, is paid by sickness insurance associations, to the support of which, under the German law, employers contribute one-third, employees two-thirds, the control being divided in like manner. Dr. Friedensburg criticises this, taking the position frequently taken by employers in Germany, that they should have at least half representation on the boards. The theory is that the associations are too lenient.

Both these considerations were urged before the Reichstag for two years past while the revision of the social insurance laws was up for consideration. The chief pressure, however, was to substitute awards by boards on which employers and employees would sit, for the present system. The severity of the awards, not the liberality of the revisions, was chiefly in question.

The Reichstag, after full consideration, has left things as they were, both as regards the awards and appeal from them, and also the relative contributions to and representation in the sickness insurance societies; this after full consideration of all arguments, upon the ground that the present system is working more economically and efficiently than could be expected, were it so changed.

Dr. Friedensburg's criticism that social insurance has cost so much that Germany is handicapped in industrial competition, is not of the system by which a fund for accident compensation is raised and disbursed, as compared with, for instance, the British system and private insurance; but is against extension of the German scheme of social insurance, to the many other things covered. It loses point, however, when it is remembered that no country in the world has at any time made such strides industrially as Germany in the last twenty-five years.

Dr. Friedensburg is so far from holding that compulsory mutual insurance should be abandoned for direct liability and private insurance, that he closes with a declaration for straight-out state insurance. This no doubt is due chiefly to his indisposition to permit workmen to have any part in the management of the funds or in making awards or reviewing them. That certainly would not make for impartiality; and few will be likely to agree with him. Experience, also, does not show that state insurance works better, nor indeed nearly so well.

Certainly the inference, intended by those who are circulating it in English, to be drawn from a perusal of this pamphlet, that Dr. Friedensburg would favor a system, involving private insurance with an expense rate of 50 per cent, to replace the German mutual system with an expense rate of 16 per cent, is wholly preposterous; nor is anything which he says, fairly construed, an argument for such a change.

THE COMMON WELFARE

GOVERNMENT MEAT INSPECTION CHALLENGED

What may prove to be a more formidable arraignment of the federal Department of Agriculture than the pure food imbroglio which culminated in Dr. Wiley's retirement from the Bureau of Chemistry, because he felt he could fight better for the public health outside than in; a more searching exposure of practices in meat-making than was revealed in *The Jungle*; and may lead to more basic results in the cause of public health than any other development of the year is bound up in a resolution introduced by Congressman John M. Nelson on April 24 calling for an investigation by the committee on expenditures in the Department of Agriculture.

It will be remembered that following Upton Sinclair's exposure of conditions in the large packing houses, Congress, in 1906, enacted a new meat inspection law designed to protect the health of consumers of meats and food products shipped in interstate trade and appropriated \$3,000,000 annually for its strict enforcement. The basis of the present action is an investigation going back several years carried on as a private citizen by the Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane of Kalamazoo, Mich. She charges that notwithstanding the fact that the Agricultural Department's standards for animals and carcasses passed for human food prior to 1906 were too low, they have been "so lowered since as to render insignificant the unquestioned improvements in packing house sanitation wrought as the result of the new law"; moreover, that not only do the "American people consume meats from diseased animals unwarrantably passed for food in this country but also meat food products which by official instructions are not certified for foreign trade because European countries have refused to accept them."

In detail, the resolution charges the secretary of agriculture and the chief

of the Bureau of Animal Industry, A. D. Melvin, with "nullifying both the letter and intent of the meat inspection law"; that the bureau stamp "U. S. inspected and passed" cannot safely be taken as a guaranty that products are "sound, healthful, wholesome, and fit for human food"; that beef and pork packing establishments have been guilty of grave violations of both the federal meat inspection law and the department regulations, that while the department has had full cognizance of these facts, "no prosecution or threats of prosecution were made nor effective measures taken to prevent the continuance of such violations of law, and on the contrary, Secretary Wilson and Solicitor George P. McCabe have made public statements to the effect that there had been no violations of the law by the packers"; that a lowering of inspection standards and practices has been accomplished by secret "service announcements" not intended for the public, accompanied by warnings that employees showing or giving them to the press would be "severely dealt with"; and that this lowering of standards and practices of inspection has been brought about by the direct and demonstrable influence of packers and of the American Meat Packers' Association. The resolutions call attention to the fact that:

The Department of Agriculture, in addition to the permanent annual appropriation of three million dollars, is now asking for one million dollars for the microscopic inspection of a part of the pork product, the reason assigned being that "several deaths have resulted from eating such products which contained trichinae," and that "the Swiss minister is now seeking reparation on account of the deaths and serious illness of several citizens of Switzerland."

Finally it is charged that the permanent annual appropriation to the department is being "perverted from its intended purpose of protecting the public health to the promotion of the business interests of the pork and beef factories."

MRS. CRANE AND THE OLD MICHIGAN SLAUGHTER HOUSES

In judging of the weight to be attached to these charges, brought by a private individual against a responsible department of the government in a political year, it should be noted that Mrs. Crane's investigations date back to her campaign against a local slaughter house in her home town carried on even before the Chicago reforms. This campaign cleared up county conditions and, with the co-operation of the women's clubs and the medical profession, culminated in a state wide campaign for scientific regulation of local slaughter houses throughout Michigan. Perhaps the most striking feature of that campaign came at its close when one of the Michigan butchers who had fought her most stoutly from the beginning, put up a model abattoir in one of the larger cities of the state, opened it with a reception, and made Mrs. Crane the guest of honor on that occasion. She had created a market for clean meat. From this beginning, her interest spread naturally into federal meat inspection, and increasingly, as she looked into it, her conviction grew that the reforms carried out under the 1906 law met only the more grewsome and superficial charges against diseased meat, and did not reach deep-seated bacterial dangers.

In the fall of 1909, Mrs. Crane spoke at the Richmond meeting of the American Public Health Association and made charges which were resented by the federal Bureau of Agriculture men present. Officials of the association, without, she says, examining her evidence, publicly disparaged it. Nothing daunted, Mrs. Crane set out to ground her charges in a painstaking study of the history of meat inspection in the United States, a slow gathering of documentary evidence, and a scrutiny of the much more progressive standards set by the continental countries, especially Germany. It had been her intention to set forth her findings in a series of articles in one of the major magazines as a means of challenging public attention. As a result of developments of the past month, Congressman Nelson wired her that he thought

it her duty to give her findings to Congress and promised they would be brought out without political bias.

Mrs. Crane is best known to the readers of THE SURVEY as the founder of the People's Church in Kalamazoo, one of the first institutional churches of the Middle West, and for her creative part in starting the associated charities there, the civic club, visiting, nursing, housing reform and playgrounds, kindergartens, manual training, and a wide range of other civic and social activities. In co-operation with the women's clubs and the state Board of Health of Kentucky she made a sanitary tour of the larger cities of the state which challenged public opinion. Her most recent work in this direction was a survey of sanitary conditions in Rochester. Mrs. Crane's husband, Dr. A. W. Crane, is an expert on cancer and is regarded as one of the ranking scientists in the medical profession in the Middle West. She is acting with his co-operation and endorsement, her purpose being very much more fundamental than an attack upon an industry or a governmental department. Her contention is that meat inspection should be a service to consumers rather than a service to producers and that responsibility for it should rest not in the Bureau of Animal Industry, but in a federal health authority; and that so long as the present lax standards continue, the people are paying a sobering cost in the insidious spread of some of the most distressing diseases known to medical science.

SOME STAFF CHANGES IN THE NEW YORK SCHOOL

The New York School of Philanthropy has come into the full use of the endowment left it by the late John S. Kennedy. This increased income and the continued co-operation of the Russell Sage Foundation have made it possible to put into operation the coming year plans which the officers of the school and its friends have had more or less clearly in mind from the beginning, for its development as a professional training school, and also to announce a second year of residence work for those who enter the school in the autumn of 1912.

With these developments in prospect, the New York Charity Organization Society has released its general secretary, Edward T. Devine, from all administrative duties in order that he may concentrate his time and energy on the educational and administrative problems of the School of Philanthropy, and may weld the practical and academic forces which enter into the working scheme of the school. As announced in *THE SURVEY* of April 27, Samuel McCune Lindsay, who resigns as director and takes up additional work at Columbia in the more congenial university field, will remain an active member of the teaching staff, responsible for courses on labor legislation and the administration of laws for the protection of industrial workers.

Four new members have been added to the staff, all of whom will give their entire time to the school. Porter R. Lee, general secretary of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, has been engaged to take charge of the department of family rehabilitation; Kate Holladay Claghorn, registrar of the New York Tenement House Department, to take charge of the department of statistics; Henry W. Thurston, superintendent of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society, to take charge of the department of child welfare succeeding Albert H. Yoder, who has been appointed president of the state normal school at White-water, Wis.; and F. D. Tyson, instructor in the University of Pennsylvania, to give courses on amusements and recreation and on social ideas in literature. In addition to the four new members of the staff, the school will continue to have the entire time, as heretofore, of Frank D. Watson, whose courses deal with the scientific basis of social work; David Blaustein, whose courses are on problems of immigration; and Mary G. Worthington, supervisor of field work; and a substantial part of the time of six members of the special staff who are responsible for full courses of fifteen or thirty lectures.

Special lecturers will, of course, be secured as heretofore to supplement the systematic continuous instruction for which the staff is responsible.

LITTLE MARKETS AND BIG PRICES

That the responsibility for the present high cost of supplies in New York, compared with other cities, can be charged first of all to the chaotic and cumbersome system of marketing which now prevails, is a major conclusion brought out by the hearings during the past few months under the direction of the State Food Investigating Commission which was appointed by the governor less than a year ago. The members of the commission have already reached at least two conclusions of importance:

That present physical facilities for marketing in Manhattan are woefully inadequate.

That the poorer classes in the city are suffering under a burden of prices which would be substantially reduced if these physical facilities were improved.

These conclusions, together with recommendations for legislation directed toward the amelioration of conditions, will be brought out in a preliminary report which the committee on marketing of the State Food Investigating Commission expects to present to the public on or about June 1. The commission has been granted a lease on life for another year before making its final report.

The committee on marketing consists of William Church Osborn of New York, chairman; Ezra Tuttle of Eastport, Long Island; and Calvin Husen, the new state commissioner of agriculture. The power of the committee is entirely limited to the authority to make investigations and to offer recommendations for legislation. Edward Ewing Pratt has been appointed chief statistician.

In mid-April a convention of producers and consumers' leagues and other interested organizations seemed to be of the view that the New York city consumer is paying too much for commodities and the producer receiving too little. "The farmer receives about twenty cents of every dollar paid by the consumer for vegetables to-day," was the emphatic assertion of one of the speakers. To recommend definite plans for the reduction of the cost of living and to begin a concerted campaign to bring producer and consumer closer together was the imme-



diate purpose of the convention. Resolutions were adopted as follows:

1. That the adoption of a system of parcels and express post should be immediately urged upon congress.

2. That steps should be taken to relieve the congestion on West street and to improve the physical marketing facilities in that section of the city.

3. That the establishment of city markets in which the producer and consumer could come into direct communication should be urged upon the mayor, the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, and the Board of Aldermen.

4. That the state Department of Agriculture should be requested to take an active part in the movement to develop and encourage co-operation.

5. That a standing committee be appointed to study and promote the growing tendency toward co-operation between producer and consumer.

PLAN FOR MUNICIPAL NEEDS COMMITTEE

Half a hundred active social workers of New York city met in mid-April to consider the projected establishment of a municipal needs committee. Frederick C. Howe, the newly elected head of the People's Institute, acted as chairman of the conference.

Because the project if carried out is one of far-reaching consequence, affecting not only the social but also the industrial situation, no formal off-hand endorsement of tentative plans for such a committee was expected or requested. At the end of the discussion, however, those present believed that there was enough

of promise in the proposal of a municipal needs committee to call for the appointment of a committee of five to draw up a tentative plan. John Collier held that the growing unity of purpose in social effort in New York has come through a broadening of the views of workers rather than through a merging of organizations.

Bailey B. Burritt and David Blaustein emphasized the need for greater concert among the agencies dealing with public health and charities and with the immigrant. James B. Reynolds stated that many features of our criminal law are hostile to the accomplishment of social justice and urged that our system of criminal law and criminal procedure needs reconstruction based on careful scrutiny. While convinced that the municipal needs committee should only be established after sufficient investigation, Marcus M. Marks believed that one rich field for its labors would be to aid in creating some form of machinery calculated to prevent strikes and aid in settling them. Raymond V. Ingersoll urged that a committee on general municipal needs, especially if it is to approach underlying economic causes, must be conceived of as a means "for furthering discussion, co-operation, and the obtaining of reliable social data rather than as an instrument for the pushing of any definite aggressive programme."

Seba Eldridge held that a committee on municipal needs might make a continuous general study of social conditions in New York and efforts to improve them; that as parts of a thorough-going survey it should stimulate other agencies, state, municipal, and private, to make detailed investigations into phases of municipal life about which we have not adequate information, to be followed by campaigns for improvement; under the committee or independent editorship and through commercial publishing enterprises an adequate literature on our municipal life and the problems peculiar thereto should be developed; and finally that it should help establish greater correlation and better team work among the agencies in the field of social work.

A METHODIST CALL TO SOCIAL SERVICE

Early last November the Commission on Social Service of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, speaking for a dozen denominations, adopted in Chicago a striking platform of social service planks for its constituents to work for. At almost the same moment the National Conference of Unitarian Churches issued from Washington, D. C., quite as emphatic a call to arms in the war against social ill. Three weeks ago the Conservation Congress of the Men and Religion Forward Movement, representing American Protestantism, challenged organized religion to set to work at once to frame "the Christ-answer" to the cry of modern society, or to pay the price of speedy extinction.¹ At the present moment the Methodist Episcopal Church is deliberating over a report from its federation for social service which throws up further breastworks in the advance for social regeneration.

Delegates from China, India, and Japan as well as from European countries are mingling with the American Methodists at this quadrennial conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Minneapolis this month. The report of the Federation for Social Service is made in accordance with instructions given by the conference of 1908. Among "principles and measures of social reform so evidently righteous and Christian as to demand the specific approval and support of the church" the report lists:

Equal rights and complete justice for all men in all stations of life.

The protection of the family, by the single standard of purity, uniform divorce laws, proper regulation of marriage, and proper housing.

The fullest possible development for every child, especially by the provision of proper education and recreation.

The abolition of child labor.

Such regulation of the conditions of toil for women as shall safeguard the physical and moral health of the community.

The abatement and prevention of poverty.

The best possible care of all dependent persons, and also all prisoners.

¹For accounts of these proceedings, see respectively, *THE SURVEY* for November 25 and November 11, 1911, and May 4, 1912.

The protection of the individual and society from the social, economic, and moral waste of the liquor traffic.

The conservation of health.

The protection of the worker from dangerous machinery, occupational diseases, injuries, and mortality.

Free access to employment and the means of self-maintenance for all men and for the protection of workers from the risk of enforced unemployment.

Suitable provision for the old age of the workers and for those incapacitated by injury.

The principle of conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes.

A release from employment one day in seven.

The gradual and reasonable reduction of the hours of labor to the lowest practicable point, and for that degree of leisure for all which is a condition of the highest human life.

A living wage as a minimum in every industry and for the highest wage that each industry can afford.

The most equitable division of the product of industry that can ultimately be devised.

In amplification of the labor standards set the report says:

The representatives of the united churches have already declared their conviction that anything over ten hours in any business or employment is an abuse which should not be tolerated in a Christian community nor exacted by a Christian employer. It is our further belief that in many of our large industries the strenuous working conditions make immediately necessary the eight-hour day.

The minimum living wage is already a legislative demand in several industrial states. Recent data concerning wages and living conditions in large sections of our industrial population are the basis for this demand. The connection they reveal between low wages, with their resultant bad housing, and malnutrition, and the low development of morality and spiritual life, make it incumbent upon the churches to rally in the campaign to realize their demand for a living wage.

In addition, the entire force of the churches should be thrown into the nation-wide campaign, by investigation and legislative enactment, to protect the workers from industrial accidents and industrial diseases and to provide swift and sure compensation for the sufferers from such accidents and diseases.

The social creed of the churches, continues the report, calls for active participation by them in campaigns for child welfare, for public health, for recreation, against poverty, against crime, and for international peace. Underneath all present movements for industrial and social progress, it is stated, there are fundamental principles which are in their origin Christian, or in their development

have been greatly accelerated by the Christian religion. Some of these are the democratic control of industry, social justice, and conscious control of social progress. In elucidation of the first the report says:

The autocratic control of industry by any group of men without regard to the rights, either of other groups who contribute to the industrial process, or of the public, is therefore contrary to Christian standards. The immediate application, in every industry, of the principle of collective bargaining, is not only essential to the protection of the modern industrial worker, but it is the first step toward that co-operative control of both the process and proceeds of industry which will be the ultimate expression of Christianity in industrial relationships.

As if in answer to the complaint made by Professor Rauschenbusch at the Conservation Congress last month that his first intimation that there were any social problems came not from the theological seminary but from the outside world, the report urges "the necessity of such support for theological schools and of so adjusting the proportionate demands of the curriculum that their students shall receive the most adequate equipment for community ministry." We read:

We regard it as essential that such students as enter our seminaries with no knowledge of practical sociology or the elements of practical economy should be required to take courses in these subjects; that all students who graduate from our seminaries should have been instructed in the social content of the scriptures, in the methods and principles of social service, in the ethical and religious aspects of modern social movements and of industrial organization. . . . We believe that every Methodist institution should attempt to give to all its students the knowledge and spirit to qualify and lead them to engage in social service in their community.

The report is signed by Herbert Welch, Harry F. Ward, H. F. Rall, Frank Mason North, Worth M. Tippy, John Williams, J. W. Magruder, and William M. Balch, executive committee.

SOCIAL PLANKS FOR AN INDUSTRIAL PLATFORM

The Cleveland meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, June 12 to 19, will see the heading up of three years' work of its committee on

standards of living and labor. This committee was launched at the Buffalo meeting in 1909 and in her presidential address at St. Louis the following year, Miss Addams pointed out that those who in hospitals, orphanages, relief societies, and settlements are brought face to face with the human waste in industry have a message to tell to managers and men, whose first business is, of course, that of production. At this St. Louis conference, the general field was blocked out under the chairmanship of Paul U. Kellogg; at Boston last year the work was carried forward another stage, with incisive discussions in each field, under the chairmanship of Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers' League; at Cleveland in June the committee, under the chairmanship of Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, will conclude its labors.

More than any other national body in America, the Conference of Charities and Correction includes within its sphere of interest all those propaganda organizations which stand in one way or another for industrial reform and readjustment. The child labor committees want to lengthen childhood and apply educational tests. The consumers' leagues and women's trade union leagues want to shorten the working week and the working day for working women; the standard-of-living investigators have something to say on the minimum wage; and the tuberculosis associations something on the trade causes of disease.

The idea back of the committee is to merge these various planks into a common platform which unitedly the various social organizations of America can stand for in the next decade; can apply to legislation in the various states, and to the standards set by a local industry; can burn into the public consciousness. The national conference itself adopts no platform, of course; but at Cleveland, at the call of the chairman of this committee, a meeting will be held of representatives of state and national organizations which, it is hoped, will put forward a rounded industrial platform in so emphatic a way that it may have some influ-

ence on the labor planks in the political platforms to be drafted at Chicago and Baltimore. Wages, hours, safety and health, homes, and trade life or working years are the five divisions in which the platform will be put before the Cleveland meeting for discussion.

Bulletins announcing the Cleveland meeting can be had by addressing Alexander Johnson, secretary, Angola, Ind. The new committee on the relation of medical and social work has been divided into seven subcommittees, which are to consider the medical and social inter-relationships of the following forms of social work: hospital social service; visiting nursing; industrial disease and accidents; infant mortality; blindness; insanity and epilepsy; important social diseases (tuberculosis, syphilis, hookworm, and alcoholism). Under the chairmanship of William J. Schieffelin, the committee on immigration will present some original material on the subject of assimilation, especially industrial assimilation. Not the least striking will be the facts gathered by a representative of one of the immigrant-sending nations who has worked in the fields of labor open to his countrymen once they have landed at Ellis Island.

OTHER COMMITTEES AND THEIR WORK

With the passage of the Children's Bureau bill, the session of the committee on children will take on an opportune interest. What a city ought to know about its children and the socialization of the schools are two of the scheduled topics. The maintenance of the family will be the central thought of the program of the committee on families and neighborhoods, of which William J. Kirby of the Catholic University of Washington is chairman. Its theme has been blocked out in a way to provoke popular interest and command the attention of psychologists and economists as well as "case-workers":—maintenance of income and health; maintenance of integrity; maintenance of individuality; maintenance of the family as furthered by co-operation among relief agencies. It is the intention of the committee on hous-

ing and recreation, of which Joseph Lee is chairman, to approach the recreation question "not as a problem of evil but as a problem of good, of how to utilize the proper and natural impulses of young people through fuller and happier life and more satisfying expression instead of allowing them to run to waste and to harm." Closely related will be the work of the new committee on sex hygiene of which Charles W. Birtwell is chairman. One section meeting will probably be occupied with eugenics, including the subject of sterilization which provoked such discussion at the Portland conference, but the general meeting will consider the problem of practical teaching: (a) the general proposition; (b) methods with parents and teachers; (c) talking to children, and (d) methods with the medical profession.

While the committee on courts and prisons, of which Bailey B. Burritt is chairman, will take up consistently the various phases of injecting the spirit of social work into the inferior courts, there will be lively and timely interest in its session dealing with another phase of the relation of the courts to social conditions—namely, the effects of judicial conservation towards social problems. Here the 1912 conference is well abreast of the latest waves of public discussion, while the discussion of the extent to which state boards should manage and control state institutions, as provided for by the committee on public supervision and administration, of which H. C. Bowman is chairman, takes it back to the issues round which debate ran high in the meetings of thirty years ago. That the issues in this latter field are by no means quiescent is shown by the fact that another topic falling under the last named committee—to what extent the state should supervise and control private institutions—has been imbedded both in the strenuous Juvenile Court fight in Chicago the past winter and in the year long struggle between the New York comptroller's office and the children's institutions which receive city funds. The conference sermon will be preached by Walter C. Rauschenbusch of the Rochester Theological Seminary.

FLY TIME IN TUSCALOOSA

A development of comparatively recent birth in most of the towns and cities of Alabama is the formation of civic improvement clubs. In Birmingham and in Sheffield interest and action are taking root, but in Tuscaloosa, seat of the University of Alabama, there is as yet little civic pride as applied to the practical problems which confront the town.

The city market of this quaint and interesting old place is a breeding place of filth and disease. In the section where the butcher's booth is located the odors are unbearable. Nothing is screened and flies swarm thick and fast. Directly back of the refrigerator where the meats are kept is an open privy. Perhaps it is because this has been just so for more than half a century that no stir has been made to change it. The idea of cleaning up and introducing sanitary conditions in the market place or in the town as a whole has not apparently occurred to Tuscaloosa.

In Sheffield, on the other hand, active steps are being taken by the Civic Improvement Club to arouse public interest in the work of cleaning up the city. Every woman housekeeper in the town has received a postal card which reads:

QUERIES.

? ? ?

Are you interested in the work of the civic improvement organization?

Would you consent to become an active worker along with the committee?

If not an active worker, would you encourage those who are, by keeping your premises and alleys clean?

Knowing that your sidewalks are an index to your manner of management, won't you keep them orderly?

Have you prepared to cover unsightly views by planting vines, climbing nasturtiums or shrubs?

In a word, won't you try to encourage the—

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT ASSOCIATION?

The club has also distributed widely some civic aphorisms from *The Book of Gopher*¹ by Mrs. Thomas G. Winter,

¹See THE SURVEY, April 23, 1910.

and the following civic alphabet which was published in the *Atlanta Constitution*:

THE CIVIC ALPHABET

- A—Aim to make Arbor Day annual "clean-up" day.
- B—Banish the tin can district from your city.
- C—Clean up back yards and alleys.
- D—Destroy rubbish by burning.
- E—Educate housewives to demand clean markets.
- F—Fine every club member who does not work.
- G—Give free lectures upon civic improvement.
- H—Have campaign against unsightly billboards.
- I—Interest city authorities in "clean-up" day.
- J—Join all forces for the anti-dirt crusade.
- K—Kill sidewalk spitting or it will kill you.
- L—Let your slogan be: "Do it for home sweet home."
- M—Make requests of preachers for "clean-up" sermons.
- N—Next to godliness is cleanliness.
- O—Organize the children into civic leagues.
- P—Plant trees, and then plant trees, and plant more trees.
- Q—Question authorities about city expenditures.
- R—Remember to plan parks and playgrounds now.
- S—Study city ordinances and work for their enforcement.
- T—Try to make the school buildings social centers.
- U—Use every effort to arouse citizens.
- V—Vanquish the opposition with good nature.
- W—Wage increasing war upon all weeds, flies and mosquitoes.
- X—Xact obedience to the city sanitary laws.
- Y—Your city is YOU; never forget that.
- Z—Zeal, courage and patience will "clean-up" the city.

TOASTS TO A ONE YEAR OLD COURT

A subscription banquet attended by nine hundred people to hear what?—nothing more nor less than the first year's work of the Chicago Domestic Relations Court! The size of the gathering impressed especially social workers who are accustomed to hard sledding and short distances in social effort. An explanation lies in the effective co-operative relations which the court has sought to establish with every social agency whose influence, counsel, or help could be brought to bear upon the family problems with which the court deals.

The interest of the business men of the city was represented in the presiding officer, Homer E. Stillwell, a former president of the Chicago Association of Commerce. The significance of this new branch of the Municipal Court as a de-

velopment in jurisprudence which had had most wholesome effect upon the relations between the courts and the people, was attested by the presence and remarks of Stephen S. Gregory, president of the American Bar Association.

The essence of the new idea for which the court stands was embodied in a few words by Jane Addams who showed how people coming in contact with it will begin to think of a law court not as something "down on them," but as a "place of friendship" where their troubles may be straightened out rather than tangled. Similarly, the Very Rev. P. J. O'Callahan, referring by contrast to the Domestic Relations Court, pointed out that courts are "too often tribunals of law rather than of justice."

Social relations and conditions as factors properly entering into the determination of every case were discussed by Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch, who showed how similar violations of an ordinance may involve in one instance evil intent, and in another mere misfortune. Domestic difficulties, he pointed out, are often due to lack of family privacy under defective housing conditions, or to the unaccustomed strains to which immigration sometimes puts the family ties.

The establishment of one court to deal with the family problem as a whole was urged by Judge Merritt W. Pinckney of the Juvenile Court. Declaring that parental neglect and incompetence were responsible for most of the delinquency which brought to the court three-fifths of the 12,000 children who have passed through it during his incumbency, he showed how cumbrous is the present division of jurisdiction among several courts. He cited one family situation which dragged through four different courts. The problem of support, he pointed out, is dealt with by the County Court, trouble between husband and wife occupies the attention of the Domestic Relations Court, proceedings for divorce come up in the Circuit Court, and the interests of children are the concern of the Juvenile Court. Not only happy settlement for the family but economy of time and effort for the courts demands that one tribunal have power and jurisdiction to cover all phases of such a case.

Amendments to the law shown by experience to be needed and a larger measure of co-operation from various social agencies were pleaded for by Chief Justice Olson of the Municipal Court and Judge Charles N. Goodnow of the Court of Domestic Relations. Among the amendments urged by the former was one which he said would broaden the present family abandonment statute so as to throw greater weight upon non-support. For abandonment a deserting husband can be arrested and punished but once. Under the amendment proposed a non-supporting husband would be guilty of a continuous offense for which he could be re-arrested and dealt with any number of times while the marital relation existed. Justice Olson urged other amendments requiring the father of a child born out of wedlock to pay for its support and education just as the father of a legitimate child is compelled to, and allowing criminal cases to be tried upon court information.

A BUREAU FOR HUSBAND FINDING

Judge Goodnow, to whose tireless and painstaking work in organizing the court Justice Olson attributed much of its success, called attention to statements in the first annual report of the court that 514 defendants for whom warrants had been issued could not be found, and that this shows the urgent need for establishing a "delinquent husband-finding bureau" in connection with the court. Such an agency, the report continues, should have funds to bring these husbands back when found, for all of the 514 cases, with the exception of eighty-nine which involved bastardy, rested upon family abandonment and dependency. Of 1,172 persons tried and found guilty, 610 were convicted of wife and child abandonment, and 290 of child dependency. Of these 900 offenders only 38 were sent to the House of Correction, for the court "followed the policy that one man at work is worth a thousand locked up in the House of Correction." For the support of dependent women and children the court collected \$36,679.29. This represents about one-half of the total amount paid under order of the court to wives and

children, as the other half is paid direct to the wife or custodian of the children.

Among those philanthropic and social agencies rendering the greatest co-operation in investigation, as shown in a table in the report, are the following: Juvenile Protective Association in 759 cases, Bureau of Personal Service in 74 cases, Mental Hygiene Society in 26 cases, and Legal Aid Society in 221 cases. Assistance was provided by the United Charities in 237 cases, and the Children's Day Association in 37 cases.

Judge Goodnow declared that no "newer justice" had been discovered, and no new device to cure ills. In seeking to administer the law according to its letter and yet give force to its spirit he said that he had tried to utilize every agency which might help reunite family ties or remedy bad home and environmental conditions. He re-stated the program for which the Court of Domestic Relations stands, summed up in a statement accompanying the annual report:

1. Uniformity of decisions and treatment of offenders.
2. Removal of women and children from the evil influence of a police court environment.
3. A more intelligent understanding of conditions and environment surrounding each case and consequently a more just and sympathetic treatment of each offender.
4. A vigorous reaching out for the causes of delinquency and dependency in children and by promptly checking the cause, lessen the effect.
5. An effort to make the court equally as good an agent to keep husband and wife together, and thus give the children the home influence, as it has been an agent in separating them.
6. To inaugurate a system whereby delinquent deserters may be promptly compelled to support their wives and children, thus forcing the one upon whom that obligation rests to perform that duty and thus relieve the charitable public of another burden.
7. To exercise a watchful care over deserving and unfortunate women and children, by seeing that they are placed under the protection of some person or organization that will extend to them such help, advice and direction that will put them in the way of becoming self-sustained.
8. To keep a complete system of records regarding each case so that in time, from the composite whol, some useful results may be obtained and some beneficial laws enacted.
9. To give prompt trials, especially when juries are demanded, and thus give more speedy justice than heretofore.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE NEW YORK FACTORY BUREAU

A year ago, the New York legislature passed bills recommended by the Wainright Commission which increased the state factory inspection service from sixty-five to eighty-five inspectors,¹ districted the state, and provided for eight supervising inspectors.

It looked as if New York was to have the best kit of tools in the country to regulate the human side of industrial operations—to stand between the individual worker and bad air, child labor, unguarded machinery, and the general run of industrial hazards. Today it looks as if this kit of tools had been purloined bag and baggage by the spoils politicians; and as if the trusted chief workman whom the state had put on the job, had, for the sake of being allowed to handle the tools at all, shut his eyes while they made off with most of the booty. It is a situation over which all friends of efficient factory inspection ought to feel concern.

It will be remembered that the 1911 legislation, which divided the state into eight factory inspection districts, called for the appointment of a supervising factory inspector to have charge of the work in each district and to draw a salary of \$2,500 annually. This was hailed as a great stride forward; New York was to have a corps of competent men in the field, who could meet engineers and superintendents on a footing of equal equipment and competency. Let us review the steps by which this stirring advance was frittered into a vote-getting contraption.

The State Civil Service Commission in an unannounced meeting—which was consequently unattended by any of the friends of the measure—decided to put these eight new positions in the exempt classification and thus open the door to merely political appointees. It was several months before news of this action became generally known. Then, when

¹Since increased by the Frawley bill to 125, only 20 of whom are to be women.

the cat was out of the bag, the commissioners reopened the question. Two public hearings were held, at which social workers and civic leaders argued in favor of competitive examinations, and representatives of the State Federation of Labor argued that the positions ought to go to labor men, who would possibly not have technical qualifications that would enable them to pass an examination.

This contention might have force with respect to representation on the Bureau of Arbitration, but factory inspection has to do with the enforcement of safety laws.

Such work demands special qualifications which may very well be possessed by a trade unionist no less than by an engineer: but men who cannot prove their equipment in open examination should not be appointed merely because they represent either employers or employees.

After a long wait the commission announced its decision, unparalleled in the history of wise men since the days of Solomon. It decided that four of the new positions should be in the competitive class and the other four, which are identical positions, should be exempt.

All of these things are more or less familiar to readers of *THE SURVEY*. They are presented again only that the record may be kept clearly in mind.

Acting under the decision of the commission, Labor Commissioner John Williams appointed the four who are in the exempt class, but made temporary appointments of those four who are in the competitive list, pending the examinations. His permanent appointees are Edward A. Bates of Utica, N. Y.; James J. Murphy, 309 East 18 street, New York city; Edward J. Pierce, 110 Front street, New York city; and Jeremiah Flood, 185 East 93 street, New York city. Elliot H. Goodwin, secretary of the Civil Service Reform Association, gives us the following information:

Bates was secretary of the State Federation of Labor, which appeared before the State Civil Service Commission in December by its executive committee and opposed the placing of the supervising factory inspectors in the competitive class. Murphy is a printer by trade and has been several times president of the "Big Six."

Pierce is a democrat of the second assembly district, appointed for Al. Smith, the Tammany leader in the assembly. Smith was present at the hearings before the state commission and showed a great interest in this matter. 110 Front street is an old building at the foot of Wall street, the ground floor being occupied by coffee brokers. Pierce lives on the top floor and is the janitor. His wife states that his previous occupation had been that of a janitor and that he has been in the real estate business.

Jeremiah J. Flood is Frawley's man. His business is that of a plumber. Under Borough President Ahern he was superintendent of construction of sewers at \$3,000, but he was dropped by McAneny. His name became known in connection with the famous "letters to a boss" published in the *American* in December, 1909. You will probably recall the famous "Tom and Jerry" letters. They dealt with finding a snug place for Jerry in the dock department before the new administration came in. "Jerry" was Jeremiah J. Flood.

In arranging for the examinations held in April to fill the four non-exempt positions which Commissioner Williams had filled temporarily, the Civil Service Commission laid down the following qualifications, among others, that must be met by those who would seek these positions:

Applicants must be between thirty and sixty years of age and must have had at least ten years' practical experience in some mechanical or other occupation directly tending to fit them for the duties of the position; they must also be experienced in handling men and affairs. . . . Scholarship and technical training in mechanical subjects will be taken into account only when combined with practical experience as above outlined.

It will be noted that these very strangely devised qualifications debar a late graduate of an engineering school no matter how large his ability or how high his standing. More than that, they debar any engineer, no matter how large his ability and no matter what his experience, if he shall have had nine years' practical experience instead of ten. Evidently technical training goes by the board, and practical experience, whatever that is interpreted to mean, takes its place. It is perfectly evident that these qualifications are intended to be such as will admit to the office men who can be made use of politically. So, as far as the supervising inspectors stand, the law that had been vaunted as the beginning of a great era that would place the New York Factory Bu-

reau among the best in the world has been perverted so as to exclude certain classes of trained men while it opens wide the bureau as easy spoils to political henchmen and appointments of the sort calculated to deliver the labor vote.

Most difficult of explanation to the sympathetic on-looker has been the position of Labor Commissioner John Williams throughout these assaults upon the factory bureau. Mr. Williams has been commissioner under two governors. Before that he was chief factory inspector; before that he was a deputy factory inspector. Earlier still he was a member of the assembly from Utica. As a youth, he was a wage-earner. He has worked his way up in the public service by hard work and personal application. THE SURVEY has never heard a whisper reflecting upon his integrity. On the other hand, it has heard much that tends to show he had been an efficient and intelligent officer. But since the overthrow of the Republican Party in New York in the fall of 1910 and the election of a democratic governor and legislature, it has observed a change on the part of John Williams, and it has not been a change for the better. In his career as commissioner of labor, he has not always taken as firm a stand in regard to law enforcement as THE SURVEY believes such a public officer should take. He has permitted subordinates to remain in office—dead wood and incompetents with political backing—who ought to have been removed. Yet fundamentally we have believed that Mr. Williams was standing for right principles and not a few of his appointments, such as that of A. E. Newell as mechanical engineer and of Frances A. Kellor as head of the immigration bureau, met with instant public recognition. Yet it was Mr. Williams himself who in the first place recommended that the eight supervising factory inspectorships be put in the exempt class. Although he never opposed putting them back into the competitive list, it was he who gave the official impulse to that reactionary decision of the Civil Service Commission.

It is well known that a department head at Albany, when he wishes a position filled, specifies in a general way the qualifications that he desires the appointees to have. Whether or not Mr. Williams

actually devised the qualifications that were advertised by the Civil Service Commission in the case of the four remaining supervising factory inspectorships, he is not on record as having opposed these qualifications. What is very clear is that the men appointed to fill the four exempt positions received their appointments from Mr. Williams and that none of them has a record that has yet come to the public that would tend to recommend him, for example, as an inspector of machinery or as an expert on ventilation. Only one of them may be presumed to have special knowledge of sanitation. THE SURVEY addressed a letter to the commissioner inquiring into the qualifications of these four men. No reply was received.

This injection of politics into the Department of Labor is a thing calculated to arouse the gravest alarm. It bodes no good to the workmen of the state. It is the poorest of excuses to point out that Mr. Williams is a republican official in a democratic administration and that it was necessary for him to make concessions in order to enable him to hold his position. It is no service to the people of the state that an official holds his position if he has to give up in return for it the very things that enable him to serve the interests of the people. It is not of great importance that Mr. Williams, or any other individual, continues to draw a salary from the state, but it is of great importance that the laws should be efficiently administered. There never was a time when Commissioner Williams could not have rallied to his support the decent people of all parties in this state—and the decent people are vastly in the majority—if he had appealed to them and let them know the plight that he was in. But he kept silent. To maintain his position he did things that the politicians desired. It was a great opportunity that Commissioner Williams has had this past year, the opportunity of a life—and he did not measure up to it. Governor Dix, commissioner Williams' superior, shared in that opportunity, and in equal measure fell short of seizing it. His responsibility is not so much a matter of open record as that of his commissioner, but it is as inescapable.

FIRST YEAR'S WORK OF A NEW STATE BUREAU

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN

In October, 1910, a new bureau was organized in the state Department of Labor to perform the useful task of looking after the welfare of newly arrived immigrants. Experience has shown that these people, if left to their own devices, are likely to fall victims to exploitation of various kinds, with resultant damage not only to themselves but to the community. A report of the first year's work of this new Bureau of Industries and Immigration, just issued, shows results which, it must be confessed, are rather disappointing. One reason for this is obvious. The law under which the bureau was organized gives it permission

to "make full inquiry" into the "condition, welfare, and industrial opportunities of all aliens arriving and being within the state"; to collect information as to the demand for labor, the supply of labor, the occupations for which aliens are best adapted; to bring about intercommunication between labor and employers; to investigate applications for labor; to co-operate with employment or immigration bureaus, public or private; to devise means for preventing congestion and obviating unemployment and to inspect all labor camps in the state.

In addition, the law makes it mandatory upon the bureau

to furnish to the school authorities complete lists of alien children of school age within the state; to aid in the enforcement of the compulsory education statute; to co-operate in devising methods for instruction in English and citizenship; to inspect all employment and contract labor agencies dealing principally with aliens; to co-operate in enforcing laws relating to private bankers; to secure information as to alien delinquency and dependence; to co-operate in securing deportation when necessary; to investigate conditions of transportation and afford protection against frauds, crime and exploitation; to investigate all complaints as to frauds or improper practices by notaries public or public officials, and finally to "investigate and study the general social conditions of aliens within this state," and to "consider and devise means to promote the welfare of the state."

To carry out this wide plan an appropriation of \$9,700 was allowed for the year. This provided only for salaries

of one chief investigator, five special investigators, and one stenographer. The commissioner of labor later provided, from a general fund at his disposal, the traveling expenses of the investigators, and the cost of supplies and printing. For legal, clerical, and stenographic services, supplies, furnishings, and rent an amount equal to the original appropriation was contributed by the chief investigator, Frances A. Kellor, and by Carola Woerishoffer, a special investigator.

The mandatory portions alone of the bureau's task would have proved a strain on its resources, but notwithstanding an attempt was made to carry out the permissive parts also. Coming to actual results, we learn that the bureau has started a card index and industrial map, showing in what sections aliens of different nationalities are permanently located or are desired, and the advantages of the localities to aliens, and that it has issued a sixteen-page pamphlet containing information and advice to immigrants.

The bureau has registered 693 employment agencies and instructed them to keep the statistical record of applicants required by law. These agencies are to be inspected by the bureau also. The report does not state how many actually were inspected, but does say that in consequence of its inspection many small cities, which had been unaware of the provisions of the employment agency law, have since taken up the enforcement of the law in co-operation with the bureau. In addition, twenty-seven homes and philanthropic organizations which distribute aliens have been registered and inspected.

A long account of abuses suffered by the immigrant to and from the port of entry is given, but apparently the bureau has been able to do little to remedy them. It has received and investigated complaints in cases where the alien could stay and prosecute, but usually the complaint was received just prior to the departure of the immigrant.

Under the heading, labor and living conditions, is given an account of conditions in labor camps, the results of an investigation undertaken with a view to making recommendations for legislation.

But unless something more was learned than is given in this report, nothing new of importance was discovered. In fact, it would seem that conditions in labor camps were sufficiently well known fifteen years ago to afford a basis for radical reform if the state had been disposed to make it. In addition to the investigation, however, the bureau did secure some practical action in the passage of an immigrant lodging-place law, applicable to all camps and communities other than "temporary sleeping quarters." This law covers mainly the question of publicity of rates, and conformity to fire, building, and health laws of the state, leaving many forms of extortion and abuse untouched.

In two great industrial calamities of the past year, the Arbuckle fire and the Triangle fire, the bureau took a hand in assisting the families affected, by finding them employment and protecting them from exploitation. Other phases of the labor question taken up by the bureau were personal injuries of aliens and child labor. Along these lines investigations were made, but no remedial action taken.

The report shows that the bureau has made investigations and undertaken to co-operate in the enforcement of laws relating to private banks, real estate investments, stock companies, raffles, loan agencies, and benevolent and fraternal societies. As a result of their work with the banks, a considerable number obtained the proper licenses, and many have gone out of business.

An account is presented of what has been done to carry out the mandatory provisions of the law for distributing names and addresses of alien children and devising methods of instruction. In the first line of work, 8,369 names of children of school age were distributed during the school year. In addition, although not required by law, the names and addresses of 4,822 children of the ages of fifteen to eighteen were distributed, in order that investigations might be made into the discrepancies of age and working conditions; and 368 names of children of six years and under were sent out, so that account of them might be kept by the school authorities later. The value of such a system de-

pends upon the use made of it by those to whom the information is given, and the results so far are too incomplete to judge of this.

With regard to devising methods of instruction, the bureau has apparently done nothing more than make the general recommendation that a bureau of camp school instruction be established in the Department of Education, charged with the establishment and administration of special schools for the instruction of adults and children, or, if this be not feasible at the present time, that a camp school commission be created, charged with the duties of investigation, establishment, and administration of such schools.

Again in addition to its duties imposed by the law, the bureau tried the experiment, at the request of some of the settlements in New York, of obtaining the names of families at Ellis Island and transmitting them to the nearest settlement house in the neighborhood, for friendly visiting. Four hundred and twenty-five such names were furnished, but the reports made did not appear to justify the experiment.

A bureau of information was organized. This has distributed 8,500 copies of various laws; 2,000 pamphlets containing information and advice, and has sent information at various times to 962 foreign-language newspapers, fifty benevolent societies, and 292 philanthropic organizations.

The report lays special emphasis on the work of the division of complaints and adjustment. The object aimed at was to assure to every admitted alien a hearing, in which he might state, in his own language if necessary, his complaint or difficulty, have an impartial inquiry, and if possible, secure an adjustment. It is perhaps no fault of the bureau that only 515 complainants found their way to this division in the course of the year, out of the hundreds of thousands of immigrants deposited on our shores. But it does indicate that the object aimed at is by no means reached as yet.

This completes the list of activities described in the report. The general impression conveyed to the reader is that

the bureau has been trying to undertake too many things. This is in part the fault of the law for laying upon it such a heterogeneous assortment of duties, and of the general administration, for failing to provide enough money to carry on these tasks properly.

The bureau might be criticized further for spending relatively too much of its limited time and money in research and investigation. This should have been sufficiently well done before the present law was passed, to insure remedial provisions adequate to meet the situation for some time to come, and demanding enough on the administration side to occupy the whole time of a state bureau. Confusion and a waste of effort and money are certainly the product of any arrangement whereby remedial legislation of one year embodies so largely provisions for superseding itself the next year, and so on indefinitely.

The disadvantage of the present mixture of investigation and administration in the bureau's work is seen in the character of its recommendations for further legislation. These are of quite heterogeneous nature and of most unequal significance, evidently such immediate remedies as the particular phase of the problem encountered by the bureau in its somewhat zigzag path of activity seemed to call for.

It is to be hoped that in the coming year the bureau will concentrate as closely as possible upon the mandatory, administrative provisions of the law, and exercise discretion in leaving undone even mandatory work if it cannot be carried out effectively. It might be suggested that the law itself could be amended to advantage by giving the bureau more definite work of its own and relieving it of a practical duplication of the work of other governmental agencies under the guise of "co-operation." It seems a waste of public funds to maintain a Department of Charities, and also an outside bureau to help them look after alien dependents, a Department of Education, and an outside bureau to assist in the work of educating alien children, a State Employment Agency, and a special bureau to supervise the employ-

ment of aliens. The thought evidently is that a bureau with its attention concentrated entirely on aliens can give better service with respect to aliens than these other departments, whose functions are more general. It would seem however, that in cases where it is desirable to concentrate interest, the functions themselves should be concentrated, so as not to make one state bureau mainly a prod to the others. The question *Quis custodiet custodes* is often despairingly asked, but is it not wise to let the answer be the private citizen or organization, and not another *custos*?

THE EAST SIDE IN OIL AND CRAYON

HENRY MOSCOWITZ

Associate Leader New York Ethical Culture Society
and Head Worker of Madison House

Despite the flood of magazine articles written by enterprising journalists on New York's East Side, no adequate interpretation has ever been written. We think of the East Side in terms of dumb-bell tenements, push carts, and dirty streets. There are so few who know the



RUSSIAN DANCER,
A Statue by Jo Davidson.

East Side for what it is, a seething caldron of ideas. There is no immigrant neighborhood in the city of New York which is so rich in inherent cultural forces. The East Side, like Boston, is a state of mind, but unlike the Hub, it is a state of mind which is always in a state of flux. No new idea is unwelcome here. Not a few systems of thought, religious, economic, or philosophical, are represented. Yet it is a closed world to the large mass of the American public.

With its daily newspapers having a circulation of about 250,000, its serious and humorous weekly and monthly publications, its scholarly contributors, its flood of the best literature translated into Yiddish jargon, its crowded theaters and lecture halls pulsating and vibrating with thought and enthusiasm, its "Fleet Street" of writers gathering in a picturesque café—but why continue this catalogue of East Side characteristics? I do so in explanation of the announcement of the exhibit at the Madison House which read:

An exhibition of works by artists who are in sympathy with, or have found inspiration in, this section of the city. In addition to subjects of general interest, the exhibition will partly represent an artistic interpretation of picturesque features in which the neighborhood abounds.

Most of the artists who contributed are Russian Jewish immigrants who have lived in the neighborhood. Nearly every one of them has suffered for artistic self-expression. In an atmosphere of economic pressure which characterizes every immigrant neighborhood, art is a luxury which few can afford. These young men became artists because they had to.



DUSK,
A pastel by Bernard Gussow.

The individualism of the Russian immigrant is reflected in the work of these painters. Nearly all of them are artistic insurgents. They belong to some impressionistic school. They are filled with an instinct for original self-expression. They detest the conventional, the mere conformist, just as the East Side detests him. Bernard Gussow, whose pastels of night scenes in New York and street-life east of the Bowery throb with color, movement, and poetic feeling was long ago one of the members of the S. E. I. Club at the University Settlement. He is an intimate friend of Jacob Epstein, another S. E. I. member, whose realistic groups of sculpture on the facade of the London Academy of Medicine on the Strand gave the Puritan sensibilities of some Englishmen a severe jolt, roused considerable discussion in the public prints, and even caused a parliamentary interpolation.

Samuel Halpert and A. Walkowitz represent various phases of the post-impressionistic school. H. A. Mathes is an impressionist. Mr. Walkowitz exhibited a number of East Side market scenes which are full of sentiment and sincerity. He is an eloquent exponent of the subjective in art. He, too, detests the conventional, and desires



STREET MERCHANTS,
A drawing by Bernard Gussow.

to communicate on canvas the "innermost inmost" as he expresses it. Max Weber is the leading representative of the Cubists in America. Some laymen do not understand his paintings; it is certain that he, also, is a rebel. George Luks exhibited a picture of an East Side café and Jo Myers showed sketches of East Side street scenes. The medallions and sculpture of Victor Brenner are too well known to characterize. The work of Jo Davidson has recently awakened considerable interest.

Aside from its merits, the entire exhibit was suggestive of the artistic possibilities in the Russian Jewish immigrant and challenges the immigrant and the American to conserve these powers in the Americanizing process by blending them with the best in our native civilization. The American of the future should be such an amalgam of Old World and New World qualities. The flippant

sloughing off by the second generation of traditions which have served as a spiritual anchorage to the race, and their rapid taking on of unlovely traits in their environment which represent the worst features of our American life, constitutes the moral peril of an immigrant neighborhood. We must deepen their conception of an American by relating these conserving forces in their race inheritance with the idealism of American democracy. This is the cardinal human problem of an immigrant neighborhood and challenges the qualities of high statesmanship in teachers and social workers among immigrants. Their most important function is a sympathetic interpretation which can relate the generations to one another and to the American outside their walls. In this sense, the exhibit at the Madison House can be regarded as an attempt at an artistic self-revelation of an immigrant neighborhood.

BOOKS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

A NEW CONSCIENCE AND AN ANCIENT EVIL

By JANE ADDAMS. The Macmillan Company. 219 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

It would be a work of supererogation to commend a book by Miss Addams to the favorable attention of readers of THE SURVEY. For those—if there are any—who are not quite sure what this one is about, we may say that the "ancient evil" is prostitution. The "dangers implicit in city conditions . . . the allurements which are designedly placed around many young girls in order to draw them into an evil life" are made vivid by story after story of real girls. Instead of "fallen women" we see tired, over-burdened, ignorant children in need of protection. On the other hand, Miss Addams had been "much impressed and at times fairly startled by the large and diversified number of people to whom the very existence of the white slave traffic had become unendurable and who promptly responded to any appeal made on behalf of its victims." By writing these articles for *McClure's Magazine* and later putting them into permanent form, she has probably done more to increase that number than she could have done in any other way.

SEX IN RELATION TO SOCIETY

By HAVELOCK ELLIS. F. A. Davis Company. 656 pp. \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.20.

This is the final and culminating volume in Mr. Ellis's monumental series of Studies in the Psychology of Sex. It treats of the sexual impulse in its relation "to third persons and to the community at large with all its anciently established traditions." It is encyclopedic in character, and must become an important book of reference to social workers who are concerned with the problems of prostitution, venereal disease, sexual morality, infant mortality, or eugenics. Its special value is that it assembles and makes accessible to the average student the serious thought of the world on these subjects.

EDUCATION IN SEXUAL PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE

By PHILIP ZENNER. Stewart and Kidd Company. 126 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

This "message from a physician," reprinted for the third time in less than two years, will help all who find themselves face to face with the practical problem of instructing one child or many in what they need to know about sex hygiene. Dr. Zenner reproduces four talks which he gave to the boys of a school in a poor district of Cincinnati and two talks to college boys. They have an admirable dignity and reserve ("mild," the author describes them) and yet are direct and plain. The same qualities characterize Dr. Zenner's general discussion of the question of how and when such

instruction should be given, which forms the last part of the little book.

THE SOCIAL EVIL

Edited by EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN, LL.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 303 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.89.

A serviceable volume is this second edition of the report prepared in 1902 under the direction of the Committee of Fifteen. The original report, which has long been out of print, is reissued without any changes, and occupies about half the book. Professor Seligman adds, in the latter half, an account of the developments which have taken place in the last ten years in the movement for the reduction of vice in Europe and in America. A full bibliography is included.

THE FACTORY

By JONATHAN THAYER LINCOLN. Houghton Mifflin Company. 109 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

In easy readable style the author (a Massachusetts manufacturer) traces the part played by inventors and inventions—from the flying shuttle to the steam engine—in the development of the factory system, describing the more evident social changes that accompanied the new processes of production and at the same time arguing a powerful influence exerted by the factory system toward "modern democracy" and "the eternal cause of freedom." Not much new matter is presented, Carlisle, Defoe, Wordsworth, Shelley, and others being quoted very freely; but some of the old facts are presented in new connections. The historical discussion deals mainly with developments up to the middle of the last century.

SEARCHLIGHTS ON SOME AMERICAN INDUSTRIES

By JAMES. COOKE MILLS. 299 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

A popular account of the processes and development of eight important American industries, with a chapter on The Achievements of the Blind. The industries described are lumber, salt, sugar, paper, rubber, leather, moulding, and graphite.

THE COMING TRIUMPH OF CHRISTIAN CIVILIZATION

By J. W. PETAVEL. George Allen and Company, Limited. One shilling.

In effect this is a plea for the elimination of unemployment by establishing educational colonies which shall produce within themselves practically all the goods which they need for their own maintenance. "Perhaps the simplest of all [devices which would relieve the immediate ills] would be to establish industries where boys after leaving school could be employed for a certain number of years under the best possible conditions, and in the

country wherever it could be managed, producing things for their own use. Then people out of work could just take their place in the organization (which would not necessarily, mean working with the boys), producing things not for sale, but for their own use and consumption." We understand that three colonies have already been established on this plan, one in England, one in France, and one in Italy, and that a society exists (the Educational Colonies Association, Caxton House, Westminster, S. W.) for the purpose of promoting these ideas.

THE MODERN WOMAN'S RIGHTS MOVEMENT

By Dr. KÄTHE SCHIRMACHER. Translated from the second German edition by Carl Conrad Eckhardt. The Macmillan Company. 280 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

This is a careful collection of information, now for the first time available in English, regarding the characteristics of the woman's movements of various countries, their relation to the national labor movement, the nature of the opposition met step by step by the struggle for political rights, and the relation of women to industrial and professional life. It includes a mass of details and figures not collected anywhere else. Thirty-five countries or groups of countries are considered, including even the far east. Dr. Schirmacher has carried her second edition, on which the translation is based, up to 1909 and Dr. Eckhardt has added further facts in regard to the movements in America.

AMERICAN SOCIALISM OF THE PRESENT DAY

By JESSIE WALLACE HUGHAN, PH.D. John Lane Company. 265 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

In fifteen compact little chapters Miss Hughan gives the main outlines of socialist theory, traces the history of the socialist movement in this country, and discusses the immediate and ultimate economic program of Socialism. All this is given in such brief compass, in so clear and simple a fashion, that the average reader, who grapples hopelessly with the average treatise on Socialism, can go through this book with interest and understanding, and end with some intelligent idea of the movement. Miss Hughan is to be particularly commended for paying especial attention to present phases of the movement, even at the expense of some detail of the past. Most writers dwell so long upon the road from 1848, that they get weary and come to rest by the 70's or 80's, or even in the 50's and 60's, which does not help us at all when we want to know the difference between the "S. P." and the "S. L. P.", and other alphabetical combinations which bewilder us daily. Furthermore, the book is delightfully fair in tone and temper. The various leaders of socialist thought are shown, freed from the sacerdotal haze that hangs over them in so many partisan presentations, as fallible human beings, struggling away at a very tough problem, and sometimes Miss Hughan even lets us see them slipping into adoption of one feature after

another of the competitive system, as they approach closer and closer to the practical side of the question. Last but not least, should be mentioned an excellent bibliography, with few titles older than 1890.

THE SUPERSTITION CALLED SOCIALISM

By G. W. de TUNZELMANN, B.Sc. J. B. Lippincott Company. 394 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.59.

Curiously enough this book shows opposite characteristics in almost every respect from the one just mentioned. It is long, it is not fair in tone and temper, and it is hard to read. Although intended primarily for use in debates, the greater part of the book is taken up with discussion of the abstract economics and philosophy of Socialism. If social regeneration has to wait, in the first place until the average stump-speaker has reached a correct theory of value and a correct philosophy of history, and in the second place until he has grounded the average hearer in these, we fear it will wait a long time. The few pages devoted to the historical side of Socialism are unfortunately deficient in facts, and filled with mistaken imputations of belief and motive. Briefly, this book is a center of heat rather than of light, while Miss Hughan's little book is exactly the reverse.

THE ESSENTIALS OF SOCIALISM

By IRA B. CROSS, PH.D. The Macmillan Company. 152 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

This is intended to be "a hand book to the busy reader" or "a text-book for the classroom." It meets certain requirements for such purposes admirably, for it is dispassionate, clear, and concise. The title of one chapter, The Inevitability of Socialism, raises the contrary expectation, but the chapter itself proves to be an examination of both sides of that proposition, with the conclusion that it has not yet been established. References are a conspicuous feature of the book. They occupy, in fact, one-third of the pages.

ELEMENTS OF SOCIALISM

By JOHN SPARGO and GEORGE LOUIS ARNER, PH.D. The Macmillan Company. 382 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

This is also a text-book, but much more elaborate, and frankly partisan. Socialism is defined as "a criticism of existing society which attributes most of the poverty, vice, crime, and other social evils of to-day to the fact that, through the private or class ownership of the forces of production and exchange, the actual producers of wealth are exploited by a class of non-producers; a theory of social evolution according to which the rate and direction of social evolution are mainly determined by the development of the economic factors of production, distribution and exchange; a social forecast that the next epoch in the evolution of society will be distinguished by the social ownership and control of the principal agencies of production and exchange, and by an equalization of opportunity

as a result of this socialization; a movement, primarily consisting of members of the wealth-producing class, which seeks to control all the powers of the state and to bring about the collective ownership and control of the principal means of production and exchange, in order that poverty, class antagonisms, vice and other results of the existing social system may be abolished and that a new and better social system may be attained." The subject is treated under these four aspects, with a closing section on Policy and Progress, which includes a list of the social reforms which socialists can consistently favor. As "estimates" of the proportion of the population in the United States who are "in poverty" Mr. Hunter's popular "guesses" are re-affirmed, in which the result is obtained by assuming "beyond question" that one absolutely unknown quantity "would more than cancel" another absolutely unknown quantity which bears no relation to it. It is a little surprising to find the statement that Dr. Devine "admits" that poverty is not ordinarily due to personal faults of the poor themselves. We should have said that he had argued rather vigorously to establish that contention.

THE RECORD OF AN ADVENTUROUS LIFE

By H. M. HYNDMAN. The Macmillan Company. 422 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.90.

It is at first with satisfaction, then with some slight regret, that the reader finds that this life of the veteran of English Socialism is a distinctly literary biography, a book to stand beside Robert Louis Stevenson's autobiographical writings in the vigor and interest of its matter, its light on a personality, and its style. There have, however, been so many vital happenings in England in the last generation in which Hyndman—for, as Bernard Shaw says, this name has so impressed itself on its generation that a "mister" would be ridiculous—has been a vigorous, sometimes a central figure, that we should have liked to learn in more careful detail about things of which he had intimate knowledge. We should have been glad, for instance, to be told more fully, less reminiscently, about that radicalism which developed in 1881 into the nucleus of English Socialism, with Hyndman, Jack Williams, William Morris, and Edward Carpenter as its four most characteristic figures, Tom Mann and Ben Tillett among their young learners. The story stops in 1889, not long after the starting of the Social Democratic Federation, and as Hyndman tells us in his preface that Socialism is the thing he takes most solemnly, and half promises another volume later on, the reader who cares more for the Socialist in the author than for the author in the Socialist may still get some day the details he wants. Meanwhile what historical matter he does give is in the form of side lights, and in some cases brilliant inside lights, on contemporary history. He does not spare either the individual or the class, nor does he hesitate to antagonize his personal friends, if they

stand opposed or indifferent to the wrongs of the oppressed. Cutting himself off from his own class, where his inheritance, his connections, and his brilliant talents laid almost any office open to him, he identified himself with movements and classes which were hated and feared. He gave up the wealth he was born to and accepted extreme poverty. With a peculiarly impersonal delicacy the autobiography only brings in this poverty, as well as other personal details, as it comes incidentally into his public life. Throughout his public life Hyndman followed a line of thought or investigation, like Socrates, "whithersoever it led him" and acted in accordance, regardless of the consequences on his own material life. With it all he had by no means the martyr's temperament, but exactly the reverse. He is autocratic and naturally aristocratic, a brilliant thinker and observer, by no means always right, but always convincingly sure that he is right, afraid of nothing and willing, as he tells us himself with a touch of humor, to raise a riot if he thought it would be an effective means of publicity. Though a keen-sighted investigator—it was his investigation, for instance, into the amount of destitution in London that is said to have been one of the causes that started Charles Booth on his monumental work—he was preëminently an agitator. Though it does not tell the whole story of what Hyndman and his federation represent Bernard Shaw's description hits off the agitator in him as revealed in this story of his life: "With head aloft and beard abroad, carrying the red flag with such high conviction that the smallest and silliest rabble at his heels seems the Revolution."

"SCUM O' THE EARTH" AND OTHER POEMS

By ROBERT HAVEN SCHAUFFLER. Houghton Mifflin Company. 58 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.

The poem which gives the title to this slender collection is a vision of the potential gifts in the "stranger peoples" who are passing in to America through the gate of Ellis Island.

ENGLISH FOR COMING AMERICANS

By PETER ROBERTS, Ph.D. Association Press. 212 pp. 50 cents postpaid.

As a result of his own experience in teaching English to immigrants Dr. Roberts has worked out a series of courses suitable for such classes, of which this is the third, following Preparatory English and a First Reader. The subjects of the lessons in this book are events in the history of the United States, the important industries of the country, and questions of government. Each subject is treated in a brief page or two of simple English, followed by exercises in grammar and the use of words.

THE MIND OF PRIMITIVE MAN

By FRANZ BOAS. The Macmillan Company. 294 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

In this course of lectures before the Lowell Institute of Boston and the National Uni-

versity of Mexico Prof. Boas has elaborated his previous fragmentary discussions of a problem which has occupied his attention for many years. He examines the assumptions on which racial prejudice is based and finds little to support them. He investigates the influence of environment and heredity upon man's anatomical structure and consequently upon his mental make-up; considers the mental traits common to all mankind—articulate language, the use of implements, and the power of reasoning; studies the problem of the relation of racial types to cultural advancement by attempting to correlate them, and, finding "a general lack of correlation," concludes that "cultural stage is essentially a phenomenon dependent upon historical causes, regardless of race"; describes the mental characteristics of primitive man, regardless of his racial affiliations; and applies the results of his investigation to the race problems with which we are confronted in the United States. The "social aspects" of this scientific inquiry are summed up by Prof. Boas in his final paragraph: "I hope the discussions contained in these pages have shown that the data of anthropology teach us a greater tolerance of forms of civilization different from our own, and that we should learn to look upon foreign races with greater sympathy, and with the conviction that, as all races have contributed in the past to cultural progress in one way or another, so they will be capable of advancing the interests of mankind, if we are only willing to give them a fair opportunity."

THE PROMISED LAND

By MARY ANTIN. Houghton Mifflin Company. 373 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.88.

An appeal to the same end, but by very different means, is this autobiography of a Russian Jewish girl who "began life in the Middle Ages" and who now, though not yet thirty years old, is "your contemporary in the twentieth century, thrilling with your latest thought." Like Edward A. Steiner's account of his childhood and youth,¹ it is "a concrete illustration of a multitude of statistical facts," an individual story which is typical of many, and which should help us to understand the many unwritten lives. Coming to America just when she did, at the age of twelve or thirteen, "all the processes of uprooting, transportation, replanting, acclimatization, and development" took place in the soul of Mary Antin, and all these processes she has described vividly. The impressive feature of the story is the splendid egotism, or the perfect faith—whichever you please—with which she accepted and used and gloried in the opportunities of America, finding it indeed for herself and hers "the promised land." The book is fuller than the papers which have appeared in *The Atlantic Monthly*, and is enriched by several photographs of people and places in Polotzk. The eager-eyed little girl who faces you when you open the book is irresistible.

¹Against the Current. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN APRIL

CAPTAIN MARTHA MARY. By Avery Abbott. The Century Company. 211 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY 1.08.

A NEW CONSCIENCE AND AN ANCIENT EVIL. By Jane Addams. The Macmillan Company. 219 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

THE HOME NURSE'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL NURSING. By Charlotte A. Alkens, W. B. Saunders Company. 276 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.64.

THE PROMISED LAND. By Mary Antin. Houghton Mifflin Company. 373 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.88.

THE STORY OF A PLOUGH-BOY. By James Bryce. John Lane Company. 450 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. By Benjamin Marshall Davis. The University of Chicago Press. 163 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.12.

THE CRIMINAL AND THE COMMUNITY. By James Devon. John Lane Company. 339 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.90.

BEYOND WAR. By Vernon Lyman Kellogg. Henry Holt and Company. 172 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

THE RECORD OF A CITY: A SOCIAL SURVEY OF LOWELL, MASSACHUSETTS. By George F. Kenn-gott. The Macmillan Company. 257 pp. \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.18.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION. By Irving King, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company. 425 pp. \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.71.

THE ELEMENTS OF STATISTICAL METHOD. By Willford I. King, M. A. The Macmillan Company. 250 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

THE LAST OF THE PURITANS. (A story.) By Frederic P. Ladd. F. M. Lupton, Publisher. 240 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.11.

THE LIFE AND WORK OF WILLIAM PRYOR LETCHWORTH. By J. M. Larned. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 472 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.11.

HENRY DEMAREST LLOYD. By Caro Lloyd. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 2 vol. 308 and 309 pp. \$5.00; by express of THE SURVEY \$5.30.

THE MONTESSORI METHOD. My Maria Montessori. Translated by Anne E. George. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 377 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.87.

ENGLISH FOR COMING AMERICANS. Second Reader. By Peter Roberts, Ph.D. Association Press. 212 pp. 50 cents postpaid.

SCUM O' THE EARTH, AND OTHER POEMS. By Robert Haven Schauffer. Houghton Mifflin Company. 58 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.

IN BETHANY HOUSE. By Mary Elizabeth Smith. Fleming H. Revell Company. 293 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.

OLD-AGE DEPENDENCY IN THE UNITED STATES. By Lee Welling Squier. The Macmillan Company. 361 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

THE QUESTION AS A MEASURE OF EFFICIENCY IN INSTRUCTION. By Romlett Stevens, Ph.D. Teachers College, Columbia University. 95 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

THE ANARCHISTS: THEIR FAITH AND THEIR RECORD. By Ernest Alfred Vizetelly. John Lane Company. 308 pp. \$3.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.70.

SOCIALISM AS IT IS. By William English Walling. The Macmillan Company. 452 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.13.

SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE BIBLE. By Louis Wallis. The University of Chicago Press. 308 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.68.

THE TREND OF THINGS

The London *Times* has no comic column, but it not infrequently injects a grim unconscious humor into its editorial comment. The following definition of a strike is a case in point:

"Strikes," said the *Times* during the recent conflict in the British coal fields, "consist in workmen stopping at home instead of going to work, and they come to an end when the workmen cease to stop at home and proceed to work again. At present the miners are stopping at home."

* * *

"In the great army of law-breakers," says Julian Leavitt in the *American Magazine*, "it is only the failures that land in prison, and this consciousness of failure crushes the convict's spirit even more than does the prison routine."

* * *

"The conflict of rights—of the rights of the employer to use his own discretion, of the rights of labor to steady employment—are bound to clash on the basis of skill *versus* service," says Al Priddy, writing on unionism in the *Congregationalist and Christian World*.

* * *

In *Leslie's*, Carleton S. Garretson expresses in poetical vein, his impatience with the muck-raker. In his opinion

The man who lives but to criticise
The works of his fellow-man
And causes no pile of his own to rise,
But skulks in Advancement's van
Has no real place in the world's vast scheme.
If he blocks in his misplaced zeal
The wheel of progress of power supreme
He'll be broken upon that wheel.

* * *

In announcing its new Bureau of Foods, Sanitation, and Health, of which Dr. Harvey W. Wiley will be director, *Good Housekeeping* states that he "will be assisted by a staff of trained men and women, all of whom come with him from the Department of Agriculture. He will be untrammelled in the conduct of the bureau by any interference from persons whose mercenary interests his investigations and publications may menace.

"The bureau will continue and carry on the aggressive campaign against food adulteration and kindred abuses which Dr. Wiley has prosecuted for years as an officer of the Department of Agriculture. In addition it will be put at the service of the public for examination of suspected food and toilet products, by whomsoever manufactured, and for protection against false weights and measures of every description."

* * *

Herr Bebel, the leader of the radical wing of the German socialists, is reported to have said when the socialist landslide in the German Reichstag was announced:

"The peace of Europe is now assured."

In a recent sermon at the Church of the Messiah, New York, John Haynes Holmes interpreted the social significance of the

European working-class war against war. He said:

"I believe that war between the nations of the world is every day becoming more and more improbable—for one reason if for no other.

"I refer to the great awakening upon this question which has come to the working-classes of the world, without whose enthusiastic devotion armies cannot be recruited, navies cannot be manned, and battles between contending hosts cannot be fought. It means something, does it not, when, in the war between Russia and Japan, Russian peasants had to be driven to the recruiting stations at the point of the bayonet; and even when conveyed to Manchuria and brought face to face with the Japanese, had to be driven into battle with whips, as a slave-driver would drive his slaves? It means something, does it not, when the attempt of the king of Spain to send his armies into Africa was met by the revolt of his subjects in Barcelona and the refusal of whole regiments of his soldiers to march to the front? And what shall we say of the great spectacle which was witnessed in Berlin, at the time when war was imminent with France, when two hundred thousand Socialists gathered peaceably in the public squares, denounced the belligerent attitude of the government, and solemnly swore that they would never take up arms against their brothers in the republic of France? Such events as these mean simply that the working-classes of the world are awaking to self-consciousness. They mean that the common people are realizing that there is no reason why they should be made 'food for powder,' in order to satisfy the jealousies of kings, repair the errors of ministers of state and advance the commercial interests of trusts and corporations. They mean that the multitudes see at last that they have no quarrel with their fellow-laborers across the border-lines of nations, and that there is no reason, therefore, why they should attempt to shoot them to pieces. The time is coming, if it is not already here, when some nation will some day declare a war against its neighbor, and discover to its amazement and disgust that it has no soldiers to fill its regiments and no sailors to man its ships!"

* * *

An interesting series now running in the *Outlook* is that on home making, based on individual statements of household accounts and other intimate details of home-making and household management submitted to the *Outlook*. The first three articles of the series are by Martha Bensley Bruère, on What is Home For? Savings or Efficiency? and The Cost of Children.

* * *

The *Twentieth Century* is having a series by Mrs. Florence Kelley on The Minimum Wage, alternating with a series by Ira Wood Howerth on Work and Life.

* * *

Another interesting continued article in the *March* grist is that on big business and the law by C. P. Connolly in *Everybody's*. The

Independent has recently published short sketches from life, *The Newsboy* and *The Night Messenger*, by Scott Nearing.

* * *

In *The Veterans*, James Henry Henle, in a recent issue of the *International* imagines a dialogue in a Mills Hotel. A "little shriveled up old man is eating at one of the tables near the center. He is not a pretty thing to look at. He has on no collar, and his neck is thin and scrawny; one or two buttons and a safety pin keep his waistcoat fastened. There are holes in his coat at the elbows, and the whole garment is ragged and shiny. His shoulders are hunched together, and shudders continually run over his body. There is absolutely nothing beautiful about him. His wrinkled face is scarred, and his eyes bloodshot and haggard. He eats in fits and starts, at moments gulping down his food like an animal. . . ."

To him enters, "a cheery, fairly well dressed old man who takes a place at the same table with the Ugly One and opposite him."

THE UGLY ONE:

So the gov'ment looks out fer you, eh?

THE OTHER:

Yes, I'm a veteran of the Civil War.

THE UGLY ONE:

Well, I'm a veteran uv a damned sight worse war, and who in hell is gonta look out fer me?

THE OTHER:

(*Pacifically.*) Why what war was that?

THE UGLY ONE:

I don't know as y'd call it a war anyways. But it wuz damn near it. And I went right through it, and who's gonta look out fer me? That's what I wants ter know.

THE OTHER:

I don't understand what you mean. Explain it to me.

THE UGLY ONE:

Oh, I guess I ain't gotta tell you. Most everybody knows about it. I'm a worker what's too old ter work. I usta be a baker—a pretty good one, too, but it took all I made fer me and my wife. She's dead now, thank God! (*The other starts.*) Yes, let me tell you it's a good thing she died before I got so old they fired me. Now I just about make enough peddling to keep myself here—and there's days I don't make enough fer that. Do yer know what it is ter spend the night on the streets—when it's too cold ter sleep in a park? Well?

THE OTHER:

I'm infernal sorry fer you, brother, and something ought to be done about it, but you must see it's different from my case. I risked my life fighting the enemies of my country—though they're not that any longer.

THE UGLY ONE:

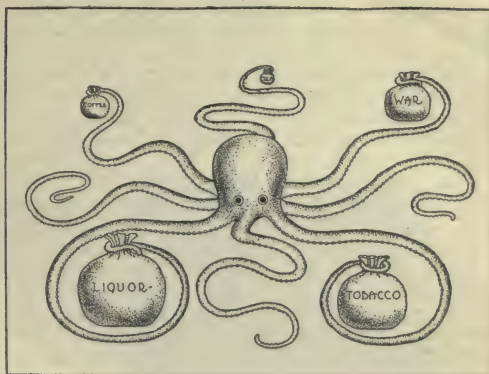
Well, I risked my life too. D'yer think being fifteen hours a day in a damn furnace and eating yer meals while yer run around—d'yer think that's healthy? Look what I am now, and look what you are. Who took the worst chances?

* * *

In the *Independent* Professor William B. Bailey gives "a bill of wastes" in our national life:

Liquor	\$1,600,000,000
Tobacco	1,100,000,000
Coffee	194,000,000
Tea	33,000,000

"The unfortunate part of this expenditure," Professor Bailey goes on, "is that not only is this vast sum unprofitably consumed when it might be expended for articles which are



Courtesy of the Independent.

FIVE FORMS OF OUR NATIONAL WASTE.

needed by our people, but the money spent upon these items reduces the power of resistance to disease and brings an incalculable amount of misery in its train. In our campaign for conservation the personal habits of the people should not be overlooked."

The cut that accompanies Professor Bailey's statement shows still another form of national waste in expenditures for war, the third greatest in the list.

* * *

The latest Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science have to do with one of the oldest of countries—in its new phases. There are sixteen papers on China. Among them are An Interpretation of China by L. Y. Ho of the University of Pennsylvania; The Revolution by Tai-Chi Quo of the same university; Reconstruction by the Rev. Arthur H. Smith; The Republican Government by Chester Lloyd Jones, professor in the University of Wisconsin. Special problems of China are the Manchurian by Putnam Weale, a resident of Peking; the Open Door by Frederick McCormick; Emigration by Pyan Sing. Natural resources, educational and medical systems are the subjects of other papers.

* * *

An Experiment in Alien Labor, by E. George Payne, professor in Harris Teachers' College, St. Louis,¹ deals with the Chinese away from home. Prof. Payne describes the importation of contract coolie laborers into the Transvaal in 1904 and their repatriation two years later, when their numbers had swelled to 50,000 and their labor had appreciably hastened the development of agriculture, transportation, and mining in the Transvaal. Some hint of the reason why these sturdy laborers proved to be of a class "inimical to the best interests of South Africa" can be gained from the author's description of the methods used by the recruiting agents.

"They did not," says Prof. Payne, "make inquiries about the character of the coolies

¹University of Chicago Press. Price \$0.79 post-paid.

they recruited; they rather sought those who would enlist with least discussion and explanation . . . Chinese communities too, as in all cases of Chinese emigration, seized the opportunity to rid themselves of some of their worst members. Some who had committed crimes also sought this method of escape."

* * *

With the spirit of "Judge Lynch" cropping out as a result of labor disturbances on the western coast, Booker T. Washington's recent figures in the *Independent* on twelve months' lynchings are especially timely, showing to his mind how small a factor the unwritten law plays, how large a factor the unrestrained spirit of mob license to abuse a helpless race or class.

"During the past year," says Mr. Washington, "lynchings have occurred in eighteen states. Seventy-one have occurred in all, fifty-nine of them Negroes, one a Mexican.

"It is instructive," Mr. Washington goes on, "to summarize the causes alleged for these seventy-one lynchings: In fifteen cases, rape or attempted rape, or mere accusation of the crime, was the charge; in one, resistance to officers of the law; in twenty-four, murder or attempt to murder; in one, threats to kill; in one, "abusive language;" in one, "acting suspiciously around the house;" in one, "no special offense charged—said to have been in the depot with several other Negroes;" in two, insulting women; in four cases of white men my lists do not specify the cause; in one, robbery; in one, "murderous assault;" in one, "robbery and killing officers;" in one case (a Mexican boy), stabbing a man who had cursed him; in one, "using insulting language in addressing a lady over the telephone;" in one, "entered a cherry orchard and quarreled with the owner;" in one, wife-beating.

"There are lessons to be learned from this record of the year's lynchings. In the first place, it is clear that an evil once begun spreads and increases. The habit of lynching was begun in this country largely as a punishment for rape. It will be noticed, however, that out of seventy-one lynchings only fifteen, or twenty-one per cent. were for rape or attempted rape. Secondly, an examination of the individual cases of colored people charged with crimes that resulted in lynching shows that not a single individual lynched could be classed as an educated person. Again, so far as one can discover, not a single one of these persons was the owner of property or a taxpayer. Then again, in considering lynchings, it is to be borne in mind that, since the individuals have not had a trial, it is known that many innocent persons are lynched."

* * *

Almost contemporaneously with the *Common Cause*, the first national anti-socialist periodical in America, American socialists set on foot the *National Socialist*, a weekly of which

several issues have now appeared. It has on its editorial staff Louis Kopelin, Washington correspondent for the *National Socialist Press*, and W. J. Ghent, secretary to Representative Berger. Its main object is to bring before socialists and the public in general facts in regard to economic conditions gained through debates in congress, government documents, and other official sources. The *National Socialist* will have seven regular departments, which are thus described in the prospectus:

1. A department called The Arsenal, which will publish the latest government facts and figures exposing the evils of capitalism.

2. A department which will show the constructive side of the government.

3. A department which will give a complete and comprehensive review of the week's work in congress, especially that relating to socialist and labor matters.

4. A department that will keep the people posted as to the latest decisions of the courts.

5. A department which will attempt to answer any questions asked by subscribers. The editors of this department will have at their disposal the wonderful Library of Congress and the extensive reference works owned by the various federal departments.

6. A department which will give a digest of the week's news in the socialist movement, here and abroad.

7. A department which will review the doings in the labor world.

* * *

A child welfare department is being published in the Saturday evening edition of the *Oregon Daily Journal* of Portland. Under the editorship of Frances Marion Hawkes, information concerning the various local, state, and national agencies affecting children is popularly presented. Recent issues, for example, have discussed the social center movement, the activities of the congress of mothers, development of playground interests on the Pacific Coast, and the need of efforts to prevent the evils of congestion and bad housing in Portland.

Each time the department appears, it includes a brief directory of local organizations devoted to child welfare or social betterment in general, including the Day Nursery and Flower Mission, Neighborhood House, the Consumers' League, the Juvenile Court, the People's Institute, the boys' department and big brothers' work of the Y. M. C. A., the Big Sisterhood, the Congress of Mothers, and the Child Labor Commission.

* * *

The *Tribune* is the first New York paper, so far as we know, to inaugurate a regular weekly department of news of civic and social progress. This is a step which has already been taken by a number of dailies, notably the *Baltimore Sun* and the *Boston Evening Transcript*. The *Tribune* calls its department which runs in the Saturday issue, Work for Humanity and under this head includes news from all over the world.

PERSONALS

Judge Merritt W. Pinckney of the Chicago Juvenile Court has announced his desire to retire from that position on July 1 when he will have completed four years of service. Should his desire govern, the judges of the Circuit Court will, as is customary on July 1 of each year, select one of their number to sit upon the Juvenile Court bench. Judge Pinckney will resume his regular work in the hearing of civil cases and one of his colleagues will be selected to succeed him in his present position.

In making his announcement, Judge Pinckney points out the great strain which Juvenile Court work puts upon the judge. It is suggested by those who know both Judge Pinckney and the situation which has developed in the Juvenile Court during the last few months that perhaps the insanitary conditions at the court chambers and the strain to which the judge alludes are not alone responsible for his decision.

The wretched efforts to undermine the influence and jurisdiction of the court, shown especially during the "trial" of former chief probation officer Witter,¹ have been enough to discourage any judge and particularly one of such broad intelligence and sympathies in the vital work of the Juvenile Court as Judge Pinckney has shown himself. Friends of the court in Chicago are urging Judge Pinckney to reconsider his action. The fact that the struggle on behalf of the court's standards and value is still in an acute stage gives added earnestness to their pleas.

If it be true that all geniuses are mad, then Newton D. Baker, mayor of Cleveland, is not a genius, for he is not mad—not a bit! And it is not because he does not know enough to be mad—or a genius. He knows so much about so many things that it is almost exasperating. How does a busy man, just turned forty, contrive to find time to stow away such a fund of knowledge? He takes everybody and everything seriously, from the incessant questionings of Betty and Jack, his two charming little children, to all the interests and *isms* of all the men and women with whom he comes in contact. If he isn't always patient nobody discovers it, for he is always kind. This sounds as if he were formal and cold and detached, but he has humor enough and sympathy enough to make him very human. He loves music as his wife does but, unlike her, he is not a musician. In a small way he is a horticulturist, and perhaps it is because he is able to divert his mind from social and political problems by his enjoyment of beauty for beauty's own sake that he is so wise and sane. By his own testimony, he is a dreamer, but he is a dreamer who has visions, not mere dreams. In these visions he sees

¹See THE SURVEY, March 30, 1912.

people healthy, happy, contented—nobody rich, nobody poor; society giving a *chance* to every man and every woman and every little child. That is what he has worked for, what he will continue to work for. Cleveland knows that and that is why she elected him mayor by such an overwhelming vote.



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NEWTON D. BAKER.

Cleveland has known it through his great work in representing the city in the ten years' war waged against the street railway monopoly. The result of that war was to squeeze eleven million dollars of water out of the stock of the street railway company and to give three-cent fares. Two-cent a mile steam railroad fare in the state, the abolition of the fee system in county offices, the abolition of the railroad pass, the establishment of a state tax commission with power to fix the valuation of railroads including their franchise value, the substitution of a quadrennial for the old decennial appraisement of property for taxation in Ohio—these are some of the things that have resulted from the fight of the Cleveland group, under the leadership of Tom L. Johnson, for an equalization of opportunity. And in all of these things Mr. Baker has been the adviser, the attorney, and an agitator. He is a forceful public speaker. He has not been an administrator. His opportunity as administrator is before him. On page 173 of *My Story*, Tom L. Johnson says of him:

"This low-paid city official has every day seen in the court-room lawyers getting often five times the fee for bringing a suit that he got for defending it. He did for the people for love what other lawyers did for the corporations for money."

The slogan of Mr. Baker's mayoralty campaign was three-cent light. He got a bond issue of two million dollars with which to build a municipal lighting plant which shall furnish electric light to the people of Cleveland at cost. The social benefits that come from three-cent fare and three-cent light are

much greater than those which come from establishing a few bath houses and playgrounds, and opening a few parks. Cleveland has done those things too, but Mr. Baker's specific service has been in the bigger things.

ELIZABETH J. HAUSER.

Harriet L. Keeler, who recently consented to be superintendent of public schools in Cleveland, until some one equally fitted for the position could be found to take it permanently, has long served the cause of edu-



HARRIET L. KEELER.

cation in Ohio. For thirty years she has been a teacher of English in the Central High School. Her love of nature and studies of plant life first found expression in a small book published in 1894 on the wild flowers of the northern Ohio region. This was followed by books on *Our National Trees*, *Our Northern Shrubs* and *Our Garden Flowers*, published by Charles Scribner's Sons. Miss Keeler was one of the founders and is still an officer in the Consumers' League of Ohio.

The choice of Talcott Williams of Philadelphia as a first director of Columbia University's new school of journalism is one of those instances in which the office seeks the man—and finds him. Born of missionary parents, under the star and crescent of Turkey, and reared and educated under the stars and stripes of his ancestors, Dr. Williams has always seemed to express in his career characteristics which might be deemed a composite of races and religions. If this seems a rather far-drawn comparison, it is true that, in a long and arduous service in that most exigent and imperative of professions, he has exemplified the best ideals of accuracy of statement, of graphic, effective diction, independence of opinion, and, best of all, of sincere and active sympathy with every movement for the betterment of politics and society. Not satisfied with writing and talking about it, Dr. Williams, with the help of his

friend and neighbor, Owen Wister, and a few other good fellows "cleaned up" their election district in Philadelphia and brought it permanently into the good government column.

Naturally, no pent up Utica of a newspaper page has been able to confine Dr. Williams, and his graces of speech and felicities of thought have made him a favorite speaker at educational anniversaries and public dinner tables. Whether in discussion of grave questions of the times or in the lighter vein of the address of occasion, Dr. Williams always comes off with high honors. In charitable and benevolent work, he has long been active and sympathetic, and no good cause, of race, religion, or charity ever appeals in vain for his helping voice and hand. Amherst, his Alma Mater, has honored herself by calling him to her governing board. It may fairly be questioned whether in all the land the new Pulitzer school could have found a leader possessing a more thorough, well-balanced, and all round equipment of training, temperament, and sympathy than this former associate and fellow-worker.

HERBERT L. BRIDGMAN.

The Social Service Commission of the Diocese of New York, of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ, in selecting the Rev. Charles K. Gilbert, rector of Grace Church, Milbrook, as executive secretary, created the first paid diocesan secretary representing social service interests. Since shortly after Easter Mr. Gilbert has devoted all of his time to the commission, at a salary of \$3,000. In both New Dorp, S. I., and Millbrook Mr. Gilbert has established substantial and well-used parish houses.

In order to give more of his time to pushing forward the Chicago city plan and to arouse public interest in it, Charles H. Wacker has resigned as president of the United Charities of Chicago. He has been at the helm of that organization since it was formed three years ago, for two years before that he had been president and for ten years a director of the Chicago Relief and Aid Society which, with the Chicago Associated Charities, was merged into the United Charities.

Mr. Wacker's leaving gave the workers of the United Charities opportunity at a dinner to pay high tribute to his work, to present him with a loving-cup, and to mark the rapid but substantial growth in every department of the society. His final message to the staff was this: "It is a common fallacy that material relief, helping those in distress from one week's misery into the next, is sufficient. Material relief should be given wherever necessary, but the more difficult work is to ascertain the cause of the trouble, to apply preventive measures, and to stand by those afflicted until they have again become self-supporting."

As announced in *THE SURVEY* for March 23, 1910, Eugene T. Lies, formerly secretary

of the Associated Charities of Minneapolis, succeeds Mr. Wacker.

It is vouchsafed few men to have the opportunities for usefulness that were entrusted to Walter Wyman. For twenty-two years he was Surgeon-General of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, during which time the service passed through its greatest period of development and usefulness. Dr. Wyman's leadership was of the constructive and progressive kind and free from all tinges of sensationalism. He guided the course of public health work during the transitional stage of the sanitary sciences with great firmness and commendable caution. He established the Public Health Service upon a broad, firm, and enduring basis, upon which further expansion is now made comparatively easy. Dr. Wyman carried many difficult situations to success by a combination of great patience, forbearance, and a charming personality. His loss will be felt both within the corps and by many who labored with him for social uplift and sanitary improvement. All his energies were focused upon the single purpose of organizing a useful public health service in our central government. M. J. R.

What one Chicago newspaper described as "another victory for the progressives" was achieved last month when Mrs. George Bass was elected president of the Chicago Woman's Club. Suffragist, woman insurgent, and reformer, are some of the characterizations applied to her. The Chicago Woman's Club is well known as an aggressive force in civic and social reform, and it is alleged that its members have now broken away from a conservative custom in the selection of officers. Mrs. Bass is at present chairman of a committee appointed by the general federation of women's clubs to report next fall on what care is being given in Illinois to dependent girls. On the basis of this report a plan for their better provision will be outlined.

JOTTINGS

ANTHRACITE AGREEMENT VETOED

On May 2, a month and two days after the suspension of work in the anthracite coal region, the tentative agreement adopted by the sub-committees appointed by the joint conference of anthracite operators and miners was acted upon by the larger committees of both bodies. The agreement was accepted by the operators' committee, but rejected by the representatives of the mine workers. At the joint conference which followed, no solution of the situation was arrived at, and the meeting adjourned with the understanding that it could be reconvened at the request of the mine workers.

The tentative agreement provided for a four-year instead of a one-year contract as demanded by the workers; for an increase in wages of 10 per cent over rates awarded in 1903 by the Anthracite Commission and for the abolition of the sliding scale, the result on wages being a net increase of a little over 5 per cent instead of an increase of 20 per cent as demanded by the mine workers. The tentative agreement further provided for an equitable division of mine cars and for rates of pay for consideration work, these substantially along the lines asked by the men. It outlined the method and favored a "more convenient and uniform system of adjusting local grievances within a reasonable time limit" as the demands of the men urged. Partial recognition of the union was embodied in the further elaborated plans for settling grievances, but the union organization was not recognized as a party in making the new general agreements affecting all the men in the region, and the check-off system by which union dues would be subtracted from the miner's pay envelope was not granted. The demand for check weighmen and check docking bosses was granted, but no mention was made of the demand for an eight-hour day. The propositions that coal be mined and paid for by the ton of 2,240 pounds and that the old system which gives a contract miner more than one working place and allows him more than two laborers be abolished, were not carried by the men. On the other hand, one concession not covered in the workers' original demands was agreed to; namely, that company officials and committees of employes at each mine shall jointly prepare a statement of rates prevailing in the mine, the same to be certified to the Board of Conciliation within sixty days, and to be used as a basis in adjusting grievances involving rates of pay.

NËGRO CONFERENCE IN ST. LOUIS

The Committee for Social Service among the Colored People of St. Louis held a general conference recently which was attended by more than 200 white and Negro workers. Present social and economic conditions among Negroes in St. Louis, the work being done for improvement, and a program of future activities were brought out. Social work among the Negroes of St. Louis began with a course of lectures and musical entertainments eight years ago under the auspices of the Ethical Society. Gradually the joint social service work of whites and Negroes has extended. Recently affiliation has been made with the National Committee on Urban Conditions among Negroes. A strong protest was made against race-discrimination in public amusement centers. This joint Committee for Social Service among Colored People is arousing interest in an evening course for colored men and women in social service. The general subject is a study of the problems and agencies of social betterment with special reference to St. Louis.

SOME CHILDHOOD PROBLEMS IN CANADA

At a two-days' conference of representatives of seventy Children's Aid Societies, held last month in Toronto, Ontario, the following resolutions, among others, were unanimously carried: "That in view of the number of instances in which society is called upon to make provision for wives and families deserted by the bread winner, the dominion parliament be urged to amend the criminal law so as to make wife desertion an indictable offense and extraditable."

"As a further means of safeguarding the home by securing the continuance of parental and filial relationships in their natural environment, be it resolved, that this conference endorse and advocate the provision by provincial and municipal government jointly of a fund for the maintenance, or assistance, of widows with children dependent upon them, and of deserted women whose husbands cannot be located."

"Whereas many of the children's aid societies represented at this conference find their shelters are becoming filled up with defective and idiotic children, and many other children of the same class are entirely unprovided for, be it resolved that we urge upon the provincial government the necessity of a graded institution for the reception and treatment of such cases."

Societies were recommended to assist in the placing and supervising of illegitimate children provided the mothers nursed their infants for at least six months and were unable through lack of means to continue guardianship.

CARE OF INFANTS BEFORE BIRTH

Philadelphia will make a departure from the usual child welfare exhibition in a Baby Saving Show, which will be conducted from May 18 to July 1. The entire show will be devoted to demonstrating the proper care of the infant before birth and during the first two years of life. In this connection there will be exhibits upon heredity, prenatal environment, the mother, and related subjects.

The impulse for the show came from two of the local medical societies following an investigation which reported that 24 per cent of the annual deaths in Philadelphia were of children under two years of age and that 50 per cent of this mortality was directly due to ignorance. To remedy this situation a committee on child hygiene was formed, composed of representative physicians and social workers with Dr. Joseph S. Neff, director of the Department of Health and Charities, as chairman. The first step of this committee was to inaugurate the Baby Saving Show. At the same time it began a survey of all the child welfare work that is being carried on in Philadelphia. Upon the results of this investigation it will base its further campaign for the reduction of infant mortality.

The Baby Saving Show will be held for eight days in Horticultural Hall. After May 26 it

will be taken to Kensington, Germantown, and other outlying districts. Exhibits, moving pictures, and popular lectures will be included. The exhibits will demonstrate the best ways of clothing, bathing, and feeding the infant. There will be model kitchens, model bed rooms, sections on milk, food values, communicable and uncommunicable diseases, housing and sanitation. Separated from the others will be a bad section, which will illustrate improper methods of taking care of infants.

On May 22 and 23 a conference upon infant mortality will be held. The program has been designed to attract social workers, physicians, health officers, and city officials. As arranged thus far, the subjects to be discussed include: The control of marriages of the unfit; the regulation of midwifery; social service work in relation to the conservation of child life; milk stations and infant welfare stations; municipal child bureaus; educational work for mothers of today and mothers of the future; prenatal care; institutional care of babies versus home placing; the value of recreation in relation to infant mortality; the employment of married women.

Among the speakers will be: Dr. J. L. Hunt-ington and Dr. Rowland G. Freeman, both of New York; Dr. Josephine Baker, Department of Health, New York; Hastings H. Hart, Russell Sage Foundation, New York; Dr. Fritz Talbot, Boston; Dr. Mary Sherwood, Baltimore; Mrs. William Lowell Putnam, Boston and J. W. Schereschewsky of the United States Marine Hospital Service.

BEAN BAGS AND CONVICTS

Once upon a time a person who "did not know beans" was considered extremely ignorant, but with the Lima Bean Growers' Association, the burlap bag manufacturers of San Francisco, and the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce having a "wordy war" for two hours before the California Prison Commission, as to whether the convicts at San Quentin should be allowed to make bean bags, the legume which was supposed to be Boston's dearest product has assumed large proportions. Apparently the prison would weave the jute into the bags and sew them up for the men who raise beans, as they already made 4,500,000 bags a year for the grain growers. The alternative is to have cheap Hindoo labor in Calcutta make the burlap and cheap labor in California sew up the bags. The bean growers' petition to have the prison make 500,000 for them, which they assert would not be any serious competition, as 2,750,000 are annually made in California. One would rather like to know how much the laborer in Calcutta is paid; and how much the free labor in California that sews up the bags gets; as well as what it would cost the state to make the bags and what it would get for them; and, most important of all, what effect commercial bag-making has on the work for which the prisons are established—the discipline and rehabilitation of convicted men.

Volume XXVIII, No. 7

Week of May 18, 1912

THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC

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MAY 21 1912
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

RESCUE BARGE IN MISSISSIPPI FLOOD DISTRICT



The district submerged by the Mississippi river on May 1 exceeded the combined area of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. Vast new regions have since been inundated. The failure of the public to respond liberally to the appeals of the Red Cross leaves that organization unprepared to take up the work and carry it forward on a scale which the conditions demand. If congress does not take early and favorable action, there will be the gravest apprehensions as to the outcome.

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INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but membership is not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply. *Continued on next page.*

Child Labor

National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

Children

National Conference on the Education of Dependent, Backward, Truant, and Delinquent Children. Conference reports \$1 each, including membership in conference. Address Elmer L. Coffeen, Sec'y and Treas., Westboro, Mass.

National Health

Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Executive Secretary, Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York.

To unite all the government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

School Hygiene

American School Hygiene Association. Pres., David L. Edsall, M. D., Washington University; Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M. D., College of the City of New York, New York.

Yearly congresses and proceedings.

Working Women

National Women's Trade Union League, 127 N. Dearborn St., Chicago. Mrs. Raymond Robins, President.

Information gladly given. Official publication, *Life and Labor*, three months' subscription, 25c.

White Slave Traffic

National Vigilance Committee, 156 Fifth Ave., N. Y. Information as to the traffic acted on. Special library for free use. Publishes *Vigilance* monthly, 50c. a year. Book on White Slave Traffic, \$1.

Prison Labor

National Committee on Prison Labor, 27 E. 22d St., N. Y. City. Thomas R. Slicer, Chn.; E. Stagg Whitin, Ph.D., Gen. Sec.; R. Montgomery Schell, Treas. Prison labor conditions throughout the U. S. examined with recommendations for constructive reform. Pamphlets free to members. \$5 a year.

Municipal Problems

National Municipal League, 703 North American Bldg., Philadelphia. William Dudley Foulke, Pres.; Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Sec'y. Charters, commission government, taxation, police, liquor, electoral reform, finances, accounting, efficiency, civic education, franchises, school extension.

Child Helping

Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22d St., New York.

Correspondence and printed matter relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality, care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

Athletics in the Public Schools

Division of Recreation, of the Russell Sage Foundation, 400 Metropolitan Tower, New York city.

The Athletic Badge Test for School children also Class Athletics are forms of athletic activities designed to reach all the children rather than the select few. Descriptive bulletin sent on request.

Tuberculosis

National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M. D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., will be sent upon request. Annual Transactions and other publications free to members.

Conservation of Vision

American Association for the Conservation of Vision, 25 West 39th St., New York. D. C. McMurtrie, Acting Sec'y, 105 E. 22d St. To prevent blindness and impairment of vision from diseases, defects, accidents and abuse. Literature and exhibits. Ten state organizations. Membership \$1. Charter \$5.

Women in Industry

National Consumers' League, 105 East 22d St., New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, Sec'y. Annual Report and other literature free.

Minimum wage boards, protection of women workers, pure food, sweatshops, etc.

Young Women

National Board, Y. W. C. A. 125 East 27th St., New York City. Pres., Miss Grace H. Dodge. Gen. Sec'y., Miss Mabel Cratty; the advancement of physical, social, intellectual and spiritual interests of young women. Official Publication, "The Association Monthly" \$1; free literature.

Delinquents and Prison Reform

National Prisoners' Aid Society, 135 East 15th St., New York City. O. F. Lewis, Sec'y. Membership, \$1 annually, including monthly sixteen page magazine *The Review*, a digest of the field of delinquency. Parole, prisons, probation, vagrancy, farm colonies, prison labor, etc.

The Smoke Nuisance

Send 25 cents, stamps or coin, for American Civic Association Bulletin on "Smoke Abatement; How to Organize for Pure Air; Model Ordinances, etc." Address American Civic Association, 914 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

Recreation

Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y.

Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

Probation

National Probation Association. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Arthur W. Towne, Sec'y.

Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, 50 cents a year.

Sex Hygiene

Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, a Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y 22 affiliated societies.

Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

Mental Hygiene

National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City. Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of the insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

Labor Legislation

Workmen's Compensation; Industrial Hygiene; Labor Laws.

Official publication: *American Labor Legislation Review*, sent free to members.

American Association for Labor Legislation, Metropolitan Tower, New York City. John B. Andrews, Secretary.

Remedial Loans

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 105 E. 22d St., N. Y. Arthur H. Ham.

Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

Short Ballot and Commission Government

The Short Ballot Organization, 383 Fourth Ave., New York City. Woodrow Wilson, President; Richard S. Childs, Sec'y. National clearing house for information on these subjects. Pamphlets free. Publishers of *Beard's Loose-Leaf Digest of Short Ballot Charters*.

City Planning

National City Planning Conference 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass. Frederick Law Olmsted, President. Flavel Shurtleff, Secretary. A Seminar for the Discussion of City Planning Problems. Publishes Annual Proceedings. Membership at \$5 a Year Includes All Literature.

THE COMMON WELFARE

A SCIENCE FOR JUDGES

The introduction of the finger-print system has led to notable gains in court procedure in New York. But it has only fairly pointed the way to the advances in scientific treatment which may be looked for once the technique of physician and psychologist is fully brought to bear upon the treatment of criminal and wayward girls. To this end the Bureau of Social Hygiene, composed of John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Starr J. Murphy, Paul Warburg, of the firm of Kuhn, Loeb and Co., and Katharine Bement Davis, has been formed for the purpose of establishing a laboratory of social hygiene. This will be conducted in connection with the New York State Reformatory for Women at Bedford, of which Dr. Davis is superintendent. Ninety-five acres adjoining the reformatory estate have already been purchased and possession will be taken July 1.

The object of this laboratory will be to work out a methodology for the use of magistrates in disposing of the cases of girls convicted of crime. Investigations along this line have been going on at Bedford for a year. The court trial does not necessarily come within the scope of the plan. After conviction the question invariably arises as to what treatment will be most reformatory in its effects. It is hoped that the new laboratory will eventually be able to point the way to an answer. It is hoped further that when a methodology has finally been worked out, whether it consist of tests, of a preliminary period of observation and treatment, or whatever its nature, it will be such as can be undertaken by the courts themselves at public expense. It is believed that in the prosecution of this plan a large body of scientific data as to heredity, economic conditions, and other causes of crime will be collected.

The laboratory will have three departments—psychology, sociology, and nervous pathology—with a woman at the

head of each. A consulting staff of unpaid specialists will make available the service of men also. The research work is to be financed entirely by the Bureau of Social Hygiene, while the cost of keeping the girls on the separate estate will be met by the reformatory. This will, of course, be no added expense.

When the bureau comes into possession it will lease the property to the board of managers of the reformatory so that the latter will have the same control and direction over women stationed on this land as it has over those upon property actually owned by it. The house now standing, formerly occupied by Eugene Sanchez, will be used as a residence for the laboratory staff. A reception building which will accommodate fifty young women will be erected, and a research laboratory will be put up separately.

The manner in which the scheme came to be taken up is of unusual interest, illustrating, among other things, that one need not be an autocrat at a breakfast table to get his ideas prominently before the other guests. Some time ago a number of New York magistrates attended a luncheon given at the Bedford reformatory. One of them complained that he was frequently in no small quandary as to what disposition to make of convicted girls. He knew, he said, that reformatory did not always follow upon punishment, and he wondered how it could be made to do so. The other magistrates shared his difficulty. Asked for her opinion Dr. Davis was nothing loath to make a suggestion. They requested that she put her ideas on paper and a copy of the statement fell into the hands of John D. Rockefeller, Jr., who, as foreman of the white-slavery grand jury, became personally interested in the social evil. Mr. Rockefeller went to Bedford for a more elaborate outlining of Dr. Davis's plan, and suggested that it be carried out experimentally at private expense.

A GOVERNMENT HEALTH SERVICE

The Owen bill providing for a government health service, which will co-ordinate the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, that portion of the Bureau of Chemistry which is charged with enforcing the National Food and Drugs Act, and the Division of Vital Statistics, has been reported favorably by the senate committee on public health and national quarantine. It is now on the senate calendar (No. 561) and will soon come up for vote. As the bill now stands it provides for an independent public health service under a director who will be appointed by the President, but who will not be a member of the cabinet. Although the bill in its amended form does not entirely meet the hopes of the original framers, it offers sufficient advantages, in increased efficiency and economy and as a step in the right direction, to make its enactment strongly urged by many leading physicians and sanitarians throughout the country. In its report the senate committee, recommending the passage of the bill, pointed out the enormous financial loss caused by the small annual death toll, and the practical results of preventive work in Cuba, the canal zone, and elsewhere. The *Journal*, the official organ of the American Medical Association, which numbers 80,000 physicians and surgeons in its membership, many of whom rank among the ablest in the world commented recently on the Owen bill as follows:

Every county society and state association, and particularly the members of the committees on legislation and public health, should take immediate steps to inform the public on the importance of the passage of this bill. . . . If all those who favor advanced legislation for public health will lend their assistance, the prospects for the passage of this bill will be greatly advanced.

The committee of one hundred on national health of the American Association for the Advancement of Science has been back of the movement for a national department of health from its beginning. To quote its executive secretary, Emily F. Robbins:

In connection with the Titanic disaster, I beg to call your attention to the fact that every day of the year in the United States over 1,700 people are needlessly sacrificed, just as were the lives on the Titanic. There are 1,500,000 annual deaths, 42 per cent of which are from preventable causes. This fact was strongly brought out in the report on national vitality of the conservation commission.

IMMIGRATION BUREAU IN THE MIDDLE WEST

The federal government has a scheme of protection for immigrants at ports of arrival. The need for extending this so as to safeguard them until they reach their destinations or friends in this country has been long insisted upon by the Immigrants' Protective League of Chicago. A bill prepared by Ernst Freund, chairman of the legislative committee of the league, and introduced as House Bill No. 21220 by Congressman Sabath, provides for an enlargement of the powers of the commissioner of immigration, subject to approval by the secretary of commerce and labor, so as to apply to:

1. Supervision of the transportation of alien immigrants to their places of destination in the interior of the United States.
2. Protection upon their arrival at the interior.

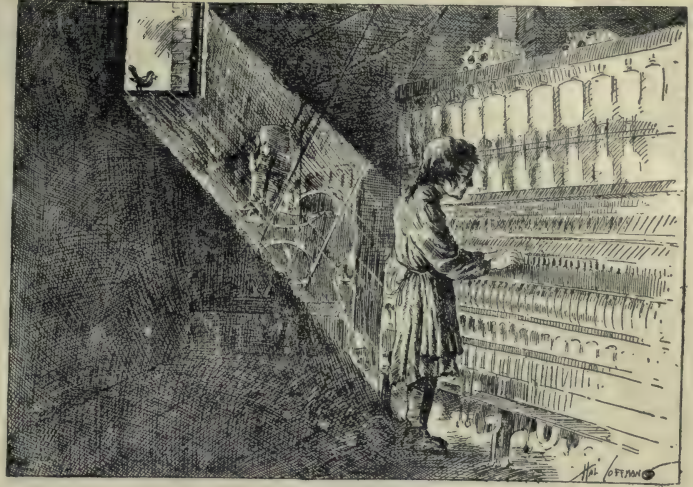
The bill also provides for an appropriation of \$75,000 for the establishment of a bureau in Chicago for these purposes.

The movement to secure this legislation has for several years been pushed by the league as one of its important pieces of work. It is urged that such a measure would provide effective governmental handling of work which the league and other private organizations can at best do only inadequately. In urging the desired legislation, the league has recently had the co-operation of the Commercial Club of Chicago.

Under the present system responsibility seems to be ended as soon as an immigrant is placed on a train. This often leads to exploitation *en route* or upon arrival at cities in the interior. It frequently involves special menace to girls who may be approached by persons on the train, are sometimes put off at wrong stations by careless officials, are entrusted upon arrival to expressmen who overcharge and deliver them at wrong ad-

dresses. Thus, it is contended that it is practically impossible to trace an immigrant who has left New York and has never arrived at his intended destination in Chicago. Through co-operative relations with immigrant stations at ports of arrival the league has been able to a considerable degree to check up the arrival of those expected in Chicago, and through a special arrangement all who come in at the Dearborn street station—where more than three times as many immigrants arrive as at any other station in Chicago—are sent directly across the street to the bureau maintained by the league. After their names and addresses, the number of the cabman, expressman or messenger boy to whom they are entrusted, and the charge which is to be made are carefully recorded they are sent to their relatives or friends. The Young Men's Christian Association is adopting similar methods, with special attention to young men immigrants, and Young Men's Christian Association officials have been placed at European embarking points.

Illinois' yearly increase in population is due more to immigration than is true of any other state except New York and Pennsylvania. In addition to the 25,000 who come to Chicago annually, approximately 50,000 pass through the city, usually transferring from one train to another. Chicago is therefore thought to be the logical place for the establishment of the first federal protective bureau if the pending bill becomes a law, and it is for this reason that the bill carries a special appropriation for a Chicago bureau. If the plan should reduce the moral exploitation of immigrant women and the financial exploitation of both



—Hal Coffman in N. Y. Evening Journal
THE CALL OF SPRING

men and women, similar bureaus may be established in other interior cities. The head tax on immigrants last year amounted to \$3,655,000 odd, while total expenses were \$2,644,000, leaving an unexpended balance of over a million dollars which friends of the measure believe should be drawn on for the benefit of the immigrant.

CIVIL SERVICE AND FIRE PREVENTION

Both state and municipal agencies were set going by the New York legislature of 1911, as a result of the Triangle fire, which snuffed out the lives of 142 workers. The meager results accomplished to date by the State Factory Investigating Commission were reviewed in THE SURVEY of May 11. A bureau of fire prevention was established in the New York city fire department, charged with responsibilities for inspection and supervision of the most expert and vigorous sort.

The Civil Service Reform Association charges that the fire commissioner instead of trying to pick men equipped for this new work has schemed to break the spirit at least of the civil service law. Of eighty-nine persons appointed to temporary positions in the fire prevention

bureau, seventy were found to be enrolled as democrats, four as republicans, one as a member of the Independence League while the enrollment of fourteen could not be ascertained. Among the seventy democrats appointed, all but one of the fifty-five assembly districts in Brooklyn, Manhattan, Bronx, and Richmond were represented,—on the face of it, a far flung distribution of spoils rather than a sifting out of qualified men. There were none, republican or democratic, chosen from the four assembly districts in the Borough of Queens.

The appointments of the four republicans, according to the Civil Service Reform Association, are

apparently equally as political as the appointment of democrats. Each of the four is from a district represented by an alderman who is a member of the aldermanic finance committee, or the committee on public letting, or the committee on salaries and offices. The majority of the Board of Aldermen is fusion or anti-Tammany and upon these committees in particular the department is dependent for additional appropriations and supplies.

Aside from questioning the political aspects of these appointments, it is pointed out that twenty-eight received the bare passing mark of 70 and only two were graded as high as 85. The average percentage for all is below 75.

It is further stated that

William J. McKeon, who has been appointed chief examiner at a salary of \$2,500, was discharged after a hearing on March 12, 1910, from the position of inspector of carpentry and masonry, Bureau of Buildings, Borough of Manhattan, for dismissing a violation against certain premises on 206 street, thus allowing the erection of a frame structure prohibited by sections 143 and 144 of the building code, and that the fire commissioner had been informed of this fact.

To this force of inspectors is to be given power to order changes in buildings, installation of fire-escapes and fire safety devices and to require buildings to be vacated or condemned and removed. The evidence presented regarding the nature of the appointment has, the Civil Service Reform Association says, "an extremely sinister significance."

The temporary appointees who will have had from two to three months of service before the final examinations take place will necessarily have, it is pointed

out, a great advantage over competitors.

In his answer to the letter from the Civil Service Reform Association calling attention to these facts, Mayor Gaynor said:

You called my attention to the fact that one of the appointees was dismissed for misconduct in the Building Department of Manhattan. That is a serious matter which I will have attended to forthwith.

The mayor stated that nothing was said by him in reference to the fact brought out that the men appointed have very low ratings.

SEATTLE AND HER CHARTER CHANGES

The Seattle municipal election threw some light on the question of how far various civic and social proposals have gained a hearing and found favor among the rank and file of the people. Here was a city legislating for itself *en masse*—one in which the present movements for political democracy had already carried. It will be remembered that of the twenty-seven amendments to the charter, thirteen were adopted. The results were no doubt affected by the fact that at the same election they voted also for city officials (the contest for mayor being exceptionally engrossing), for seven propositions, and eight items for the development of the harbor, in anticipation of the opening of the Panama canal.

The returns revealed first of all that about one-third of the voters declined to vote on the amendments, the ballots being long, the time for discussion short, and the press not being ambitious to convey accurate information to the public.

Among the amendments which failed to carry were single tax, and the creation of a municipal public welfare department. The people voted down the proposal to have a municipal newspaper, as well as the one to make saloon licenses subject to the referendum, and refused to approve of the preferential method of voting. To the regret of many progressive citizens, the Civic Plans Commission's report, called the Bogue Plans, was rejected. Many who approved of the plans as such, declined to favor their being made "mandatory."

On the other hand, the people voted, two to one, to own and operate a municipal telephone, and voted bonds, two to one, for a tuberculosis hospital. They also declined, two to one, to take away the mayor's veto power. They voted, three to one, that the minimum wage paid by the city should be \$2.75, and that city work should be done on a days-wage scale. The city's power to acquire and operate public utilities was also enlarged.

The people, in the forming of their opinions, relied very little upon the press, but rather upon the civic center meetings in school houses, upon brotherhoods and clubs. The recommendations of the Municipal League found favor. The vote of the women, which was equal perhaps to that of the men, is regarded as having been intelligent and discriminating.

A PEOPLE'S FORUM IN A SOCIAL CENTER

What has been described as the only attempt so far in Spokane, Wash., to use public buildings as permanent social centers, but what is in addition a people's forum for the discussion of social problems, is taking on new life.

For several years, writes a correspondent,

a few disciples of Henry George and Karl Marx maintained what was called the Spokane Economic Club. They tried to keep an open platform for the discussion of social and economic questions. The general public was invited to take part in the discussions; but only that part of the people composed of what is called the lower classes, and a few radicals from the "upper" classes, could be induced to attend. Also, the time (Sunday afternoon) and the place (a cheap down-town hall) caused many to refuse to patronize the club.

Strong and sometimes abusive language was used by extemporaneous speakers when questions were thrown open to the audience. Discouraged, some of the club's main supporters withdrew, and would promise no help unless the right to speak were limited to those invited to participate. Others insisted that "free speech" was the one thing that must be guaranteed. So, with a change of name to the Social Science Club, and with the adoption of the rule that only members paying dues be allowed a voice in electing officers and in the management of

the club, the club has been continued, and now in its seventh year is accepted as one of the educational institutions of the city.

Its announced purpose is to

awaken interest in, and to encourage discussion of, the live questions of today. In these discussions we try to promote courtesy, tolerance, and accuracy in expression.

It invites consideration of industrial, economic, social and religious problems.

The persons most cordially invited, if any distinction need be made, are those who, while never quite satisfied with things as they are, are hoping and working for better things—people who concede that the truth may not all have been learned yet, and who are disposed to consider with patience and open mind all the evidence and argument that is pertinent to a question. Of course, those who are "unalterably opposed" to any change in existing institutions and conditions, and whose opinions are fixed, will get little benefit from these open discussions.

Encouragement and help come from many leading citizens, from municipal and county officials, school and college instructors, labor leaders, and from the professions of law and medicine and from the ministry. One cause of the success of the club is that for more than a year it has been meeting every Sunday in the assembly hall of the public library, where women as well as men come and feel "at home."

A NEW JERSEY WEAVER, A BUDGET AND A GOSPEL OF REVOLUTION

In the course of the last three months the impulse that started in Lawrence has spread not only throughout the textile mills of New England but to those of New Jersey. The Paterson silk weavers¹ were the first of the New Jersey strikers, but they have been followed by strikes in the Hoboken, Hackensack, Passaic, and Garfield mills. The majority of the workers in all these mills have been organized in the Detroit I. W. W.,² although at Passaic, Haywood and other leaders of the Chicago I. W. W. came into the strike zone, and there were clashes between the two groups of revolutionary labor organizers.

The New Jersey strikes have not been industrial in the sense that the workers

¹See THE SURVEY, March 16, 1912, p. 1932.

²See THE SURVEY, May 4, 1912, p. 220.

in all processes have come out, as often the weaving rooms alone struck. They have also been characterized by an ebb and flow in and out of the mills from day to day, so that there has been an absence of that solidarity of action which stamped the Lawrence struggle. For this reason the strength of the movement has not been easy to estimate. Similarly, demands have not been formulated with uniformity. Taking them altogether they have centered around wages, with the concomitants of overtime pay, the abolition of fines, piece payment, and the bonus system. In times of strike, especially when the vast majority of the strikers, as in these cases, are non-English-speaking Slavs, and the method of pay is by the piece, wages are hard to estimate. A handful of pay envelopes marked low means no more than a superintendent's general statement, unsubstantiated by inspection of his books for a reasonable period of time, that his lowest pay for women is \$4.50 and for men \$7.50. In this aspect the strikes have perhaps lent impetus to the feeling that dependable wage figures should be on record in the state bureaus of labor as a basis for intelligent public opinion.

In the absence of such data, a very human document was brought out at a hearing before the New Jersey state immigration commissioner. This was an account book of a methodical German weaver in a Passaic woolen mill. It illustrates the soil in which the revolutionary labor movement takes root and which the sanctioned institutions of society, in more than this solitary instance, have failed to conserve. The number of months in all seasons of the year covered by this German home-maker's figures lent more than casual interest to them. The man is forty-five years old, a weaver of twenty-seven years' experience and his expertness as a workman is, it was said, shown by the fact that he had seldom or never been fined for flaws in his work—one of the grievances most keenly felt by the majority of the strikers. The record shows a total income of \$347.40 for nine months. By adding March, which is said to be busy in these mills, and April and May, which are average months, the reader may get some idea

NINE MONTHS' EARNINGS OF ONE PASSAIC WEAVER

DATE	HOURS	WAGE
1911-12		
June 6.....	55	\$13.75
" 12.....	55	6.65
" 19.....	55	10.55
" 26.....	55	
Total June.....		\$30.95
July 5.....	40	\$6.00
" 10.....	30	6.00
" 17.....	40	
" 24.....	40	10.40
" 31.....	40	4.70
Total July.....		\$27.10
Aug. 7.....	45	\$7.20
" 14.....	55	10.20
" 21.....	55	7.40
" 28.....	55	9.00
Total August.....		\$33.80
Sept. 5.....	55	\$9.00
" 12.....	55	9.90
" 18.....	55	4.80
" 25.....	55	4.30
Total September.....		\$28.00
Oct. 2.....	55	\$15.90
" 9.....	55	7.20
" 16.....	55	10.55
" 23.....	55	10.60
" 30.....	55	11.70
Total October.....		\$55.95
Nov. 6.....	55	\$11.70
" 13.....	55	9.
" 20.....	55	2.75
" 27.....	55	5.12
Premium (six months).....		2.80
Total November.....		\$31.37
Dec. 4.....	65	\$14.25
" 11.....	65	8.05
" 18.....	65	12.85
" 26.....	65	11.50
Total December.....		\$46.65
Jan. 2.....	65	\$11.50
" 8.....	55	9.55
" 15.....	65	7.20
" 22.....	65	10.60
" 29.....	65	7.40
Total January.....		\$46.25
Feb. 5.....	68	\$15.90
" 12.....	68	14.15
" 18.....	68	5.00
" 25.....	68	5.09
March 1.....	—	7.19
Total February.....		\$47.33
Total for nine months.....		\$347.40

of the annual income on which this father of thirteen, three now "under the ground," three now old enough to work, could count from his own efforts in bringing up his family. By adding as much as he earned in the three highest of the nine preceding months, that yearly total would still be under \$500.

The record reveals much else, good and bad, besides this blighting total. In the first place it shows the seasons. Except in bad years the woolen trade is said to have no period of shut down. But July and August are slack months and the short hours worked flattened out his pay envelopes for weeks at a time. The winter is busy and his record shows from sixty-five to sixty-eight hours a week; that is, at the height of the season, running into eleven-hour work days in heavy contrast to the summer's slack. A premium system for turning out more than a certain number of yards a week brought this experienced weaver \$2.80 in the six months ending in November. On the other hand should be noted the quandary which the system of payment occasionally thrust on his household. Settlement and charity organization workers know that there is nothing that works toward demoralization in a family like an unsteady income—up and down. No pay at all was received by this weaver for the weeks of June 12 (fifty-five hours' work) and July 17 (forty hours' work). His explanation was that some wool is bad and requires constant mending, keeping the output low, that pay is strictly based on the number of yards turned out, and that no payment is made until a certain quantity is on hand. It will be noticed that although this weaver averaged nine hours a day throughout the fortnight, he had a no-pay week June 12 and this was followed by a low pay week June 19. That is, after two weeks' work amounting to one hundred and ten hours at the looms, with practically no fines for flaws, a weaver of twenty-seven years' experience, took home \$6.65. The two weeks ending February 18 and 25, 136 hours in all, brought in \$10.09.

EDITORIAL GRIST

REFUSING TO MARRY THE UNFIT

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

The hearty and general approval which has greeted the announcement by Dean Walter T. Sumner of Chicago that certificates of health, signed by rep-

utable physicians, will be required before marriages are performed at the Cathedral of SS. Peter and Paul indicates the readiness of public sentiment to deal in a common sense way with this vital matter. Dean Sumner spoke for himself and his co-workers. The step was taken after months of deliberation, and had the approval of Bishop Charles P. Anderson of Chicago.

The terrible consequences of marriage by the unfit were pointed out forcefully by Dean Sumner in explaining the new regulation, and his announcement has had the effect of a challenge to the church generally to do something so that "there shall not be left in the wake of married life sterility, insanity, paralysis, blinded eyes of little babes, twisted limbs of deformed children, physical rot, and mental decay." He calls attention to the enormous problem of public care of abnormal people, and points, moreover, to marital misery in numberless homes among even the more intelligent and well-to-do people. His statement has back of it the weight of his experience as chairman of the Vice Commission of Chicago. To require a certificate by a reputable physician that applicants for marriage are normal physically and mentally and have neither an incurable nor communicable disease is in Dean Sumner's estimation the plain duty of the church, not only to the present generation but to innocent children to come.

It has, of course, been pointed out that the step taken by Dean Sumner will tend to affect only a small number of the hundreds of marriages performed in Chicago alone. Indeed, those who doubt the advisability of the measure say that it will in no degree diminish the number of marriages by the unfit, since any of these who might have contemplated applying to the cathedral may turn to any one of the hundreds of ministers who ask no questions with respect to health. But the stand taken by the Cathedral of SS. Peter and Paul cannot fail to make a distinct impression upon all who contemplate matrimony. It calls attention to the need of caution and common sense. If widely followed its effect can scarcely fail to reach far

beyond the marriages performed by those who adopt it. The example will increasingly arouse the state to its duties; and this may lead to appropriate legislation. If a man desires to secure a license to push a cart or sell shoe-strings and buttons, he must be accompanied by a reputable citizen to vouch for his responsibility. But if he desires to get married he passes his name through the window of the clerk's office, with the name of an equally unknown female, and the two are allowed to marry and propagate their kind.

The necessity of some initiative of the sort taken by Dean Sumner, in order to start the movement for legislation is pointed out by the dean in his comments on the views of those who, after approaching the matter superficially, have urged that the state and not the church should lead in such action:

Those who have had experience in obtaining legislation knew full well that none is ever forthcoming before public opinion is aroused to demand it and that all laws on the statute books not backed up by public opinion are dead letters.

All reforms have sprung from agitation by groups of individuals or from organizations or from the church, the last being largely responsible for the progressive legislation in the matter of divorce.

Our aim, therefore, in taking the action we have at the cathedral is to arouse, first, parents to guard the health and the physical and moral integrity of their children in their new home life, and, second, to arouse the public that it is time for the state to take action looking to some sort of sane and carefully considered legislation on the matter.

The cathedral has taken its stand and will maintain it. It is our hope that other clergy will be encouraged to take a similar one and that medical and prophylactic societies and other organizations aimed for the uplift of humanity will co-operate with the aid of a sympathetic and progressive press in crystallizing public opinion and in sharpening the public conscience in the matter.

Dean Sumner has received hundreds of letters, many of them from clergymen, and not a few from authorities high in the medical profession, commending his action. A few ministers have announced their disapproval. One declared that the idea would rob marriage of much of its romance and spiritual significance. He asked, "Would you let a doctor examine you

or your sweetheart as cattle are examined before they breed?" and announced that if any one is refused the sacrament of marriage because a physician does not approve, "Let him come to me and I will marry him." But the clergy of Chicago have in general spoken in high approval of the plan. It has already been discussed at some of the ministers' meetings. The press and prominent citizens almost without exception hail the measure as a great step in advance.

LAW MAKING BY LANDSMEN FOR SEAMEN

GEORGE McPHERSON HUNTER

All the world has been startled into an interest in ships, seamen, and the safety of human lives at sea. The traveling public had been narcotized into the belief that great ships capable of carrying the population of a small city were unsinkable, that life-boats, rafts, and salvage appliances were no longer necessary—for the sea had been tamed and all the hazards of the deep removed. We know better now.

In their hour of distress, when the survivors of the Titanic gathered themselves together on the Carpathia, they passed some resolutions in which they said:

We feel it our duty to call the attention of the public to what we consider the inadequate supply of life-saving appliances provided for on modern passenger steamships, and recommend that immediate steps be taken to compel passenger steamers to carry sufficient boats to accommodate the maximum number of people carried on board. The following facts were observed and should be considered in this connection:

The insufficiency of life-boats, rafts, etc.; lack of trained seamen to man same—stokers, stewards, etc., are not efficient boat handlers; not enough officers to carry out emergency orders on the bridge to superintend the launching and control of life-boats; absence of searchlights.

It is very evident from the reports of passengers and from the life-saving provisions on the American and foreign Atlantic and Pacific coast steamers that few, if any, passenger ships carry sufficient boats to save one-half of the souls on board. Since this ocean disaster the Chicago *Record-Herald* requested and

secured from the local department of steamboat inspection, information as to conditions on the great lakes. On this information they base the statement that

not a single large excursion steamer of all the fleet that left Chicago daily last summer for trips upon Lake Michigan carried upon its decks enough life-boats and rafts to care for its human freightage in case of a disaster.

Of all the passenger vessels, as distinguished from the excursion steamers, that left this port, only about one-half carried life-boats and rafts in sufficient number to take care of the maximum passenger list allowed by the government on a basis of deck and sleeping room.

The *Spectator* (London, England) commenting on the loss of the Titanic, says:

The truth is that every day passenger ships put to sea with the assumption that disaster will not happen. Far too much is taken for granted. The whole subject ought now to be thrashed out and the proper provision of boats or rafts insisted on for ships of whatever size they may be.

The Wilson bill before the House of Representatives deals with important phases of ship life, and the problems of seamen have been stated before the committee on the merchant marine and fisheries. The bill has three main objects: first, to improve the condition of sea life so that American boys will go to sea and remain there; second, to provide more and better means on board ships for the saving of life; third, the provision of a language test so that seamen will understand the language of the ship's officers in command of the watch.

The question of sufficient boats will likely be settled by law, but we should remember the law of every country except France is that life-boats are apportioned according to the tonnage of the vessel and not in proportion to the number of passengers carried. Provision should be made at once so that every person on a ship should have some seat in a boat or place on a raft if the vessel he is in should sink. The Alexander bill, which was favorably reported to the house on May 2, and will be a composite of several bills, provides that enough life-boats must be carried by steamers entering or clearing American ports to accommodate at one time every passen-

ger and member of the crew licensed to be carried on the vessel, and that steamboat inspectors shall be allowed no discretion whatever in the matter. Furthermore there must be radio communication on all vessels carrying fifty or more. The instruments must have a radius of 100 miles, with two operators on all vessels.

To provide sufficient boats to carry passengers is not enough. Boats imply competent men to handle them. The Wilson bill provides the following proportion of able seamen in its deck crew: 40 per cent the first year after the passage of the bill, 45 per cent the second year, 50 per cent the third year, 55 per cent the fourth year and 65 per cent thereafter. An able seaman according to English law is a man with three years' experience at sea. In America, the present law provides four years' apprenticeship for a sailor. While writing this editorial I called three of the Titanic survivors before me—able seamen, two of them training ship men, all of them men who had served in sailing vessels where seamanship is taught, is practised and is necessary. In reply to my question: "How long would it take to learn the duties you performed on the Titanic, including the boat service?" the reply was, "Six months." The answer settled nothing. For the qualities of coolness, promptness, obedience, courage, and the physical strength and endurance these men showed in a great emergency, had behind them years of sea habits. And it must not be forgotten that the hazards of the sea remain, and emergencies do occur with tragic frequency. In ship construction, preparation is made for the greatest, not the normal strain; consequently in manning and life preservation, preparation should be made for the greatest disaster that can befall a ship; namely foundering at sea, and not for the normal conditions of sea life.

Section 2 deals with the sanitary conditions on shipboard, and seeks to make sea life attractive for the American boy? Can sea life be made attractive by legislation? Men go to sea because of its lure. Instinct and compulsion have something to do with their becoming seamen. Romance has encircled ships and

sea life with a halo, and it is like a cold douche for men to face their actualities.

Sea life, interesting though it be, is not a comfortable life. Under the best conditions it is abnormal. The American boy is not going to sea in great numbers because shore life offers more attractions. To improve ship life to induce men to go to sea is an unfortunate and questionable method. Provision should be made for baths and toilets where men are not exposed to wind and weather, mess rooms should be apart from sleeping rooms, clothes' lockers should be provided where firemen can hang their clothes when off watch, watches should not be of more than four hours' duration, seamen should have good working and living conditions. The request of the bill that "every place appropriated to the crew of the vessel shall have a space of not less than one hundred cubic feet and not less than sixteen square feet measured on the floor or deck for each seaman" is not unreasonable. France, England, and Germany provide 120 cubic feet of space per man in the forecabin. America can surely do as much as European nations.

Section 13. *"No vessel shall depart from any port of the U. S. unless she shall have in her service and on board a crew 75 per cent of whom . . . shall be able to understand any lawful order given by the officers of the vessel."*

This clause is in harmony with the English Shipping Act, 1906, and is popularly known as the language test, and opens up the question of the employment of Asiatics, particularly Chinese, on merchant vessels. In fair weather and for ordinary working conditions, any ship's officer would prefer Chinese; they are docile, and render an automatic obedience, never drink, rarely growl and have other qualities that make them desirable seamen. But in emergencies the average officer on deck or in the engine room would wish that by some magical process the Asiatics could all be metamorphosed into Anglo-Saxons. The unexpected always happens at sea,—we have had an appalling illustration of this recently—and in an emergency the crew should understand the language of the officers. We are not convinced that a language

test by a federal inspector is the final remedy for this difficulty. For the vocabulary required to handle a ship's crew is exceedingly limited and easily acquired, and a good seaman of any nationality might be rejected when for practical purposes his English was sufficient.

The proposed amendment (sec. 4516 of the Revised Statutes of the United States) dealing with the abolition of unnecessary work on Sundays or legal holidays when the vessel is in a safe harbor, opens the question of what constitutes a safe harbor. The writer has seen three ships driven ashore in what was considered a safe harbor. The increasing amount of Sunday labor loading and unloading on steamers not in American ports, however, but in far Eastern and South American ports, undoubtedly calls for some drastic check on Sunday labor.

Section 10 touches the question of the advances given to seamen on wages or allotment notes. The language of the section is ambiguous and we hope it means the total abolition of the allotment note, an instrument that has nothing in its favor. When these notes were abolished on the American coastwise trade, desertions dropped from 4 to 1½ per cent, and the moral tone of the men rose considerably. As far as we know, there is no desire for their re-establishment. The desire to abolish imprisonment for desertion, we think a perfectly reasonable one. We are living in the twentieth century, and to arrest a seaman in a foreign country because he deserts a ship jars on the best feelings of right thinking men.

When a sailor deserts from a ship he certainly breaks his legal contract with the owner. But when it is considered that the shipowner is the sailor's employer, landlord, caterer, doctor when sick, and several other things, many situations may arise to produce irritation and cause the sailor to desert.

Section 15 which provides for the repeal of such treaties with foreign nations as "provide for the arrest, imprisonment, and delivering up to the vessel from which he has deserted any merchant seaman" is humanitarian legislation.



THE HILLSIDE OF OFEN AT BUDAPEST.

This shows an interesting treatment of a slope crowned by a public building.

CIVICS

SOCIAL WORK OF NEW YORK SCHOOLS

JOHN MARTIN

MEMBER BOARD OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK CITY

With all modesty it may be asserted that New York city continues to lead the continent, and probably the world, in the social use of the buildings, grounds, and staff of the school system. So extensive are the activities of the Board of Education outside of purely educational work, so generous is the expenditure on recreation, music, dancing, concerts, lectures and the like, that few citizens, even in New York itself, realize what a wide and well-managed social work is conducted regularly in the school buildings at public expense. Not infrequently, when some smaller city imitates one or two of New York's multiform and well-established school activities,—recreation centers, evening lectures for adults, mixed dances or the like—the experiment is proclaimed throughout the land as a brand new, daringly original feat, a signal discovery of a socialist mayor or of a wonderfully efficient commission government.

In the winter season just closed the recreation centers of greater New York have been attended nightly, six times a week, from October to May, by over 17,500 people. Some

650 clubs—athletic, literary, social, musical, civic, dramatic, dancing, and parental—each with its regular organization, have found in these centers, a comfortable home, teachers to advise and help, and facilities of all sorts. Boys and girls have played parlor games, practised gymnastics under trained instructors, and competed for basket-ball trophies. Those of a more intellectual turn have attended literary clubs, where readings, recitations, essays, and debates on current topics have filled the evening. Forty-one centers included classes in vocal and instrumental music in which forty or fifty youths and maidens, under the guidance of a competent pianist, have sung such old and popular airs as Way Down upon the Suwanee River and The Star-spangled Banner. Often, to vary the proceedings, some budding Caruso or Sembrich would come forward with characteristic musicianly diffidence to warble a solo. Other evenings a cornet or a violin in deft hands would make the rafters ring. A few years of such training will doubtless make the citizens of New York as musical as those of any German

city and open new avenues of enjoyment to thousands.

While social workers have been lamenting the vicious influence of dancing halls, the Board of Education has deprived these resorts of many prospective customers by conducting, at fifteen centers, mixed dancing classes under proper chaperonage. The board furnished piano music and often the clubs themselves added to the gaiety by bringing cornets and violins. Good music with jolly and modest dances was encouraged. Little effort was necessary to bar the grizzly bear, the turkey trot and the other indecencies which have invaded high society.

Boy scouts have held regular meetings for drill and organization under the patronage of the Board of Education to which no scheme for the physical or moral uplift of youngsters or their parents seems to come amiss. Still looking for new ways to be of service the board recently granted the use of a school building to a special committee which has undertaken to organize neighborhood activities and to correlate the lectures, the peoples' forums, the musical evenings, the clubs, and the classes. It expects to demonstrate how neighbors of all ages and tastes may be accommodated in the school building to still further advantage.

Under the will of the late Joseph Pulitzer money was left to supply concerts of the highest quality, free of charge, to the masses. The Board of Education gladly co-operated by granting the use of the assembly halls and organs in the high schools. Consequently a series of orchestral and vocal performances, not unfit to be classed with the Philharmonic concerts, has been given in many sections of the city to very large audiences.

Even the moving-picture theaters have not gone unchallenged. In co-operation with a committee of the People's Institute, a series of educational moving-picture exhibitions was shown to great crowds of spectators. Though the somewhat overzealous interference of the fire department, which objected to the form of protection provided for the lanterns, stopped this work temporarily, no doubt it will be resumed. After a trial of Sunday evening concerts and lectures under the management of a voluntary committee, the free use of some high school assembly halls was recently granted for two series of meetings, which promise to be as useful to the non-

church-goers as the gatherings which have made Cooper Union famous. A new departure has been made by allowing a collection to be taken towards defraying expenses. This clears the audience of the sense of being pauperized, and, by reducing the cost of the performances, renders extension of the work more easy.

Apart from the recreation centers the public lecture system continues to flourish. About a million adults have attended the illustrated lectures in science, civics, history, travel, music, art, and literature. All were given by competent lecturers, who were bound to hold their audiences by the interest and force of their remarks, since, unlike college students, the listeners were free to show their displeasure with poor work by quietly withdrawing or by staying away.

Funds have been provided for continuing, though not for enlarging, during the coming summer, the social activities in the vacation, evening roof, and open-air playgrounds for children and mothers and babies, which last year were conspicuously successful and extensive. In 1911 no fewer than 832 teachers were employed in aiding 125,500 daily visitors at these various play centers to amuse themselves rationally and healthfully—a regiment of school soldiers of the common good which no other city could duplicate. Swings, seesaws, and other apparatus were so vigorously used that it is doubtful whether they will last through another season. Mothers and babies sought the quiet and shade of their special playgrounds. On the roof playgrounds bands of musicians played for promenaders and girl dancers. Gymnasts, baseball and basket ball players, and folk dancers practised for tournaments or simply played for the fun of playing. Nobody can measure the good which the 248 playgrounds did for the hundreds of thousands who made up the aggregate attendance of 5,955,160.

Altogether, the tale of the social uses of the New York schools is encouraging and creditable. Much remains to be done, which the Board of Education is eager to do as soon as the keepers of Father Knickerbocker's purse will permit; but enough has been accomplished to prove the beneficence and wisdom of utilizing to the full the buildings, the organization, and the teaching skill of the school system for social enjoyment and elevation.

SOCIAL CENTER MOVEMENT IN: OKLAHOMA

A. GRANT EVANS

Oklahoma is feeling its way toward the better organization of its social and civic activities: It is conscious of the present trend of affairs and is coming to look upon the public school organization as the nucleus about which such work must develop.

The state's system of public schools has had a phenomenal growth. Within the past four years hundreds of splendid modern buildings have been built, and in most of these public auditorium provision has been made. In Oklahoma City, with a magnificent \$300,000 high school building, there is not only a large and beautiful auditorium, but the gymnasium and other rooms of the building are in practical use almost every night for some kind of community service. In schools in quite small towns and in consolidated district rural schools, one is constantly surprised to find what liberal and convenient provision has been made for public meetings. There is practically unanimity in the matter of the desirability of such use.

As to the purpose for which the buildings shall be employed, there is considerable diversity of opinion. Parents' meetings attended mostly by mothers are common in both city and country schools. The endeavor is to combine in them practical discussion of problems which parents and teachers should co-operate in solving, exhibitions of pupils' work and entertainment. In some places local conferences of charities and correction hold frequent meetings in the school buildings for the discussion of sociological questions. School entertainments and inter-scholastic debates and oratorical competitions perhaps succeed in gathering the most representative assemblies in the rural schools. In the smaller towns the schools have taken up the matter of arranging lyceum courses, and in a few districts have also conducted summer chautauquas.

One young and ardent teacher has given a splendid illustration of what can be done with nothing more than persistence and determination. Eric L. Castile, teacher in a country school in Cleveland county, began arranging as best he could to get able volunteer speakers for his own school. Gradually he enlarged his sphere of action until during the present season he has managed to place at least one lecture or entertainment in every rural



ERIC L. CASTILE.

school in the county. Many schools have had lyceum courses of from two to six numbers. As many as twelve meetings of this kind have been held on one night in the county. All the speakers have given their services freely, while Cleveland county is fortunate in being the seat of the state university and so can readily secure the assistance of professors and advanced students, a great part of the help has come from professional and business men having no connection with any institution of learning.

The great problem for the rural centers is to develop the talent within the state for this helpful work, to provide some agency by which such talent, as it becomes available, can be helped to make connections with the places where it is most needed. In the hope of solving these problems a state social center association has been organized.

The work in the larger towns and cities is almost equally in need of systematizing. School boards are as a rule very ready to extend every facility subject to their control for civic betterment work. In several towns the leaders of the Boys' Organization movement are being given the use of the schoolhouse and its gymnasium outside of school hours. In Oklahoma City the Boys' Organization has regular classes in the high school gymnasium, which has been open about four nights each week for public work.

Oklahoma is awake to the need of community organization and through systematic social center development is setting out earnestly to secure it.

A FEDERAL LEGISLATIVE REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

CHARLES McCARTHY
Wisconsin Legislative Reference Library

A house bill to establish as part of the Congressional Library a national legislative reference department appealed so strongly to James Bryce as a scholar and thinker that he broke a diplomatic precedent by appearing in favor of the proposed law. This measure introduced by Representative John M. Nelson of Wisconsin will probably become a law either at this session of congress or at the next. The bill provides for a department on the model of the Wisconsin bureau and for an appropriation of \$150,000 a year. Besides Ambassador Bryce, Speaker Clark also appeared for the bill as did Minority Leader Mann and scholars and thinkers from all over the country.

The necessity for a Central Department of Comparative Law to gather carefully the data, which will be of use in the drafting of some of our new legislation, is appreciated by all social workers. Much of this service, of course, is done by the department but there are large fields of work for which no branch of the government is responsible. Legislative drafting, that is, dealing with the expedients which are put into statutes for their enforcement, is a technical subject. Help in drafting legislation regarding subjects within uncovered fields can only be obtained by following the example of Wisconsin. In that state when the workmen's compensation act was first thought of, there was no department which would look up the matter as it was entirely foreign to our law.

The French government has recently recognized the close inter-relation between the law of the different countries by establishing a great official bureau of comparative legislation. Bill drafting bureaus to go with such departments are common under the British government. In America this is particularly needed. Our thousands and thousands of decisions upon all kinds of laws have made it increasingly difficult to get around the technicalities built up by legal precedent so that it is hard indeed not only to adapt the economic legislation of foreign countries to this country, but also for the layman to draft any bill of merit which will stand up at all in the courts. There is no disagreement as to the necessity for making our statute law better and a department with skilled men, such as the department in Wisconsin, certainly can meet no objection from real thinkers today. Such a department also would be a great protection to our courts, as the courts will have to pass upon matter which is in far better technical shape than they do now.

The bill is of great interest to social workers especially, because of the many difficulties met by them in adapting perfectly obvious betterment plans to our constitutional provisions. The help of skilled, experienced, and competent draftsmen cannot but be of

great service to those who are working along this line. Indeed it does seem that we should have just as great skill in the drafting of legislation as we have in the interpretation of it. If the statutes produced by our representative bodies are noble, clear and strong, then certainly the courts will have less work to do and certainly the will of the people will be represented more clearly and respect for our representative bodies will grow.

JOTTINGS

TREE STUDY FOR CHILDREN

Forestry in Nature Study is the title of an attractively illustrated pamphlet issued by the Department of Agriculture. Its purpose is to suggest exactly what tree studies, exercises, and supplementary readings may be used each term in the first six years of the elementary schools to promote interest, in forestry, and, further, to make these lessons progressive and logical, so that the work may not be fragmentary and unprofitable. The idea is to make school children know and love trees, understand their needs, comprehend their relations to life, and appreciate in the forest something of the beauty, majesty, and wonder of the great growth about them. The pamphlet is a worthy addition to the valuable series which the department has been issuing on nature study. They form a course of instruction for children which is of particular interest to civic improvement workers.

SOCIAL CENTERS IN MILWAUKEE

The Milwaukee Board of School Directors, recognizing that recreational activities are important and need to be directed and supervised, made arrangements for the services of Rowland Haynes, field secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association of America, for various times during the year. He was employed especially for the opening of the social centers this spring and for the fall when social center work is to be resumed. As resident supervisor of recreational activities, the board named Harold O. Berg, formerly principal of the Fifth District School No. 1.

As a prelude Mr. Haynes made a comprehensive survey before the first social center in a school building was established. It is intended, in order that no mistakes may be made, to open the centers slowly at first and afterwards follow these in rapid succession by others. The plan is to favor first communities or neighborhoods which are most congested and where the means of unobjectionable enjoyment are at the lowest ebb.

Among the features for the different social centers are a reading room and study room with books from the city library for reference or to be taken out, a room for amusements and quiet games, a room for active games, gymnasium classes, and in some cases dancing. Clubs are also to be formed for boys, girls, young men, young women, and possibly

for older persons. Later in the season in the school grounds, city parks, and in vacant lots, outdoor activities will be organized.

"BETTER BINGHAMPTON"

Since the publication of Charles Mulford Robinson's *Better Binghamton*, a city plan committee has been organized, consisting of William F. Seward, head of the Binghamton Public Library; Mayor John J. Irving; C. A. Wilber, corporation counsel; John A. Giles, city engineer; Lee C. Davenport and Robert E. Rose. This committee will largely control the destiny of the Binghamton plan. Although the city is under obligations to spend a large sum for a new high school and a sewage disposal plant, with a consequent increase of its bonded indebtedness, the recommendations in *Better Binghamton* are already beginning to result in action.

A boulevard lighting system is expected to be in operation within a month on one of the principal streets. In his message to the common council, the mayor emphasizes at length the need of spending more money for good paving in Binghamton. Both of these subjects were features in *Better Binghamton*.

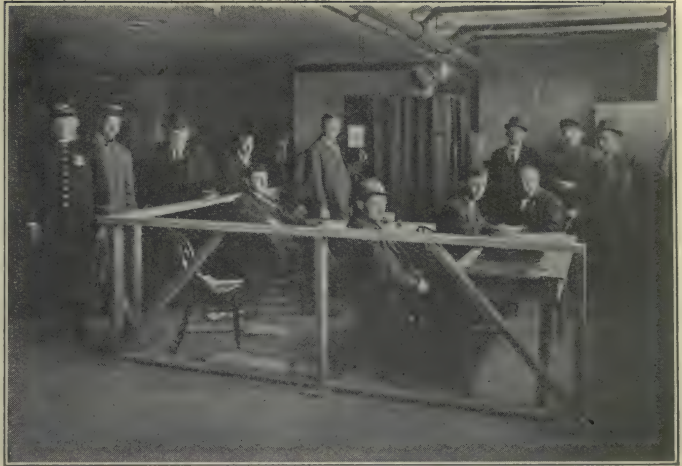
VOTING IN SCHOOLHOUSES IN MILWAUKEE

In the winter of 1910-11, when the schoolhouses in Milwaukee began to be used as political headquarters for deliberation upon public questions, the proposal was made that the schoolhouses should also be used as the community political headquarters for decision, that is as polling places.

The demonstration of one year that citizens could use these buildings for free discussion of political questions without injury to the property as well as the economy of using convenient existing buildings rather than putting up special polling places, caused the administration to favor this proposal. Upon the suggestion of the Board of Education the matter was referred to the principals of the different schools in order to learn their judgment upon it. The school principals unanimously approved the project and at the recent spring election this use of the schoolhouses generally throughout the city was begun. The illustration above shows a scene in one of the schoolhouses where the basement was used for voting.

WASHINGTON'S SPURT FOR CLEANLINESS

At the instigation of the *Evening Star* and the city health authorities combined, the national capital dedicated one week to a cleanliness crusade. The work was directed by a

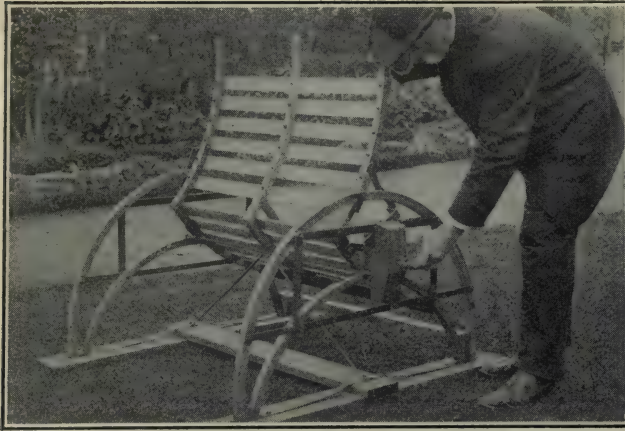


VOTING IN A MILWAUKEE SCHOOLHOUSE.

central committee made up of representatives of all the social and civic organizations of the city. This committee, with offices in the District Building, was divided into subcommittees on finance, insignia, and co-operation, the latter directing the actual campaign. Volunteer workers under the direction of trained agents were assigned to the alleys where the inhabitants needed to be encouraged to clean up. The alley dwellers, mainly colored, made the most of the opportunity to register complaints against landlords and the amateur white wings saw to it that they made the most also of the extra collections which the street cleaning department made that week.

The cleaning of the alleys was but the most spectacular feature of the campaign. Each organization of a local nature represented on the central committee, cared for its own neighborhood. The school children were impressed into service also, each being instructed by his teacher to see to it that his own yard was cleaned up, and each being rewarded with a certificate when it was reported done.

Last year the appropriation of the street-cleaning department was cut, and the \$19,000 which the city pays to a contractor for the removal of garbage and ashes is not enough to enable him to allow his drivers to linger and direct the people about separation of refuse and receptacles. There is a movement on foot to have the department do the cleaning hereafter instead of giving out the contract. Each volunteer has been asked to make a study of her own alley by taking a savings stamp route there. Each worker should thus have shortly a pretty complete study of his or her alley which will be used next year when an appeal is to be made to Congress to cut the alleys through to the streets on either side. The hope is thus to turn the city's one week spurt for cleanliness to permanent good.



Courtesy of Municipal Journal and Engineer.
THE NICKEL-IN-THE-SLOT PARK SEAT.

PARK SEATS TO MAKE MONEY

San Jose, Cal., is trying in its park a bench devised by E. W. Allen for use in connection with the free seats. It is a swinging seat so arranged that until a nickle is deposited in a slot, the back is tilted forward and the seat downward so that it can not be used. A coin releases it, however, and provides a rocking seat for two persons. As soon as they leave the seat swings back to its former position and requires another nickle to unlock it. The illustration from the *Municipal Journal and Engineer* shows the bench locked. In sunny places the bench is placed under a canopy. The inventor believes that on Sundays and other times when there are unusual crowds in the park, many people will be willing to spend a nickle for a comfortable seat for their exclusive use.

TAX REVISION URGED IN PITTSBURGH

To loosen and break the "paralyzing grip" of the unusual physical and human forces which have conspired to foster a high speculative price for land in Pittsburgh to the detriment of its growth, the Pittsburgh Civic Commission recommends halving the tax rate on buildings. By looking to this measure for relief from harmful conditions caused by overcrowding, the commission has followed the lead of the New York Congestion Committee.¹ The proposal to cut the tax on improvements is now an issue in two at least of our great cities. The plan is in harmony with the practice in many cities in Canada, where the tax on improvements has either been cut in two or abandoned altogether. The cities of Australia tax land values only for local purposes. In German cities likewise vacant land is taxed more heavily than improved, and in some cities workingmen's dwellings are exempt from taxation altogether.

The report of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, which was rendered by men who

have large interests at stake in the development of the city, suggests that in order to furnish time for readjustments the change in the rate be spread over five years. The total assessed valuation of land in Pittsburgh is exactly 90 per cent greater than that of buildings. This situation is not paralleled even in New York, where the assessed value of land is only 60 per cent more than that of buildings. It is proposed to change this situation which the commission considers harmful, and gradually force vacant land into use by making it unprofitable for a few families to keep extensive undeveloped real estate holdings in residential and business sections.

BLACKWELL'S ISLAND FOR PLAYGROUND

By urging that Blackwell's Island, home of short-term criminals, paupers, and hospital patients, be turned into a public playground, Jacob Riis repeated and revived, at a luncheon given to the municipal Recreation Commission at the National Arts Club in New York, a plan which he first put forward nearly a generation ago as a member of the Small Parks Commission. Blackwell's Island, he urged, is ideally located for such a use because it lies right between the crowded districts of Brooklyn and Long Island City and the still more crowded east side of Manhattan. Mr. Riis continued:

"I prophesy, indeed, that in a generation after this Blackwell's Island is going to be the most marvelous public playground in the world. The legislature promised as early as 1897 that the penitentiary on the island was to go, and every mayor except this one has promised me the same thing. Mayor Gaynor refused to see me."

The luncheon was planned by the Recreation Alliance to bring together those representing twenty-five private organizations interested in improving the conditions under which the citizens of New York must spend their leisure and the members of the Recreation Commission appointed by Mayor Gaynor. Luther H. Gulick, one of the speakers, declared that humanity "doesn't live to work but works to live." The work of the Recreation Commission, he said, was to organize the leisure periods of the public in a constructive manner so that the public in its leisure time will create the most splendid city in the world.

Gen. George W. Wingate and Mary M. Simkhovitch explained what the commission, of which they are members, hopes to accomplish, while John H. Finley, president of the College of the City of New York, and Eugene A. Philbin for the Recreation Alliance appealed for more team work among the private organizations interested in New York's recreational facilities.

¹See THE SURVEY for September 23, 1911.

HEALTH

IMMIGRATION LEGISLATION AND INSANITY

EVERETT S. ELWOOD

The Dillingham immigration bill, passed by the United States senate, April 19, 1912, but not yet passed by the house, contains several provisions which, if carried into effect, will be of great service in protecting New York state and the whole country from the admission of feeble-minded and insane immigrants. Some of the provisions should prove highly effective also in preserving the physical health of the nation. These provisions relating to physical and mental health are the only phases of the bill to which I would here call attention.

Section nine of this bill places upon transportation companies a fine of \$200 for bringing to the United States any insane persons, whose condition might have been detected by a medical examination before embarkation. Also, the present fine of \$100 is increased to \$200 for bringing to this country idiots, imbeciles, epileptics, or persons affected with tuberculosis in any form, or with a loathsome dangerous contagious disease. Provision is made in Section eleven, whereby the secretary of commerce and labor may detail immigrant inspectors and matrons of the United States Immigration Service for duty on vessels carrying immigrant or emigrant passengers. It is the duty of such inspectors to report to the immigration authorities any information they may secure on the voyage which will assist in determining the admissibility of such passengers. This section also provides that whenever the secretary of commerce and labor so directs, a surgeon of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service shall be received and carried on any vessel transporting immigrant or emigrant passengers. During the ten or fourteen days of the voyage, this surgeon will come into such close contact with the immigrant passengers that he will be able to detect and control many quarantinable diseases. His presence will result in detecting many cases of physical and mental disorders which might otherwise escape detection by the trained experts at Ellis Island during the rush season.

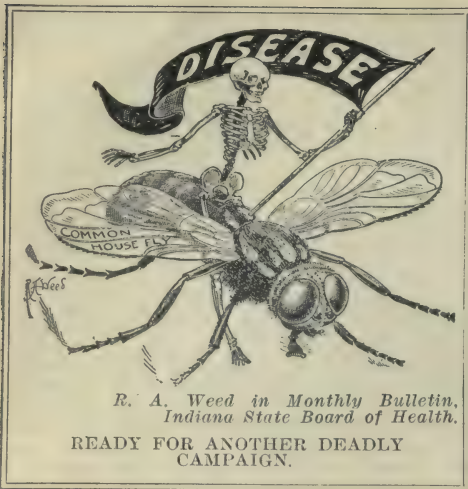
Additional men and facilities for more ex-

tensive mental examination of immigrants are provided for in Section sixteen in the following manner:

Medical officers of the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, who have had especial training in the diagnosis of insanity and mental defect, shall be detailed for duty or employed at all large ports of entry and such medical officers shall be provided with suitable facilities for the detention and examination of all arriving aliens in whom insanity or mental defect is suspected, and the exclusive services of interpreters shall be provided for such examination.

These extra men and facilities will make possible the excluding from this country of many who would otherwise become public charges or whose children would probably be feeble-minded. When five thousand and more immigrants pass through the gate at Ellis Island in a single day, and when from lack of sufficient men on the medical staff the physicians on the island best trained for mental examinations are obliged to stand on the line all day examining for eye diseases, it is impossible to exclude from this country all who should be excluded. This fact is also shown by comparing the percentage of mental and physical defects certified at Ellis Island, with those certified at other ports of entry. The last report of the commissioner general of immigration states that 75 per cent of all immigrants who come to this country during the year ending June, 1911, came through Ellis Island. From the report of the surgeon general for the same year it is found that 75 per cent of all physical defects certified in the examination of arriving immigrants were certified at Ellis Island,—a percentage to be expected, in view of the fact just stated. But in contrast to these percentages the surgeon general's report shows that only 51 per cent of all mental defects including insanity, imbecility, and epilepsy were certified at Ellis Island. The presumption, at least, is that the provision for detecting mental defects is not as adequate as for physical defects.

The recent report of the New York State Hospital Commission showed that 47 per cent



of the insane in the state are foreign-born in contrast to 29 per cent foreign-born among the sane population. This indicates a high proportion of insane among the immigrants. The statement of the same commission that 8,000 insane aliens, not merely foreign-born, but aliens, are being supported in New York state at public expense at an annual cost of approximately \$2,000,000 shows the great financial burden New York state is bearing in order that the subjects of other countries may have the same humane care and treatment here as are given to her own citizens.

One minor change in the wording of the bill should be recommended, which change would not alter the principle involved, but only simplify procedure. The first part of Section twenty provides, that any alien is deportable who, within three years after entry, becomes a public charge from causes existing prior to landing. Great difficulty has been experienced in many cases in obtaining an accurate history of the individual's life before entry into this country, consequently it has been impossible to come to a just conclusion as to the existence of the causes of dependency. It has been proposed that the wording of this section be so changed that any alien will be deportable who within three years after entry becomes a public charge, unless it is shown that such alien is a public charge from causes bearing upon him after landing. The question of the alien's deportability under the new wording would rest upon a review of the accessible history of the patient after landing. This history could be reviewed with accuracy; reliable witnesses could be summoned; and greater justice could be done the individual and the country responsible for his care.

Dr. Salmon, formerly chairman of the State Board of Alienists, recently stated, that, although, as shown in the commissioner-gen-

eral's report, 624 aliens were deported last year, several times that number who were equally deportable under the law escaped through failure to verify their landing, or through failure to prove to the satisfaction of the secretary of commerce and labor that such aliens were insane at the time of their arrival or became insane from causes which existed prior to their arrival. The result is that they were added to the constantly rising proportion of aliens in our institutions. By the simple change proposed, the burden of proof will be placed much more logically and the facts which will determine the decision of the secretary will all relate to occurrences within a short period of time and regarding which many instances will be available.

These proposed amendments together with the whole bill are being considered by the House Committee on Immigration. Whatever may be the fate of those provisions of the bill restricting immigration about which we have expressed no opinion those pertaining to public health should become law. No legislation of recent years has made such ample provisions for preserving the mental health of our citizens. These measures if properly enforced will afford this and coming generations a greater protection from the disastrous results of admitting the mentally and physically undesirable, than has ever been possible under the present laws and regulations.

MICHIGAN'S HEALTH FORWARD MOVEMENT

D. E. McCLURE
Assistant Secretary Michigan State
Board of Health

"Education is to know for the sake of living, not to live for the sake of knowing" is the shibboleth of the Michigan State Board of Health.

What are we doing in Michigan? First and foremost, under the leadership of Dr. Robert L. Dixon, secretary, we are fertilizing the public sentiment to a point where it will appreciate the tremendous importance of sanitary living, and this public sentiment responding to the fertility is enforcing sanitary laws, correcting environments, and framing regulations. Health conservation sentiment is better than specific law, since it is a law unto itself. How are you creating sanitary sentiment? Our venture like that of the Merchant of Venice is not in one bottom; but we hope it will come into the haven of good health with one cargo,—sanitary environments.

In Michigan we have eighty-three counties, each county having a county commissioner of schools who is at the head of county school interests. A plea was made to each commissioner by letter asking his co-operation in establishing sanitary environments for rural schools, a pure supply of drinking water and individual drinking cup, well-ventilated school-rooms, sanitary outhouses, (about 50 per cent of these were insanitary) and pleasant school grounds. The commissioners en-

listed at once and are now a co-operative committee in the work of sanitary education with the State Board of Health; and great progress has already been made in this direction.

In Michigan are one thousand granges, with a membership of 70,000. Our next move was to enlist the grangers in the work of sanitary education; constrain them to see the problem through the eyes of their commissioners of schools; have a common viewpoint. The results in this phase of our forward movement have been very gratifying. Many of the granges appointed committees on health; and the lecturers of the granges incorporated health topics in their programs. The lecturer of the state grange, Miss Jennie Buell, is preparing a special health program for her quarterly bulletin to be issued soon. We have focused the eyes of the rural folk on the sanitary dangers in our civilization.

Our next movement was to enlist the women's clubs. It is needless to say that the response from these organizations was almost spontaneous. The social uplift idea, the appeal to mothers, the recognition of the value of preventive measures, enlisted the warm, hearty co-operation of women all over the state.

An appeal was made to the managers of railways to co-operate with the State Board of Health in providing sanitary coaches, in abolishing the common drinking-cup, in furnishing sanitary closets on trains and at depots; and this part of the movement is going forward successfully.

Next the United Commercial Travelers were enlisted in a campaign for better physical environments for hotels, better outdoor and indoor closets, the abandonment of the common roller towel, (we have no law yet against its use) and for better environments of railway depots. These travelers are our flying squadron in sanitary education. They are getting results.

We have enlisted the newspapers in the work.

Recently there has been organized an enthusiastic state health officers' association. It is the regular army of the forward movement for sanitary education; and Dr. Dixon is its manufacturer of projectiles,—bulletins that call a spade a spade.

ST. LOUIS WOMEN FOR PURE FOOD

ALTHEA SOMERVILLE GROSSMAN
St. Louis

In St. Louis last fall there was brought about a widespread public appreciation of the fact that the milk consumed there was wrong from cow to baby. Added to this, the people learned much with regard to pure and impure foods from the exhibits and demonstrations at the Pure Food Exposition which was held in the early autumn; and undoubtedly Dr. Wiley's exposure of frauds in food manufacture and inspection have also had a wholesome educational effect.

A few St. Louis women realized that they

HEALTHGRAMS

A city is as clean as its people.

Civic uncleanness kills civic pride.

The three (dis)graces—filth, flies, and fever.

'Tis well to look to the well if you would keep well.

One swat in the spring will save you a million swats in summer.

Typhoid to prevent costs a few cents, to cure costs many dollars.

If the weather is hot, shun the cocktail and do not reach for the highball.

Don't buy any food from a dirty place. If the flies "beat you to it" let them have it.

'Tis a wise community which places community health above all other community possessions.

Typhoid is most prevalent in the late summer and early fall days—so are flies. Get the connection?

"Fruit a la filth"—the kind served from sidewalk stands after exposure to street dirt and flies.

The typhoid chain of F's:

Filth.. { Flies } Food.... Fever.
 { Fingers }

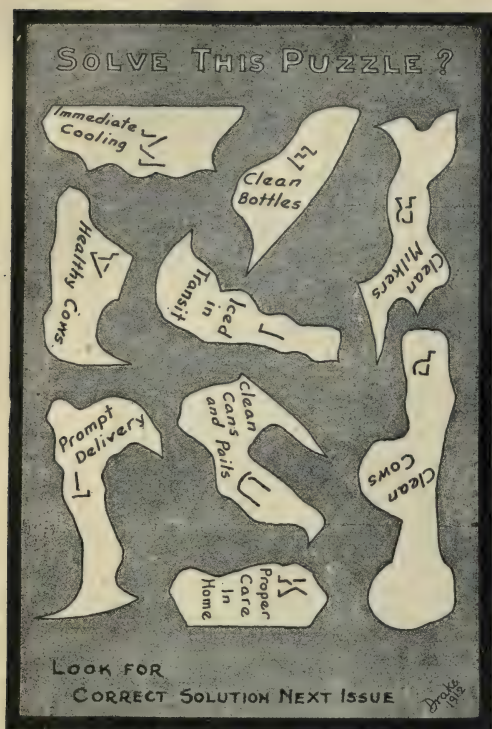
*From Bulletin of Chicago
Department of Health.*

were the food purchasers and hence that the control of the food situation was largely in their hands if they would only combine for action. So a mass meeting was held. Organization was effected. Lectures by experts—a leading baker, a prominent dairyman, a meat inspector, a member of the city's bacteriological department—were arranged for and largely attended; and the women with their appetites already whetted for pure food information gathered new facts from these speakers.

They learned that for sixty-two square miles of territory St. Louis has but twelve inspectors to pass on all meat, fish, game, poultry, vegetables, fruit, milk, bakeries, groceries, and restaurants. They learned too that not only would it be difficult to secure more inspectors but that they would go farther in getting results by informing themselves and all other women of food dangers; and that was the program decided on. Thus every woman would become an efficient inspector, and, through concerted action with other women, would reduce to a minimum the profits derived from the sale of injurious and illegal products.

The movement is growing rapidly. Several hundred women belong to the organization, and pertinent talks are being given by these members all over the city to the many mothers' clubs of the public schools, to women's clubs, church societies, the Consumers' League, the Medical Society, etc. The state and city health boards are co-operating eagerly

JOTTINGS



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with the women's organization. Best of all, the food shops themselves encourage this new interest on the part of their patrons and almost without exception are placing in their shops great card-board signs reading:

1. Do not handle the goods.
2. Try to remember the cheapest is not always the best.
3. Study the labels.
4. Encourage selling by weight.
5. Refuse to purchase food exposed to damp, dirt, and dust.

NOTICE TO PATRONS:

The Woman's Pure Food Association Asks You to Help this Merchant Keep His Store Clean and to Enforce City Ordinances Governing Food.

Another phase of the awakening is the sudden interest in existing ordinances concerning foods, and the work toward new laws. The health commissioner himself has framed and is pushing a bill for wrapped bread and pies, and a new screening ordinance has been passed. In short, whether she be the tenement-house working woman who visits the shops preceding each meal, or the apartment-house dweller who telephones equally ignorant orders with equal frequency, the indifferent food buyer ought soon to be non-existent in St. Louis.

LAWS ON REPORTING SICKNESS

A Digest of the Laws and Regulations of the Various States Relating to the Reporting of Cases of Sickness, known as Public Health Bulletin No. 45, has recently been published by the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service. Information on the composition and powers of state, county, and municipal health boards and commissions, together with a statement of the powers of medical societies, is included with a digest of state laws on reporting sickness and court decisions having a bearing.

WORLD EXCHANGE ON HEALTH

Increasing interest in the prevention of needless sickness and death and in the prolongation of the productive period of life emphasizes the importance of the Fifteenth International Congress on Hygiene and Demography which will convene in Washington the last of September. The educational value to the country of the exhibition on health and of the exchange of ideas and methods can hardly be overestimated; and the great practical benefits that result from such worldwide conferrings, especially to the country entertaining the conference, are generally admitted. The United States is therefore to be felicitated that its invitation was accepted five years ago at the Berlin congress and that its health officers, physicians, sanitarians, and citizens who will attend from all over the country will not only have an opportunity to show their fellow Americans and the visitors from abroad some of the best things they have been doing, but will also have an opportunity to come face to face, and to confer, with health, hygiene, and sanitation experts the world round.

About thirty foreign countries have nominated their official representatives; and it is reported that three hundred German delegates have already engaged passage to this country on a single vessel, the Cincinnati. Forty states in the Union have designated their representatives, and a large number of states are at work preparing their exhibits. Practically all of the large cities and many of the smaller ones will participate also.

The work of the congress falls into two branches: first, an exhibition of the recent progress and the present condition of the public health movement in the co-operating countries, especially in the United States; and second, a series of scientific meetings at which leading scholars of both hemispheres will report upon and discuss current questions of importance in the various fields. For the latter purpose the congress has been divided into nine sections.

Subjects to be taken up in these sections will relate to dietetic hygiene; hygienic physiology; hygiene of infancy and childhood; school hygiene; industrial and occupational hygiene; control of infectious diseases; state and municipal hygiene; hygiene of traffic and

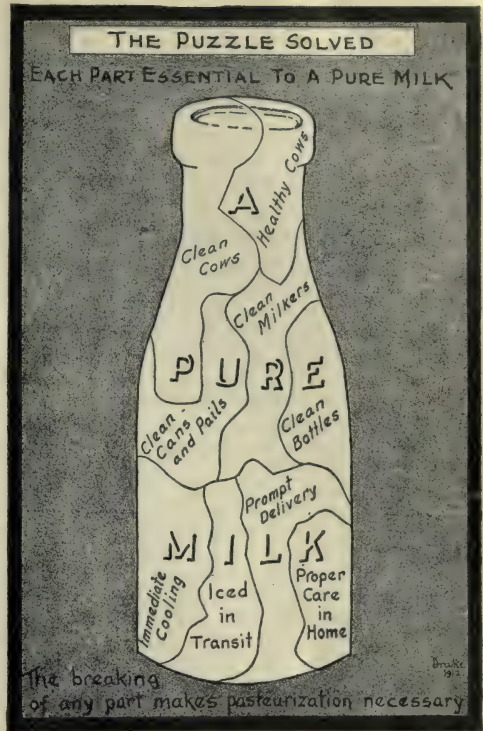
transportation; military, naval and tropical hygiene; demography; and hygienic microbiology and parasitology. Titles of papers announced in the provisional program indicate that some of these subjects are to be discussed from thirty to forty points of view.

The subject matter of the exhibition will be divided into eleven groups, as follows: vital statistics; growth and nutrition, food; hygiene of infancy and childhood; hygiene of exercise; housing; industrial and occupational hygiene; communicable diseases; state and municipal hygiene; care of the sick, life saving; hygiene of traffic and transportation; military, naval, and tropical hygiene; and sex hygiene.

FOR BETTER DISPENSARY SERVICE

At a meeting recently called by the Committee on Public Health, Hospitals, and Budget of the New York Academy of Medicine, representatives of twenty-six dispensaries and out-patient departments of hospitals came together to discuss problems connected with dispensary administration. The discussions resulted in the drafting of a statement in which the representatives acknowledged "their common responsibility for the proper treatment of the sick who are too poor to pay for medical advice and treatment, and are not eligible for admission to hospitals," and in which the representatives pointed out lack of co-ordination in their work and need of keeping in step with advancing methods in other forms of organized medical and charitable relief. The representatives therefore favored the "formation of a co-operative dispensary association, which shall have for its immediate objects the co-ordination of the work of existing dispensary and out-patient departments in the Borough of Manhattan, the elimination of unworthy applicants for medical treatment, the promotion of proper standards of treatment, and the furthering of such changes in methods as shall make for economy and efficiency in dispensary management."

A committee on temporary organization, including George L. Rives, chairman, New York Hospital; Henry S. Van Duzer, Presbyterian Hospital; R. S. W. Wood, St. Bartholomew's Clinic; Dr. George L. Peabody, New York Dispensary; Dr. S. S. Goldwater, Mount Sinai Hospital, was later appointed. Through its efforts an organization is being formed to be known as the Associated Out-Patient Clinics of the City of New York. The purpose of the association is to bring about the improvements in dispensary and out-patient clinic work which were pointed out at the original meeting; and with that end in view investigations and studies along a dozen different lines are to be taken up, among them the residential sources of cases now treated, methods of investigation of applicants and elimination of the unworthy now or heretofore followed, the practicability of the limitation of dispensary treatment except in emergency cases to individuals whose circumstances have been previously investigated and warrant free relief, the mer-



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its and defects of the dispensary law, the unit of cost in dispensary practice, the practicability of establishing a central bureau of investigation and registration, either in common with existing charitable relief societies or in co-operation with them, etc. A complete program of studies proposed may be had from the secretary *pro tem* of the committee on organization, Dr. E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, 17 W. 43 street.

MEDICINE, PUBLIC HEALTH, IMMIGRATION

The thirty-seventh annual meeting of the American Academy of Medicine will be held in Atlantic City, May 31 and June 1 next, followed by a conference on medicine in mission fields on Sunday, June 2. The topics of discussion are of wide public interest. Subjects and speakers announced in the preliminary program are: a medical study of delinquent girls, Dr. Alice Weld Tallant; different civilization levels in modern society, Maximilian P. E. Groszmann; effect of modern business life on women engaged therein, Dr. J. H. McBride; medical examination of arriving aliens, Dr. L. E. Cofer; relation of the foreign population to the mortality and morbidity rate, Drs. W. H. Davis, A. J. O'Leary, and A. J. Hammond; effect of modern immigration on our industrial centers, Dr. T. W. Grayson; the menace of modern immigration to the consumer, Mrs. Florence Kelley; the immi-

grant in the crowded centers of population, Abraham Bowers; the immigration of the tuberculous into the United States, Dr. S. Adolphus Knopf; immigration and the mid-wife problem, Dr. Ira S. Wile; trachoma in the modern immigrant and its dangers to America, Dr. C. P. Franklin; and exclusion of those affected with diseases of the skin, Dr. L. Duncan Bulkley.

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS MEETING

A preliminary program for the eighth annual meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, which will be held in the New Willard Hotel, Washington, May 30 and 31, has been issued. The subjects to be discussed are grouped in three sections—sociological, pathological, and clinical—and a meeting conducted by the advisory council is also announced. Among the topics and speakers are the following: the treatment and cure of tuberculous wage-earners in Germany, Frederick L. Hoffman; the value of institutional treatment, Dr. Herbert M. King; employment of patients after leaving sanatoria, Dr. W. J. Vogeler; a revised estimate of the economic cost of tuberculosis, Irving Fisher; the unjustified prejudice of tuberculosis patients entering sanatoria, Dr. S. Adolphus Knopf; the Chicago plan of fighting tuberculosis, Dr. Theodore B. Sachs; misleading mortality statistics on tuberculosis, Philip P. Jacobs; the tuberculosis dispensary, Lillian D. Wald; the New Jersey tuberculosis exhibit, Dr. Milard Knowlton; the East River Homes Foundation, Dr. Henry L. Shively; the establishment of a home hospital in New York city, John A. Kingsbury; adequate hospital control, Dr. B. H. Waters; adequate clinic control, F. Elisabeth Crowell; an adequate educational campaign, Dr. H. E. Dearholt. The complete program includes some fifty odd subjects and speakers.

DANGER: INSANITARY PICNIC GROUNDS

Picnic and outing time is approaching. Excursions of this sort will take hundreds of thousands of people into the country in the next few months. Inasmuch as the greater number of these outings will be held in parks and groves outside the sanitary control of the cities, the Chicago Department of Health has issued several cautions against dangers to health:

"1. The water-supply: (a) If it is derived from a shallow dug well located near an out-house or barn or near the banks of a polluted stream or open drain, it is almost sure to be a contaminated water, unsafe for drinking purposes; (b) if the well cover is so constructed that the waste water may drip back into the well, the water is unsafe for use; (c) if the water is derived from a near-by stream or lake into which sewage is deposited, you may be sure the supply is nothing more nor less than diluted sewage.

"2. Toilet arrangements: An open privy vault and swarms of flies render eating in the vicinity a particularly dangerous proposition. The fly is the connecting link between the contents of the privy vault and the food spread for the picnic feast. . . .

"3. Sewage disposal: Sewage drained a short distance and then thrown untreated into a stagnant pool or slough renders all surrounding territory unfit for human habitation. A bathing beach or place near a sewer outfall should not be patronized.

"4. Garbage treatment: Neglect of proper disposal of garbage may be taken as evidence of lack of cleanliness and a want of proper regard for health and comfort.

"5. General condition of cleanliness of grounds and assembly halls: Avoid dirty places. Avoid places swarming with flies; the presence of flies indicates the presence of filth.

"Patronize only the safe places."

HEALTH RHYMES

A is for ADENOIDS which make children ill;
B is for BREATHING, the lungs it should fill.
C is for COUGH which refuses to quit,
D is for DOCTOR, to look after it.
E is for ENEMY, sickness its name,
F is for FRESH AIR, to combat the same.
G is the GRASS upon which to play,
H is the HEALTH that will come in that way.
I is the ICE upon which to slide,
J is the JOY of the winter, outside.
K is for KITCHEN, as neat as a pin,
L is for LIGHT, let lots of it in.
M is for MILK, when pure, is good food.



Anti-Tuberculosis Committee
 State Federation of Women's Clubs

N is for NATURE, she'll keep your health good.
O is for OPEN, give windows your care,
P means PALE CHILDREN who should have fresh air.
Q is for QUICK WITS that help do our sums,
R is for ROMPS when the summer time comes.
S stands for SUNSHINE that drives germs away,
T is for TEETH, brush them three times a day.
U is the USE we can make of these rules;
V is the VALUE of good health in schools.
W is for WATER. How good a bath feels!
X is a CROSS and means Christmas Seals;
Y is for YULETIDE, the time for the sale,
Z is for ZEST, with it we can't fail.

READ A RHYME WHILE YOU WRITE.

In their campaign for a mandatory medical inspection law in New York state the Anti-Tuberculosis Committee of the State Federation of Women's Clubs is distributing 200,000 "Health Rhymes" blotters to school children. The blotters are for home use.

INDUSTRY

SILK WORKERS IN PENNSYLVANIA AND NEW JERSEY¹

FLORENCE L. SANVILLE

THE MAKERS OF A YARD OF SILK.

In New Jersey.

Men	Women	Children
44.4%	49.6%	6%

In Pennsylvania.

Men	Women	Children
9%	67.8%	23.2%

As a key which opens up the situation in the silk industry, there appears on p. 22 of Vol. IV. of the Federal Report on Woman and Child Wage-Earners, the following candid quotation from *Silk*, a trade organ:

An ideal location [for a silk manufacturing plant] would be one in which labor is abundant, intelligent, skilled and cheap; where there were no labor unions and strikes; where the laws of the state made no restrictions as to hours of work or age of workers; where people were accustomed to mill life.

The study of the social and human side of silk manufacturing is simplified by the fact that the industry is so concentrated that Pennsylvania and New Jersey together contained in 1907, 465 plants out of the total 885 in the United States; and in 1905, 72 per cent of all the looms, and 70.6 per cent of all the spindles in the country.

In the light of these facts, the two diagrams above have a special significance; for they present in pocket form a remarkable condition of woman and child labor. In the two states mentioned, to which the study was limited, 34.1 per cent of the labor force were men, 54.9 per cent women, and 11 per cent children. The diagram shows that Pennsylvania contributes the lion's share of woman and child labor to the industry. Against New Jersey's record of 44.4 per cent men, 49.6 per cent women and 6 per cent children engaged in silk manufacturing, stand Pennsylvania's figures of 9 per cent men, 67.8 per cent women and 23.2 per cent children. This overwhelming preponderance of 91 per cent of woman and child labor in the industry in Pennsylvania accords well with the reason advanced in the report for the growth and concentration of

silk manufacturing in that state, viz., "the low labor cost and the great abundance of woman and child workers in that state."

This marked difference in the two states in the proportions of adult and child labor is partly explained by the fact that the simpler "throwing" processes of silk manufacture are much more concentrated in Pennsylvania than in New Jersey and therefore the work of young hands can be more readily used. This explanation partially breaks down, however, under an analysis of the labor force for similar occupations in the two states. Of thirteen occupations selected as the most important, children were employed in nine in New Jersey, while in Pennsylvania they were employed in all with the single exception of horizontal warping. In Pennsylvania, the greatest number of children—21.2 per cent, most of them girls—worked as spinners, while in New Jersey only 3.6 per cent of the children worked at this operation, the reason being, in the language of the report, "the occupation was regarded as too laborious for children." In New Jersey, the largest proportion of children were employed as lacers and bobbin carriers.

In more general terms, the labor force of the throwing mills of New Jersey included 16.5 per cent children; in the similar mills of Pennsylvania, 30 per cent of the entire force was composed of children of whom 26.3 per cent were little girls. The highest proportion of children reported in any one establishment was 60 per cent.

When "children" in industry are spoken of in the report, the age is assumed to be between fourteen and sixteen, the years which mark the earliest working age in a majority of the states of the nation. In New Jersey and Pennsylvania this age limit held *legally* good;

¹Federal Report on Woman and Child Wage-Earners, prepared under the direction of Charles P. Neill, Volume IV., Silk Industry.

actually, the term "children" in New Jersey included 4 per cent of workers under fourteen years of age, and in Pennsylvania 4.4 per cent below this legal limit. In other words in eighty-seven New Jersey mills there were found thirty-eight children under the age of fourteen; and in thirty-six Pennsylvania mills, there were found 208 children under this age. The facts given in the report which seem to explain the situation are as follows:

New Jersey has had since September, 1904, a law requiring affidavits accompanied by documentary evidence of age, except when such evidence is unobtainable and the Commissioner of Labor is satisfied with the evidence that is produced. The effectiveness of this law, however, is greatly weakened by the following opinion given in the report:

... after a careful and extended investigation of conditions and a study of the laws, the conclusion is reached that they do not compel or require employers to obtain affidavits and other supporting proofs of age and keep them on file for the children they employ, nor can an employer be compelled to keep a register of such children. If the children employed are from fourteen to sixteen years of age, the employer need not have affidavits or register. If the child is under the legal age and that fact can be proven, then a successful prosecution and conviction can be had.

In connection with this opinion it is significant that although the percentage of children at work actually under the legal age was small in New Jersey, it was found that 75.6 per cent of the establishments failed to keep affidavits of children employed. From correspondence of the commissioner of labor in the report it is obvious that the department does not consider the law mandatory.¹ The reason for the comparatively low proportion of children found to be under age may perhaps be discovered in the vigilance with which the commissioner of labor watched the enforcement of such poor provisions as did exist.

In Pennsylvania, since the appalling record of children working under age was gathered, a new law has gone into effect supplanting an ineffective one. The latter required merely the filing of an affidavit sworn out before any notary or justice of the peace, no employment certificate being required. The worthlessness of this paper was clearly the

chief cause of exploitation of young children, one mill alone having *seventy-six children under the age of fourteen*, who were stated on the affidavits on file to be anywhere between fourteen and seventeen,¹ in addition however, 187 children without any affidavit were found in the thirty-six mills—a situation obviously due to laxity of enforcement by the Factory Inspection Department rather than to weakness of the statute.

But even this weakness in the law might have been somewhat overcome by vigilance on the part of the school authorities. There is a provision in the compulsory school law requiring

That any person employing a child or children shall furnish, on or before the third Monday of the school term and quarterly thereafter, to the secretary of the board of controllers of the district in which such child or children reside, the names, age, place of residence, and names of parent or guardian of every person under the age of sixteen years in his employ at the time of said report.

The report in quoting this section remarks that "Not a single silk mill employer in Lackawanna, Luzerne or Lehigh County paid any attention to it."²

In only two districts of Lackawanna and Luzerne counties "was any serious attempt made by the school authorities to enforce the provisions of the compulsory attendance law." In Olyphant, one of these exceptional districts, ninety-one children were found illegally absent from school and their parents were given notice to return them to school within three days. Sixteen who failed to comply were arrested. The affidavits for all these ninety-one children on file with their employers, attested that they were fourteen years old or over.

A comparison of children between six and thirteen years of age at home, at school, and at work in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, showed the following results:³

	AT WORK.	AT SCHOOL.	AT HOME.
New Jersey ...	4.7	89.4	5.9
Pennsylvania ...	16.8	75.0	8.2

This unfavorable showing in Pennsylvania can not be accounted for on the grounds of nationality as it is shown (on page 121) that of children of native born parents, 18.2 per cent in New Jersey and 31 per cent in Pennsylvania were at work, and 81.8 per cent in

¹See page 95 of the report.

²See page 93 of the report.

³See page 119 of the report.

¹See page 84 of the report.

New Jersey and 69 per cent in Pennsylvania were in school. Of native children of foreign parents, there were at work, 13.7 per cent in New Jersey, 36.2 per cent in Pennsylvania; in school 82.3 per cent in New Jersey, and 61.3 per cent in Pennsylvania. Of foreign children of foreign parents 14.3 per cent were at work in New Jersey and 54.7 per cent in Pennsylvania, and 81.9 per cent were at school in New Jersey and 43.1 per cent in Pennsylvania.

The only apparent explanation of this unenviable showing for Pennsylvania, seems to lie in a difference in public sentiment and administration of law. One slight element in Pennsylvania's favor appears in the rather incomprehensible fact that while seventy-one out of 1,217 girls in the New Jersey silk mills had never attended school, only twenty-four out of 1,314 girls in Pennsylvania had suffered this disadvantage. The report offers no explanation of this single item to Pennsylvania's credit.

The investigation into hours of labor was affected in Pennsylvania, the report states, by the period of industrial depression of 1908, although the New Jersey factories were studied before the depression began. The difference made by this abnormal condition affected the number of employes rather than the number of hours. Both in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, in the localities visited, the hours of labor were ten per day and fifty-five per week. This limit is not prescribed by law in either state; and the report ascribes this uniformity of hours to the influence of labor organizations. In Paterson where skilled men are employed in large numbers in diversified trades, the fifty-five hour week has become established through their organized influence. In Lackawanna and Luzerne Counties, Pennsylvania, a strike in the summer of 1907 cut down the hours from fifty-eight and sixty to the present limit.

Overtime work affected 3.9 per cent of all the employes in the Paterson mills and 9.5 per cent of all in the Pennsylvania mills. The following quotation from the trade organ, *Silk* (given on page 25 of the report) indicates a very real motive for extended hours of work on the part of employers:

The employes on day work do not receive more when working a sixty-hour week than if the legal week were shorter; the workers on piece work working sixty hours are probably content with a lower rate than if they had only fifty-five hours to earn their living

in; and as the sixty-hour mills operate nine per cent longer than the fifty-five-hour mills, the cost per unit for general expenses would be correspondingly lower.

It is significant that the second greatest percentage of employes required to work overtime in Pennsylvania were the spinners, the class which contains the greatest proportion of little girls under sixteen years. Twelve and four-tenths per cent of all spinners in Pennsylvania were working more than full time in spite of the industrial depression by which a number of employes were laid off.

In the matter of night work, the report says, "As in other respects, so in this, conditions in Pennsylvania present an unfavorable contrast to those in Paterson." In seven out of the thirty-six mills (over one-fifth of the mills visited) night work as well as day work was the rule. The numbers at work at night were not, the report states, 10 per cent of what they would be under normal conditions. The following example of a night-working factory is given:

In this establishment the day force work fifty-five hours per week, and the company says it was intended to have the night force work the same number of hours. For some reason the establishment wishes to operate the plant twelve and a half hours per night on Monday to Thursday nights, inclusive, and for five hours on Friday night or fifty-five hours per week. Instead of working only five hours on Friday night the employes actually worked ten hours, or five hours overtime. The explanation given by the factories is that the women employes request the "privilege" of working the extra five hours, since they do not wish to go home in the middle of the night, at which time the fifty-five hours is reached.¹

When the age of the "women employes" is considered in the light of the revelation of actual age conditions, given on a former page, the significance of this twelve and a half hour night work is painfully significant.

In Paterson, the report points out, "not one of the 138 silk mills is operated with a special night force. The law prohibits, without a single exception, the employment of women and children in silk factories after six P. M."

In another table of the report, which includes the weaving or more advanced processes, it is shown that in Pennsylvania 31.4 per cent of all girls under sixteen received less than \$2.00 a week.² This is the largest single wage group among the girls of this age.

¹See pages 142, 143 of the report.

²See page 155 of the report.

Weekly Wages in Throwing Mills.

IN NEW JERSEY.

Women over 16 years.

Less than \$4	\$4 to \$6	Over \$6
8.7%	15.8%	75.5%

Girls under 16 years.

Less than \$4	\$4 to \$6	Over \$6
40.1%	41%	18.9%

IN PENNSYLVANIA.

Women over 16 years.

Less than \$4	\$4 to \$6	Over \$6
57.2%	37.1%	5.7%

Girls under 16 years

Less than \$4	\$4 to \$6	Over \$6
91.6%	7.6%	.8%

Heré, then, in Pennsylvania, we have an industry in which over half of the employes are women above sixteen years. Five-sixths of these receive less than \$6.00 a week. Over a tenth receive between \$2.00 and \$3.00, nearly one-fifth from \$3.00 to \$4.00 and the largest group number—almost a fourth—receive from \$5.00 to \$6.00 a week. In New Jersey, where the ideal of "lax laws and cheap, plentiful labor" is not quite so well realized, the wage rates shine by the graphic comparison given above; and in that state, only 9.2 per cent of girls under sixteen receive under \$2.00 a week, while the largest adult female wage group (18.2 per cent) receives from \$7.00 to \$8.00.

The unfavorable showing for Pennsylvania can not be ascribed to the great excess of children employed. In similar operations, conducted by children in both states, 53 per cent of the Paterson children received \$5.00 and upwards a week, compared with 4.6 per cent of the corresponding children in Pennsylvania plants.

Thus the report points to a double crime committed by the silk industry in Pennsylvania against social and industrial well-being:

namely, the substitution of children for adults in occupations normally requiring adult labor; and the underpayment—far below the standard elsewhere established—of such children as are engaged in the usual child-employing processes. Deliberately fattening on the helpless youth of the community, the manufacture of silk in Pennsylvania stands self-convicted—a sub-normal, parasitic industry.

In construction of factory plants and their physical conditions, the report places Pennsylvania in a more favorable light than New Jersey. The Paterson mills are often old buildings, imperfectly remodeled, while many of the Pennsylvania plants are low, detached buildings, of modern construction.

Provisions for fire protection were not, however, favorable. In Paterson, 1,450 persons including 878 women and children were at work in mills on the third and fourth stories without any fire escape protection; this was 26.4 per cent of all operatives working on such floors. In Pennsylvania 642 persons, of whom 611 were women and children, were working on the third and fourth stories without fire protection. This represents 42.7 per cent of the workers on these stories.

The general physical conditions and sanitation were slightly better in Pennsylvania than in New Jersey, but in neither was the privacy of toilets shown to approach a favorable standard. In the providing of wash rooms and sinks, a better showing was made in Pennsylvania than in the Paterson mills. In both communities, the report states without qualification that the "law in regard to seats, as a rule, is a practical nullity." The need of seats is emphasized on a later page of the report, where it shows that in silk throwing, every process requires continuous standing. The necessity for some provision which will allow a girl a few moments of respite during the five consecutive hours of standing, morning and afternoon, is compelling.

In the eight processes which comprise the preliminary operation of silk-throwing, three are classified as unskilled, four as semi-skilled and one as skilled. In New Jersey, men only are employed in two of the unskilled operations, and in two of the semi-skilled; and both men and women are employed in the one skilled process. In the remainder, girls, women and boys are used. In Pennsylvania, men are employed in only one of these unskilled occupations—that of soaking the silk.

In all the rest, girls, women, and boys are the operatives.

In the making of broad silk and silk ribbons, only three of the eleven processes are classified as semi-skilled and none as unskilled. All three of these are filled by women and girls in both New Jersey and Pennsylvania; of the skilled processes, New Jersey employs men alone in two, and men and women combined in three; in the three remaining, only women and girls. In Pennsylvania, men alone are employed in one skilled process, and men and women together in two others. In the five remaining, women and girls alone are employed.

The speeding of silk manufacturing machinery and its results are given in the report in detail; the conditions in each factory in turn are enumerated without conclusions being drawn. Generalizing from these detailed reports, one sees clearly that each operator is usually taxed to her fullest capacity by the number of "ends" given into her charge. As the work is all done in a standing, sometimes half-stooping posture, the physical strain is intense, especially where the quality of the silk causes it to break frequently. Where the quality is better an occasional opportunity to sit down for a moment is sometimes given. The testimony is that in some mills this opportunity never occurs.

In the chapters devoted to family and living conditions the significance of the facts presented is not so great in many respects as in the preceding chapters dealing with the industrial aspect of the study. The reason is that in the two localities studied, conditions differ so widely that a good basis of comparison is not always possible. In New Jersey a single urban community represents the group studied; in Pennsylvania a number of scattered rural communities were under survey. In New Jersey the foreign population in the surveyed district was, with the exception of the English, Irish, and German elements, totally different from the population of the Pennsylvania region. A further unlikeness is indicated by the fact that while in Paterson 30.5 per cent of the fathers of the families studied were themselves silk mill employes (the remainder being distributed through many different trades), in Pennsylvania anthracite mining provided occupation for 64 per cent of the fathers; and none are mentioned as employed in silk manufacturing.

An interesting point of likeness, however,

is shown between the two states in the fact that more than four-fifths of all the heads of families studied in Paterson, and nearly four-fifths in Pennsylvania, were of foreign birth. It is in connection with this that one of the most significant points in the chapters occurs, viz., the extent of child labor in these foreign families. Eighty-eight and nine-tenths per cent of the families in New Jersey with parents native born of native descent, had their children between fourteen and sixteen at work and 9.8 per cent had their children working under fourteen; while 84.3 per cent of the foreign born parents had their fourteen to sixteen year old children working and 8 per cent had their children under fourteen at work. In Pennsylvania the showing for the native population was, on the contrary, more favorable than for the foreign parents, as 95.9 per cent of the latter allowed children from fourteen to sixteen to work, against 94.5 per cent of the former; and 38.6 per cent of the foreign parents of children under fourteen allowed them to work against 18.2 per cent of the native parents. It is striking that the percentage of families with working children is in both cases much higher in Pennsylvania than in New Jersey. The relation between child labor and "deserted or widowed mothers" is strikingly brought out by a comparison of the summaries of two tables. These show that the grand total of families in New Jersey and Pennsylvania who have their children between fourteen and sixteen at work amounts to 91.7 per cent of all families having such children; while the total of non-supporting fathers—through disability, desertion or death—amounts to a total of 26.4 per cent of all families in both states.

The same difficulty of comparison between Pennsylvania and New Jersey in housing and living conditions exists, as in the preceding chapter in the report; and this review will merely mention in this connection, that apparently there are twice as many owners of their own homes among the silk workers found in Pennsylvania as there are in the corresponding families in Paterson—and this although the annual income of the families in Pennsylvania is smaller. A partial explanation of this can probably be found in the very difference which makes a comparison of these conditions in the two states so difficult—viz., that the Paterson workers, living in a city, are unable to buy their own homes on a larger income than is received by their co-workers

in Pennsylvania who live in a district where land is plentiful and cheap. Were this more favorable condition in Pennsylvania maintained in the industrial and educational aspects of the situation, a much better showing for the Keystone state than has appeared in the preceding pages of the report might have resulted.

The report closes with a section discussing the organization of labor in the silk industry. In New Jersey 8.4 per cent of the manufacturers who were questioned expressed approval of labor organization while 53.4 per cent actually opposed them; in Pennsylvania not a single establishment was found where trade unions were approved and 96.4 per cent were actively opposed. There are three skilled processes employing women which have been able to organize with apparent success not-

withstanding this opposition. Outside of these the women and children in the industry are practically unorganized.

In spite of this disorganization a notable strike of the women and children in the silk mills of Luzerne and Lackawanna Counties took place in 1907, as a result of which hours were reduced to fifty-five a week, and a minimum rate of wages was established in the throwing processes which brought up the figures from a level below the normal of even this underpaid industry. The award of the arbitrator which established this improvement ended with a powerful appeal to the legislature for a legal reduction of the working hours of textile employees. Although permanent good results were thus secured by the strike the organization gradually disintegrated.

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT: CO-OPERATIVE OR ONE-SIDED?

MEYER BLOOMFIELD

DIRECTOR OF THE VOCATION BUREAU, BOSTON

The report of the special committee appointed by the House of Representatives to investigate the Taylor and other systems of shop management as applicable to government works, takes note of the human elements involved to a degree which has not always marked discussions of this subject. With the possible exception of Louis D. Brandeis' presentations¹ and those of two or three others, scientific management has been put forth too much as an employer's problem. This it is, indeed, to the extent of the employer's control over materials, methods, and managers. Quite different, however, are the problem of utilizing the worker's latent or partially used energies and that intangible but very real economic factor, the worker's good-will. Here we are in the realm not so much of scientific management as of right industrial relationships.

As a matter of course, the report commends the standardizing of tools, machines, and supplies. It urges the systematizing of the details of a job by careful planning, routing, best practice, and intelligently-placed responsibilities. There is no question as to the vast amount of preventable waste, lost energies, and arrested efficiency in the common operations of industry. There can be no sound objection to dealing with these matters in the way the efficiency engineers have pointed out.

To tap successfully the unused labor reserves of the individual workers, however, introduces elements beyond the scope of the traditionally organized establishment. The committee's report appreciates this situation and forcefully states that scientific management so far as it means increased exertion and pro-

duction, cannot be successfully imposed upon the worker, even though somewhat compensated for by bonus or premium. Here the consent of the employed, that is, their moral assent and genuinely active interest, is as fundamental in reaching the object sought for, as are the franchise and civic interest in efficient, popular government. No individual employer's sense of fairness, kindly treatment, and extra money inducements can allay organized labor's fear of the consequences to the worker arising from a general introduction of scientific management. To the extent that labor opposes energy-saving, time-saving and cost-saving devices, even though these should involve a re-education of work-habits, inevitable failure will attend its opposition; for in a real sense, these factors are akin to invention and are linked with economic progress. To the extent that the employer and the efficiency engineer fail to recognize that subtle and everlasting element which separates labor from other industrial commodities, scientific management or any other management will continue that opposition of interests which the industrial life of to-day presents with its division of allegiances as sharply drawn as the subdivision of labor itself.

The truth is that the corrective for the impersonalism characteristic of present-day big business is the substitution of the collective personalities of the people employed for the old-time individually trade-marked character of an establishment. No subordinate can secure that team play, loyalty, and effective exertion which the master of an establishment was wont to secure. A dynamic principle, therefore, must make up for what is now

¹See THE SURVEY, April 22, 1911, p. 148.

lacking in essential human motive power, and that principle is obviously a democratic status of the worker in the industry; a relationship founded on something quite apart from fear, dependence, or gratitude. As promoters of efficiency these are illusive and not finally effective.

Real participation in the problems and in the fortunes of the common enterprise will add to scientific management the thing it most needs to win out. Lacking this participation, with its assured interest in the value of extended effort, it matters little whether it be called scientific management, scientific profit-making, or scientific exploitation, labor's ultimate efficiency and the efficiency of its goodwill can not be secured. The sense of common cause transforms the "hand" at the job into the man in the establishment. Scientific management can only effect the conservation of the labor resources in industry as we best effect the conservation of our country's natural resources, by safeguarding the accruing benefits for all the people concerned.

INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH: PITTSBURGH

The Department of Industrial Research of the University of Pittsburgh which was founded last September with a staff of twenty-two specialists in various fields of industrial research has so far taken root that plans are already on foot for a new building to cost a quarter of a million dollars, with capacity to accommodate fifty industrial fellows and an up-to-date equipment of machine shops, furnace rooms, and laboratories. Buildings and apparatus have so far been supplied by the University, and the salaries of specialists paid by business men desiring the specific investigations.

Among the subjects being studied at the present time are problems connected with baking, glass making, glue and soap making, utilization of fruit waste, crude petroleum, composition flooring, natural gas, cement, and the abatement of the smoke nuisance. For this latter subject which is of more than merely trade interest, the largest appropriation has been made.

The Pittsburgh study of the smoke nuisance aims to be the first rounded scientific study of the problem. A group of twenty-six experts including a physicist, chemists, physicians, botanists, mechanical engineers, lawyers, a meteorologist, and a psychologist are to be at work, each on his aspect of the subject for two years. Among the newest and most important contributions will be the studies of health, on which eight physicians are to be employed, and of the actual increase in the cost of living due to smoke. The economic and social aspects are being taken up by Prof. C. W. A. Veditz; these, of course, having a bearing on all the other lines of inquiry. The study of the effect of smoke on plant life, for example, is directly connected with the market-gardening situation and the cost of living, as well as with the aesthetic aspect of the problem. The meteorological study has a direct bearing

on health. An important compilation and criticism of smoke legislation is also planned.

The university bespeaks the co-operation of all interested in any phase of these investigations, who may communicate with Prof. R. C. Benner and W. W. Strong, who are in general charge.

MINIMUM WAGES AND THE MASSACHUSETTS PRESS

The Massachusetts minimum wage bill, amended by the removal of the compulsory clause, has been reported favorably by the committee on labor of the Massachusetts legislature and is now before the ways and means committee. Under this amendment an establishment does not enforcedly come under the operation of the law: but if it will not do so, the fact must be published in the local press. Since the bill has been before the legislature it has received wide-spread editorial comment. The *Boston Common* puts in a nutshell the contention of the Massachusetts movement, the most considerable of its kind we have yet had in America:

"Less frequently now than formerly it is said there is no sentiment in business. The sentiment which suggests minimum wage boards for women workers in Massachusetts cannot be kept out of business, for it has too powerful a backing in instinctive justice.

"Just as industry is not much longer to be allowed to throw its maimed, the dependents of its killed, or its superannuated upon society at large, to be cared for at random, so must it stop its search for selfish profits for a few at the cost of the cheated many, whether that cheating be in the wilful form of adulterations of products or of monopoly high prices, or in the unconscious form of wage-payments beneath the line of wholesome self-support for the toilers who make the goods."

The *Outlook* and the *Chicago Tribune*, the latter in commenting on the causes of the Lawrence strike, regard the minimum wage as a necessary correlative of legislation reducing the hours of labor. The *Tribune*, while approving such legislation, regards it as of little effect unless uniform in all states.

"There is constructive promise of far-reaching consequence in the bill," says the *Boston Record*. "There is need for accounting in this department of employment (namely, the employment of women and minors). The new board, if established, may give it. The way to cure the ills and evils of warped civilization is by striking at the roots; and underpayment of women and minors is one of these roots. Superficial gain in cheapness of manufacture by too small payment of these is a fraud on humanity. Industry built on rotten foundations cannot stand."

The *Chicago Record-Herald* approves the plan and gives this story from real life showing how a wage increase brought direct benefit in increased efficiency to one employer:

"The company, at the suggestion of social workers, increased the wages of its employees about 30 per cent on the average. The result

surprised and delighted it. Better wages enabled the employees to buy better food, and that made for efficiency. The spirit of the factory distinctly improved; cheerfulness and appreciation in turn "boosted" efficiency. Again, there was less shifting, and permanency increased skill and reduced waste and cost. The net result has been an actual decrease in manufacturing cost of 30 per cent. Instead of losing anything, the company gained much through the very material advance in wages. Benevolence paid, it became 'business.'

The Boston *Journal* believes that the fundamental problem underlying wage legislation is its effect on the consumer. The question which must be answered first, is whether the state has the right to "put any obligation on the whole public as consumers, in order to pay increased wages to a class or classes." This question being answered satisfactorily it may, in the *Journal's* opinion, be advisable to establish the general principle that "in the long run earnings as distinct from wages, cannot be less than the necessary cost of maintaining the worker alive and in health."

The Boston *Herald* believes that the minimum wage movement is based upon a desire to humanize industry, but it does not regard this effort in its final outcome very optimistically. "All must agree," says the *Herald*, "that the project in itself is far less important than the direction in which it leads." This, in the *Herald's* opinion, would be the assumption of responsibility by the state to provide that its workers are not thrown out of employment by wage legislation. But such a responsibility may carry with it the necessity for providing state work for the unemployed, and tend, the *Herald* fears, toward a dangerous socialistic control of industry by the state.

While the Boston *Evening Transcript* expresses some hesitancy at "loading the state" up with another commission, it sets forth a detailed statement of the advantages it anticipates from minimum wage legislation. To quote:

"Every consideration of public policy seems to dictate the expediency of 'doing something for' the lowest paid among the workers, since, if the state does not intervene in their behalf at the beginning, it almost surely will have to do so, in the form of charity, at the end. It may be that the establishment of a minimum wage will meet the demands of justice. In two ways it would tend directly to benefit the employer, since it would enable him to rid himself of the competition of sweaters, and would encourage him to study the economic possibilities of his force and to develop the underpaid to a profitable point of efficiency. Possibly it is along this general line of 'getting together' that the projected measure would reveal its chief usefulness. It would insure against strikes, by convincing workers they were paid as much as others in their grade; it would lessen the objection to seasonal industries by making it worth an employer's while to keep his trained help, and it would abolish or change the character of the

'parasitic industries' that tend to lower the wages in all others."

AMERICAN INDUSTRY IN THE LARGE

The Bulletin of Manufactures of the Bureau of the Census which will be reprinted as part of the compendium of the Thirteenth Census shows the United States to have had, in the year 1909, 268,491 manufacturing establishments, employing 7,678,578 persons.

During the ten years from 1899 to 1909 the number of establishments increased 29.4 per cent; the capital employed, 105.3 per cent; the average number of wage-earners, 40.4 per cent; the amount of primary power, 85 per cent; the value of materials consumed, 84.6 per cent; the value of products, 81.2 per cent; and the value added by manufacture, 76.6 per cent. The gross value of products in 1909 exceeded that in 1899 by more than \$9,000,000,000, and the value added by manufacture in 1909 was, in round numbers, \$1,700,000,000 more than in 1899.

During the first half of the decade the number of wage-earners increased 16 per cent, during the last half 21 per cent; during the same periods increases in wages were 30 per cent and 33 per cent, thus showing an increase in average wages.

The tables of sex and age distribution in industry show 87 per cent male adult wage-earners, 19.5 per cent female, and 2.5 children under sixteen years of age. Textile manufactures and the making of needles, hooks and eyes, canning, box and bag making show the largest percentage of children, cotton goods going as high as 10 per cent of the total number of wage-earners. Geographically, the South Atlantic States show the largest percentage of child workers, western sections the least. In the last decade the percentage of men in the manufacturing industries appears to have risen slightly, from 77.1 per cent to 78 per cent; of women has remained stationary at 19.5 per cent, and of children has decreased from 3.4 per cent to 2.5, this latter in spite of the fact that in some industries the percentage of children employed shows a considerable increase.

MILWAUKEE'S BUREAU OF ECONOMY

Eighteen months' work on the part of the Milwaukee Bureau of Economy and Efficiency has among other things produced almost a score of valuable pamphlets containing the latest that can be said about various problems of efficiency in city administration. The latest of these bulletins (No. 19), summarizes the work of the bureau, which is under the direction of John R. Commons, B. W. Rastall, and Leslie I. Everts, and is unique in that it receives its main financial support from the city government. Two scientific managers, Harrington Emerson and Charles Hine, formerly organization expert of the Harriman Lines, are consulting experts of the bureau. The work which was launched by the socialist administration at Professor Commons' suggestion in June, 1910, covers an efficiency and

a social survey, patterned somewhat after the Pittsburgh survey. Mr. Rastall has been in charge of the former, Professor Commons of the latter.

The work in these two fields is summarized in Bulletin 19 as including the supervision of systems already installed, the installation of systems in certain departments already designed, the completion of studies partially finished, the planning of others not yet begun, the permanent organization of an efficiency library and of what may lead to an efficiency bureau and the periodical publication of bulletins, giving the results of special studies by the bureau. The bulletins issued are on the following subjects: Plan and Method; Alarm Telegraph Systems; Garnishment of Wages; Women's Wages; The Refuse Incinerator; Citizens' Free Employment Bureau; Free Legal Aid; The Newsboys of Milwaukee; Review of the Bureau's Work; Plumbing and House Drain Inspection; Water Works Efficiency (three bulletins); Health Department (three bulletins); Recreation Survey; Eighteen Months' Work.

Those ready for the press are: Construction and Operation of Sewers; Ash and Rubbish Collection; Water Works Efficiency (one bulletin).

Studies in progress are: Cafes (three bulletins); Purchase Methods; Water Works Efficiency (two bulletins); Management of Public Structures; Sewers; Health and Sanitation (three bulletins); Organization (two bulletins); Street Construction; Street Cleaning; City Engineer's Office (two bulletins).

BUFFALO'S IMMIGRANTS

The first annual report of the Buffalo committee of the North American Civic League for Immigrants sets forth the reasons, from the standpoint of economic policy, for helping immigrants to become good citizens. It also sets forth very modestly the unique work this committee is doing.

A staff of eight paid workers has been built up, including an extension secretary, an immigrant visitor, and a group of "domestic educators." By arrangement with the federal authorities the committee receives the names of immigrants coming to Buffalo, and all the assistance possible is given them. The immigrant visitor calls on as many as possible, and in every way endeavors to prevent exploitation, and to assist them in getting adjusted.

During the year a legal aid bureau has been inaugurated, with a board of directors consisting of twenty-one leading lawyers; an attorney, and an assistant attorney have been engaged.

The domestic educators have been put in the field in co-operation with the district nursing association. It is their work to give practical instruction in the homes, and through special classes, in practical housekeeping. These educators are also working in harmony with the Charity Organization Society. Through practical methods of instruction and

suggestion they are helping immigrant families to become independent.

Another important line of work that has been begun by the Buffalo committee is securing employment for immigrant workmen. Having failed in an effort to have the state of New York open a free employment bureau in Buffalo, they are endeavoring to carry on the work themselves, pending the time when the state will enter upon the work and when a division of information of the United States Immigration Service will be opened in Buffalo.

Still another undertaking is the promotion of schools for citizenship. These proved so valuable and were taken advantage of by such a large number of immigrants who wished to become citizens, that the City Department of Public Instruction has decided to make it a permanent feature of their evening classes.

THE OHIO COMPENSATION DECISION

The decision of the Supreme Court of Ohio upholding the constitutionality of the Workmen's Compensation Law of that state appears in full (suit of Wallace D. Yaple, member of the State Liability Board to collect expenses from the state treasurer) in the *Ohio Law Reporter* for March 4. The defense was based on the contentions that the law is an unwarranted exercise of the police power; that it seizes property without due process; that it violates the constitutional provision for freedom of contract, and that it sets up an arbitrary classification. On the first point, after citing many other court decisions, the Ohio court holds that the "purposes and objects which the legislature contemplated in the the passage of the law are sufficient to sustain the exercise of the police power and the participation of the state in the manner provided." The court holds furthermore, on one point in this contention that the withdrawal of the customary defenses from those not electing to come within the terms of the insurance scheme, that "on account of the common law and statutory rights still preserved to the parties by the statute "(which are pointed out in detail both in cases where the law is elected and where the old liability rights are retained) "we cannot say that the law is coercive." This is in conformity with the Wisconsin decision on this point.

Taking the second and third points together the court holds that, "in a case such as is presented here, in which the state itself has undertaken a general enterprise in the interests of the general good and in the exercise of its police power, and presents to its citizens the option to join in the undertaking and receive its protection and benefit, on a right of action being withdrawn by the legislature which experience has shown to be difficult of practical enforcement, while preserving the valuable and kindred rights of action, it cannot be said that in such withdrawal there is a violation of the constitution in the respects claimed."

The classification (based on a minimum number of five employees) the court thinks reasonable and proper since, in the words of an-

other decision the "difference in the situation (where few and where many are employed) is not merely fanciful, but real."

As to general criticism of legislation of this character the court sums up as follows:

"It is suggested that this legislation makes a radical step in our government policy not contemplated by the constitution and which it is the duty of the court to condemn. But it creates no new right or new remedy for wrong done.

"It is an effort to in some degree answer the requirements of conditions which have come in an age of invention and momentous change.

The courts of the country while frankly resisting encroachment on the constitutions in the past have yet found in their ample limits, sufficient to enable us to meet the emergencies and needs of our development, and we do not find that this statute goes beyond the bounds put upon the legislative will."

JOTTINGS

CONTINUOUS INDUSTRIES CONFERENCE

The commission on hours of work in continuous processes of the International Association for Labor Legislation meets in London, England, June 10 to 14. The American section will be represented by John A. Fitch of THE SURVEY, who has made intensive studies of labor problems in the iron and steel industries.

ILLINOIS SAFETY LAW STRENGTHENED

An important decision of the Illinois Supreme Court now puts the responsibility for safeguarding machinery squarely upon the employer. John Streeter of Aurora had three fingers clipped off while operating a machine commonly known as a "joiner." He started suit for damages and the Circuit and Appellate Courts both decided in the good old way that he had "assumed the risk." Then attorney Samuel A. Harper for the State Federation of Labor, brought before the Supreme Court some common safety appliances which render such accidents unnecessary, and respectfully called attention to the famous health, comfort, and safety act of 1909. The Supreme Court then decided that the employer had not done his part to prevent accidents and could not plead risks of the trade or negligence of the workman as a defense in the damage suit.

Since the Workmen's Compensation Law, which went into effect in Illinois on May 1, provides that a manufacturer must have complied with the regulations of the safety law if he wishes to settle at the regular scale of compensation, the question of what is a properly guarded machine is of very great importance to him if he wishes to escape liability for accidents.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

Efforts to secure more just systems of compensation for workmen injured by industrial accidents have resulted this year in new compensation acts in Michigan and Maryland.

The New York legislature has adopted a form for a constitutional amendment for the same purpose, and California and Massachusetts have amended their acts of 1911. The federal compensation measure, applying principally to railway workmen engaged in interstate commerce, passed the United States senate May 6, and has been favorably reported to the house by the Judiciary Committee.

BRITISH INSURANCE ACT LOST

About 500 copies of the British insurance act, on the way to specially interested members of the Association for Labor Legislation, went down with the Titanic. Fortunately, the United States Bureau of Labor is arranging to republish the British act in an early number of the *Bulletin*.

WOMEN'S WORKING HOURS

Maryland, New Jersey, and Kentucky have been added this year to the list of states which prescribe a maximum ten-hour working day for women. New York passed a fifty-four hour week law, but, after an unsuccessful ten year's fight, exempted the troublesome canneries of perishable fruits and vegetables.

REPORTING OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES

Maryland and New Jersey have been added this year to the six states which in 1911 enacted the standard bill of the Association for Labor Legislation, providing for the notification of occupational diseases by physicians.

Leonard W. Hatch, chief statistician of the New York Department of Labor, has issued his first formal report covering the first six months' period under the law. Fatal cases are reported as resulting from industrial poisoning from lead, mercury, and phosphorus, as well as from compressed-air illness. Reports of arsenic poisoning and anthrax are included. Of eighty-seven cases of lead poisoning actually reported, forty-seven are from manufacturing establishments, and thirty-two from the house-painting trade. Twenty-nine cases of compressed-air illness, actually reported, suggest the need of more careful enforcement of New York's unique American law for the elimination of that disease among workers in tunnels and caissons. The educational value of this legislation is already apparent in several states where there is an increased interest in the study and prevention of unnecessary suffering due to peculiar work hazards.

IMPROVEMENT OF MINE CONDITIONS

An arrangement has been made with the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service by which one or more surgeons connected with that service will carry on jointly for that service and for the federal Bureau of Mines investigations looking to the improvement of mine conditions. These inquiries and investigations have already shown, according to the report of the Bureau of Mines, that tuber-



David Wilson in London Daily Chronicle.
"THE MODERN ATLAS."

culosis and hookworm are prevalent miners' diseases in a number of localities in the United States. "It is important," says the report, "that this work should be extended more rapidly, because of the fact that the health conditions, as well as the risk of accidents, may be influenced by conditions susceptible of easy improvement."

Various questions that concern the health of workers in mines, quarries, and metallurgical plants can not be answered finally without investigations and inquiries that are national in scope. Among such questions are the most efficient methods of preventing the diseases peculiar to certain industries, the most effective sanitary precautions to be observed in and about coal mines and metal mines; and the relative healthfulness of occupations pertaining to mining and metallurgical industries.

COMMISSION ON MINING

The congressional committee on mines and mining has reported favorably the Foster bill providing for an investigation of the mining industry. The committee reports that under present conditions our coal miners must remain in enforced idleness for nearly one hundred working days each year, and that the ratio of deaths to each 1,000 men employed is twice or three times that in other large mining countries.

ASSOCIATION FOR INSURANCE EDUCATION

The *Market World and Chronicle* states that members of the International Association of

Casualty and Surety Underwriters have received for their signatures an agreement to organize the Association for Insurance Education, to be headed by former Superintendent William H. Hotchkiss of New York. The Massachusetts Savings Bank Insurance scheme was quick to provoke the opposition of the industrial insurance interests; the New Jersey, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts workmen's compensation legislation has put the casualty companies on the defensive, while the Washington and Ohio state insurance funds have been regarded in some quarters as the little end of a wedge for state insurance moulded on the continental systems. How far this proposed educational campaign by the private American companies is prompted by these developments is a matter of speculation. It is perhaps significant that one of the men whose name is identified with the new association, recently wrote *THE SURVEY* that German and American conditions were so dissimilar that the German system had nothing to offer by way of suggestion of value to American states. The purpose of the proposed organization is stated to be "to conduct an educational campaign, with the object of enlightening the public relative to the function of insurance, the importance of insurance to the community, the method of insurance companies, and the burdens imposed upon policy-holders by unwise laws, etc." The membership agreement is to become effective when signed by a sufficient number of companies to insure an income of \$50,000 for the first year's expenses by an assessment of one-tenth of 1 per cent on net cash premiums for 1911, the agreement to be binding for two years from April 1, 1912. Casualty and surety companies operating in the United States or Canada are eligible. The plan of organization provides for a governing committee of seven, one from each of the seven branches of casualty and miscellaneous insurance, Mr. Hotchkiss to be general counsel and chairman of the governing committee and chairman of all meetings.

FOR COMPENSATION UNIFORMITY

On May 4 there was held in New York a conference of representatives of the legal compensation committee of the National Civic Federation and the workmen's compensation committees of the American Bar Association and the Commissioners on Uniform State Laws. It is stated that the three co-operating bodies came to substantial agreement on a uniform compensation act. In the course of the meeting, August Belmont announced a New York conference for May 17 to be held under the auspices of the New York Committee of the Civic Federation for the purpose of "merging divergent views into a plan" through which all interested organizations "may work for a compulsory compensation law to go into effect January 1, 1914, after the constitutional amendment passed by the recent legislature shall have been submitted to the people."

SOCIAL AGENCIES

THE NEGRO IN AMERICA: TODAY AND TOMORROW

MARY WHITE OVINGTON

SECRETARY NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF COLORED PEOPLE

In spite of rain and Lake Michigan wind a thousand people crowded New Sinai Temple, Chicago, on the night of April 28 to hear the opening addresses at the fourth annual conference of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.¹ Two evenings later over a thousand persons were turned away from the final session in Handel Hall, which seats seven hundred.

With Jane Addams presiding at the opening meeting, Oswald Garrison Villard defined the two schools of thought with reference to the Negro question which are current among intelligent Americans today.

The first school lays entire stress upon education, and is generously active in the supporting of industrial training in the South. The adherents of this school feel it a mistake to dwell upon the injuries and persecutions to which Negroes are subjected, believing that the cure for these ills can come only through the slow process of education of all the people. This view is held by many earnest, devoted friends of the race.

The second school, while appreciating the work of the educator and philanthropist, feels that conditions in the South are growing worse, not better, and that the policy of "time and patience" is outworn. The people of this school view with growing apprehension the denial of justice to the Negro in the courts, and the spirit of violence and hatred that ends with the burning alive of men and women by the mob. They refuse to disregard the grave disparity in the distribution of school funds among the whites and blacks of the southern states, and the bestowal of the franchise upon the white ruffian while the industrious black property-owner is kept away from the polls.

¹The officers of the association are: Moorefield Storey, president; Oswald Garrison Villard, chairman of executive committee; Mary White Ovington, secretary; W. E. B. DuBois, director of publicity and research. The Chicago conference committee includes: Jane Addams, honorary chairman; Sherman C. Kingsley, chairman; Robert McMurdy, vice-chairman; Thomas W. Allison, secretary and treasurer; C. E. Bentley, W. G. Walling, C. T. Hallinan, Mrs. Emmons Blaine, W. C. Boyden, Ida B. Wells Barnett, S. P. Breckenridge, Mrs. C. P. Woolley, Julius Rosenwald and Edward O. Brown.

They believe that people North and South should know the facts concerning the Negro's status in the republic. They reassert their belief in democracy, as something worth battling for.

Of this battle Mr. Villard spoke at length. He reviewed the legal work of the association, its securing of justice in the courts, its protests against mob violence. He congratulated the colored people of the country on the many victories they had won during the past year, victories due largely to their own growing power of protest. He said:

Politically, we have reason to be grateful for the Root-Borah debate in the senate on disfranchisement, for the fight for Negro suffrage in Oklahoma, for the winning of civil rights in the courts of New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and elsewhere, and for another and overwhelming defeat of disfranchisement in Maryland.

The blow at peonage in Alabama struck by the Supreme Court in 1911 is a cause for widespread rejoicing. The efforts to draw the color line in Cornell University have failed; the appointment of a colored assistant United States attorney-general in Washington, and the election of the first colored legislator in Pennsylvania are a few of the many auspicious omens of the future. But most significant and striking of all the advances was the defeat of the appointment of Judge William C. Hook of Kansas to the Supreme Court of the United States as a result of his intolerable decision in the Jim Crow car case.

Other meetings were largely given over to analysis of the Negro's status in the country. W. E. B. Du Bois, by means of lantern slides, showed the discrimination practiced against the Negro in schools, in public parks, and in the city streets. He showed the Jim-Crow railroad car, situated between the baggage car and the smoker, a passage-way for all white employes, the oldest and worst running coach on the train. Pictures of beautiful library buildings into which no Negro may enter were thrown upon the screen; opera houses, where the Negro may never listen to music; and playgrounds, close to colored quarters, where black children may only peep through

the gates, watching the white children at their games. The lecture ended with the black man's and the white man's burial places—far apart, in death as in life.¹

The white man's plea for justice to the Negro came with strong insistence from Judge E. O. Brown of Chicago who quoted Bernard Shaw concerning the "sweet reasonableness" of the Yankees, who, first preventing Negroes from following any occupation but that of bootblack or waiter, then proclaim as evidence of the intellectual inferiority of the Negroes that they are only boot-blacks or waiters. "In honor to ourselves," Judge Brown said, "we must do away with all race discrimination." Charles Edward Russell made a strong plea for human brotherhood, and I. M. Rubinow gave a clear comparison between the Russian peasant and the Negro in the United States, classes emancipated simultaneously. Dr. Rubinow's striking comparisons successfully refuted the common excuse that the Negro's position in the United States is due chiefly to his color.

On the last evening two white speakers gave careful advice to the Negroes present. John H. Walker, president of the United Mine Workers of Illinois, told them that their hope lay in uniting with the working-class. They should join the labor unions whenever possible, and fight the battle of the working-man in the strike and at the polls. B. F. Riley of Birmingham, a white clergyman of high social position, assured the Negro that his hope lay with the upper class. His friend was the son of the white man who had owned and loved and cared for his black slaves. Such a man had nothing to fear from social equality, and was opposed to the ignorant demagogue who was declaiming against and mobbing the black race. The audience listened attentively to both doctrines, but gave no sign of its choice. Dr. Riley made an excellent point against the northerner who came south for commercial reasons, and at once joined in the popular anti-Negro clamor. "Such men," he said, "work harm for those of us who are striving to better Negro conditions, and we earnestly wish you would keep them at home."

Following a reception Tuesday afternoon at Hull House Abdul Baha, the head of the Babai movement, visited the delegates. In his

brown robe and turban, with his white hair and beard, Abdul Baha is a noble figure. He spoke through his interpreter, and after describing the many things that unite the races, he showed that all that separated them was their color. And this was foolish prejudice, he said, since for all to be one color would be monotonous. The colors of the race were like the colors of the flowers in a garden. Who would wish to have white flowers only? God had made the garden beautiful by giving it flowers of many hues.

Among the colored speakers was William Pickens, a Yale graduate, professor of Latin at Talledega College, Alabama. Mr. Pickens's earnest account of the progress of the Negro was enlivened by delightful stories of more primitive times. He told of a colored preacher who after the volcanic eruptions in the West Indies gave his explanation of the phenomenon. Discarding the facts of geology as he had read them in the newspapers, he evolved the following theory: the earth was round; the Lord made it that way, and He had made it to turn around. Consequently He had put a rod inside the earth, and a lot of oil around the rod to lubricate it.

"An den along come Rockefeller, an' er lot of oder mischief-makers, an' dey bore inter de earf, an' draw out de oil, an' make er hot-box."

This preacher, Mr. Pickens explained, used to boast that he plowed six days in the week with his good right arm, and preached the word of God on Sundays. Good white people, hearing this, would applaud, but the colored people learned to demand an educated clergy, "and," Mr. Pickens added, "we are getting it."

At the meeting of delegates Tuesday morning a resolution was introduced asking the Board of Directors, as soon as practicable, to test the constitutionality of the "grandfather clause" in the Supreme Court of the United States. The resolution was unanimously adopted. At this meeting Professor Spingarn, chairman of the New York Branch, told of the New York committee's successful testing of the right of the Negro to sit in the orchestra of a theater, and of the conviction of New York policemen for mistreating Negroes. The conference learned of the dynamiting of Negro homes in Kansas City, Mo., of the exclusion of Negroes from Canada, and of race prejudice in Arkansas. A full account of Chicago conditions was given by Ida Wells

¹This lecture with slides may be secured at the association's headquarters, 26 Vesey street, New York.

Barnett at the last session; and final words of greeting and encouragement were given by Julius Rosenwald of Chicago.

While the story of the Negro as told at the conference was unquestionably one of oppression and wrong, the note struck was hopeful. As a granddaughter of Lucretia Mott said in commenting on the meetings and the earnest, enthusiastic mass of people attending them: "This denotes progress. I have known of these terrible conditions, and

I have felt hopeless in facing them. But now I see that the colored people are making united protest against them, and protest means change." The tremendous advance made by the woman's suffrage movement since it has adopted the policy of aggressive agitation may bring courage to the National Association and to the Chicago conference. We, too, may soon see the beginnings of reform in America's treatment of her colored citizens.

THE CAMP FIRE GIRLS: A READJUSTMENT OF WOMEN

WINTHROP D. LANE

When the daily press and the popular magazine begin to talk about a movement, it becomes increasingly difficult to make the public understand the philosophy behind that movement. Thus it is at least partly an achievement of the American newspaper that millions of people regard the Boy Scouts as a training school for the militia. A similar fate seems to be in store for the organization of the Camp Fire Girls.¹ One headline recently described its purpose as being "to learn wood craft and home craft," as if it were a joint substitute for the summer camp and domestic science class.

Conceived in deliberation and nursed thoughtfully inch by inch, the Camp Fire Girls, which was incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia in March, 1912, is described as "a pure experiment in social engineering, an endeavor to correlate the various human incentives to activity with the known methods of social progress." The shifting outlook and changed status of womankind demand, as never before, solidarity of action and a unified facing of new tasks set in strange conditions. It is as a purposeful attempt to introduce cohesion, group spirit, and team work into a mass of individual laborers with no race habits of organization that the Camp Fire Girls thrusts itself into the vision of the social worker.

An official booklet gives the details of constitution. Enough of these may be indicated here to show how the aim is carried out. A local camp fire, of which there are now about 200, consists of from six to twenty girls. There are three grades—wood gatherers, fire makers, and torch bearers. A girl who wishes to join the organization must repeat the Wood Gatherer's Desire:

¹The headquarters of the Camp Fire Girls are at 118 East 28 street, New York. Its committee on organization consists of: Dr. Luther H. Gulick, chairman; Elizabeth W. Dodge, treasurer *pro tem*; Gerda Sebbelov, secretary; Harriett Alexander, Elizabeth Boles, Mrs. Sidney Cecil Borg, Gutzon Borglum, Howard S. Braucher, Dr. Anna L. Brown, Eliza R. Butler, Mabel Cratty, Mrs. Charles H. Farnsworth, Mrs. Luther H. Gulick, V. Everitt Macy, Maude E. Miner, Mrs. William Fellowes Morgan, Mrs. William W. Rossiter, Mrs. Ernest Thompson Seton, Katherine Tweed, and Mary Schenck Woolman.

"It is my desire to become a camp fire girl, to obey the law of the camp fire, which is to:

Seek beauty
Give service
Pursue knowledge
Be trustworthy
Hold on to health
Glorify work
Be happy."

To become a fire maker a girl must have been a wood gatherer for not less than three months, must present twenty elective honors chosen from the groups suggested in the official booklet and must meet fourteen definite requirements, such as:

"1. To help prepare and serve, together with the other candidates, at least two meals for meeting of the camp fire.

"2. To sleep with open windows or out-of-doors for at least a month.

"3. To name the chief causes of infant mortality in summer. To know how and to what extent it has been reduced in one American community."

When she is ready for promotion she repeats the Fire Maker's Desire:

"As fuel is brought to the Fire
So I purpose to bring
My strength
My ambition
My heart's desire
My joy
And my sorrow
To the fire
Of humankind
For I will tend
As my fathers have tended
And my fathers' fathers
Since time began
The fire that is called
The love of man for man
The love of man for God."

To become a torch bearer a girl must have been a fire maker in good standing for three months, must be known to the guardian as trustworthy, happy, unselfish, a good leader, a good team-worker, and as liked by the other girls, and must present fifteen honors in addition to those presented for the rank of fire maker. The Torch Bearer's Desire is:

"That light which has been given to me, I desire to pass undimmed to others."

A torch bearer is an assistant to the guardian, is a leader, and to carry the torch means to give light and happiness to others.

The girls meet weekly and work on their honors together. These consist for the most part of accomplishing specific tasks assigned with a view to improving girls in matters of health, home craft, nature lore, camp and hand craft, business and patriotism. Once a month a ceremonial meeting with a little ritual is held, at which honors are awarded.

"The symbol is fire. Fire cleanses and purifies. The symbol of membership is the standing pine. It means simplicity and strength. The hand-sign signifies fire and is taken from the sign language of the North American Indian. The first letters of the words, work, health and love are combined to make the watchword, 'Wohelo.'"

This, then, is the organization by which it is hoped to carry out the following aim: "To apply the power of organization to the promotion of such activities for girls as will most effectively make for physical vitality, personal efficiency, and spiritual and intellectual vigor as well as to preserve the largest amount of beauty, inspiration, and romance in their daily lives."

Since the framework of an organization is meaningless without the philosophy which breathes into it a purpose, it is necessary to know at first hand the views of those who are giving time and thought to the Camp Fire Girls. Dr. and Mrs. Luther H. Gulick are among the largest contributors to its present growth. At the annual meeting of the Academy of Political Science held a month ago, Dr. Gulick, who is director of the Department of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation, thus described the effect of the organization upon the girls within it:

"When a girl appears before her camp fire and reports that she has learned to make ten standard soups; that she is able to recognize fifteen kinds of birds by their songs; that she can describe three kinds of baby cries and knows the cause of each—things which are equally matters of scientific observation; or that she has walked forty miles in ten days, walking to and from the office or in the woods; that she has slept for two months with windows open; that she has kept a daily classified account for one month; that she has organized the girls of her street to beautify their yards, and that she has received for each of these an award of honor, something which can be added to her attire, the spirit of romance has been suggested to her. Perhaps to receive this honor she wears her ceremonial costume, a straight dress of galatea with fringe on the borders, which she has made herself at a total cost of sixty cents. Possibly her camp name is The Raven and she wears a head-dress suggestive of the name she bears as she stands very straight to receive the beads which are the symbol of award—red beads which indicate attainment

in health, or the blue heads, forming a necklace, which indicate attainment in out-of-door craft, or those beads which indicate proficiency in domestic things—taking care of the baby for a month, planning the family expenditure for food at \$2.00 a week, and seeing that it is carried out; doing the family marketing for one month, and as she stands before the camp fire and receives these tokens, the things which are everyday drudgery are thereby indicated as romantic and adventuresome.

"When a girl is learning to distinguish three kinds of baby cries or to make ten standard soups, it is not a part of an unmeasured, long-continued daily grind; putting the girl's work into definite attainable parts makes possible for the first time the measurement of woman's work. The most profound difference at present between the work of men and women, in the production of mechanical things, is that man's work is measured by dollars or pounds or inches and woman's is unmeasured. No scientific adjustment is possible save upon a basis of measurement, and woman's work has never been measured; it is simply repetition, one thing after another, without beginning, without end. Women and girls no longer have their status in a community because of doing woman's work or feminine things. They are known by other things, not necessarily feminine, which are merely human. Women have never acquired status in the way it is now coming, and the old standards are going. The camp fire movement is an attempt at regularity in handling all the things of daily life which are worth while, except the school which already has an accepted status, and to cut them into parcels that are attainable, thus serving as a basis for romantic achievement.

"It seems at first as if this was merely a device to throw a bit of glamor over things which are in themselves dull and gray and leaden. But sleeping with one's window open because it is one's duty is an entirely different thing from doing the thing because it is one step in an adventure. Learning to care for the table and to cook because it is the thing every girl should know is one thing; learning to make ten standard soups, or two ways of making bread, or four ways of making cake, or four ways of cooking left-over meat because they are a part of a definite social status, is quite another thing.

"Aside from making the daily life show the adventure side there is another reason for this sort of thing. During these two generations woman's world is being readjusted. Instead of being merely in the home woman's work has gone out into the community, but it remains still woman's work. Education, the work of marketing, care of the laundry have all practically gone out. They market in stores, bread is cooked in the bakery, not at home, our laundry is cared for in laundries, but it nevertheless remains woman's work and in so far as it is badly done is caused by woman letting go her age-long ability. If

woman is to have the same kind of relation to the world's work in the future that she has had in the past, she must reach out in the community and take hold again of those things which have always been fundamentally feminine. That is the new patriotism. The movement of women towards the stores, factories and workshops is but the first step towards the readjustment of women to the work of the world—a part of which has always belonged to women but has now gone astray, because it has gone out of the home and women have not followed as they should."

THE BORSTAL SYSTEM IN ENGLAND

J. E. OWEN

Some time ago there was running in England a play called *Justice* from the pen of John Galsworthy. It was an indictment of any prison system which is merely retributive. It was a condemnation of any criminal code which manufactures the very evil it seeks to destroy. There was one stirring scene enacted in absolute silence, showing the damnable effects of solitary and inactive confinement upon a temperament already strung to its utmost capacity by the very factors which made for wrong-doing in the first instance.

Public opinion in England is becoming enlightened on the subject of prison reform. The ethical crime and the economic folly of treating young offenders as though they were hardened criminals is clearly realized. The need of keeping these younger erring members of the community in touch with human life and interest even while they are segregated is recognized as a part of a wise and humane system.

The Borstal system, which has been adopted in several prisons, is one of the ways by which this progressive thought is being expressed. To begin with, the prison to which the new system is applied ceases to be called a prison, and becomes one of H. M. Borstal's institutions. Those within its walls are not regarded as numbers but as human entities with characteristics and possibilities to be studied and taken into consideration.

The object of the system is to prevent the offender drifting into the army of confirmed criminality, and to return him to the world an honest and efficient citizen. The writer has had the privilege of several times visiting these institutions for the purpose of lecturing to the inmates. A description of one may stand for all.

"Character is the parent of comfort," says Dr. Chalmers. This axiom is taught very practically at the Borstal institutions. The young offender convicted of an offense by a court of justice and sentenced to a term of treatment enters upon his course of training with a personal interview with the governor and chaplain, both of whom have the fullest details of the lad's previous career, home life, and the circumstances leading to his commitment. He is placed in grade I. By a system of marking, the lad may, by amenability to

rules and general good behavior, win his way through grade II into grade III, earning by his own efforts privileges and advantages which he is not slow to appreciate. The dormitory of the third grade lad is a homely place with an ordinary bedstead, photos, books, a strip of carpet, and so on. For the benefit of these lads, discipline is relaxed at regular intervals and they are allowed to talk together in the reading room where magazines and books await their perusal.

An all-important feature of the system is that it makes for healthy and useful occupation. Instead of solitary confinement in a bare cell each inmate spends the day from 6 a. m. to 8 p. m. (exclusive of meal time) either in the open or the workshop. The entire building operations, the carpentering, shoemaking, agriculture, dairy farming, etc., required in the running of the institution is done by the lads themselves. They are therefore being trained in efficiency, useful citizens are being made, and night by night the lads retire to the dormitory too healthily tired to brood and become embittered.

Educational needs are also cared for. Numbers of the inmates are illiterate; they have to go to school and be educated to the standard required by the government schools outside. Every day service is conducted in the chapel and about once a week lectures are given by outside visitors and it is most inspiring to face these 500 young and in many cases eager faces. The writer has never addressed a more appreciative and receptive audience, humorous, sharp-witted, sympathetic. Here was material which, but for such a system, must, humanly speaking, have inevitably been dumped on the social waste-heap.

The complement to this valuable system of training is done outside by the members of the Borstal Society. Filed in a card-index at the office of this organization is the name of each inmate of the various institutions with an epitome of his career that is constantly kept up to date. At intervals individual lads are visited by members of the association and a personal tie is set up. When the lad's term of residence is coming to a close his friend outside makes every effort to find a situation for him and to restore him to an honest and decent life. This is not an easy matter, for employers are shy of employing those who have not a clean record. However the Borstal Society has succeeded to a very great extent in this field of action.

When the lad returns to the outside world he is befriended and watched over. In a very large percentage of cases a permanent reformation has been effected. There are of course some failures. Lads drift back into their old ways and eventually go under, but numbers who are today efficient and honest citizens regard their training at the Borstal institution as their start in life.

What strikes one so forcibly is the vibrant human note ringing through the whole scheme. The governor, chaplain, and warders are all men especially picked for the work, men who

are striving deliberately and consciously at a specific undertaking, men of "understanding" and insight. Discipline of course is rigidly maintained, but the personal touch is felt throughout. And that is the hopefulness of it all. Routine is fatal to individual growth, particularly so in the case of unhealthy and exotic growth. Characters that are not strong enough to stand alone are stifled and rendered mechanical by sheer routine. For development, for growth in health and happiness the all-important thing is the influence of the strong character upon the weak one, the tie of comradeship, the burning human personality which having attained its own self-realization seeks to lead others to the same point. And by the Borstal scheme in its two-fold aspect this work is to a great extent being done.

SOCIAL SERVICE COMPENSATION

WILLIAM F. ROSENBLUM
Cleveland, Ohio

Settlement work as a profession is in its infancy, more so than the social sciences upon which it is based. True, there have been settlements for upward of one hundred years. One might go further back and look upon the experimental schools of Froebel, Pestalozzi, and other noted educators of the past as social settlements, and upon the great teachers themselves as settlement workers; but as a profession in the preparation for which a specific course must be followed in an approved institution settlement work is a development of our own day.

Probably no field of service offers greater opportunity for personal sacrifice (and commensurately less monetary gain) than that of social work. The alleviation of the conditions which oppress the poor; the relief of those who suffer mentally, morally, and physically; the establishment of new social relations and the eradication of that class-consciousness which is the bane of our civilization; the preservation of our national ideals and institutions—these are but a few of the many vital problems with which the settlement is concerned. Whatever the nation, the state, and the municipality may do to safeguard public institutions and civic ideals, to insure against pauperism and delinquency, vice and congestion—there are always a great many things which the settlement must assume as its proper burden and the settlement worker as his or her duty. In this country, more than in any other, the government leaves so much of public effort to the initiative of private individuals that the existence of social centres and a professional class of social toilers is mandatory.

The important laws of the present era for the preservation of public health and morals, the legislation in behalf of women and children, and the statutes for the protection of labor owe their being to the patience and diligence of men and women who in their humble status as social workers unearthed the roots of

the evils which were gnawing at our civic and economic existence and sacrificed time, energy, and even of their little means in an unceasing campaign for their eradication.

That the men and women who render such splendid communal service should themselves enjoy but few of the very comforts of life which they have been instrumental in securing for others is a sad commentary on the spirit of the supporters of our settlements. Moved by lofty ideals and a sense of public duty, to work in the interest of recreation and proper living conditions for the poor and the uninstructed, they are universally guilty of grossly underpaying the very ones through whose benign influence and personal unselfishness their aims are realized. Every city of any size and distinction has its system of advancement and pensions for its public servants. Educators in particular have been provided for against the difficulties that are encountered in old age. The Carnegie Foundation has done for the college teachers and professors of this country what ought to be done for the small but invaluable host of settlement workers. Why not provide for them? Why not pay them a salary commensurate with the dignity of their position and the lasting results they produce? Why not establish for them a pension fund which will insure them against the economic ravages of old age?

The time is not far off when the founders of our settlement houses will realize that the efficacy and influence of the social center will be small unless the workers in it are put beyond the worry of economic provision. To preserve to any profession the genius and the energies of the individuals best adapted to it, those individuals must have reasonable assurance of economic independence during the period of their active labors and after—that vague after which so many must now dread.

CHILD WELFARE IN BUFFALO

Buffalo, N. Y., is hard at work on a child welfare exhibit, to last from May 27 to June 3. The aim is to show not only things being accomplished at the present time but the needs for education so that the child may be fitted for the duties and responsibilities of the civic, social, industrial, and religious life. Every exhibitor pays for his own exhibit. The city has generously donated the use of the hall and appropriated sums for the different municipal exhibits. The screens are being made by the vocational schools and the lumber for nearly all of them has been given. Printing is being done by the boys of the schools and the lettering of the screens by the boys of the technical high school.

Mary E. Haviland, of the Children's Aid Society, is the general secretary and the only paid worker. She has arranged the exhibits under three sections—health, charities, and education. Child welfare will be taken up with reference to the dependent, delinquent child; mental defectives; child labor; the relative value of institutional and placing-out systems; the home; health, and the immigrant.

TRAINING FOR SOCIAL AND CIVIC WORK

The New York School of Philanthropy now comes into the full use of Mr. John S. Kennedy's additional endowment. This, with the continued cooperation of the Russell Sage Foundation, has made possible an exceptional expansion of its work and its staff. The teaching staff for next year has thirteen members with many special lecturers.

Edward T. Devine becomes Director with the following assistants:

Porter R. Lee—Family Rehabilitation

Kate Holladay Claghorn—Statistics

Henry W. Thurston—Child Welfare

F. D. Tyson—Amusements and Recreation

Frank D. Watson—Scientific Basis of Social Work

Mary G. Worthington—Field Work

Subjects which may be treated in the colleges for their general cultural value in this School become strictly **vocational or professional**.

Among them are economics, statistics, principles and practice of family rehabilitation, child welfare and child-saving agencies, housing and sanitation in their social aspects, medical social service, labor legislation and the administration of factory laws, executive and financial administration of institutions and societies, neighborhood work, treatment of delinquents, religious activities in their relation to the community, social insurance.

A required course of two hours a week will present the scientific basis of social work as it is found in sociology, economics, biology, psychology and other related sciences. A second required course of two hours will be used for the essential problem of family rehabilitation; a third deals with the special problems in dealing with neglected and delinquent children; a fourth gives the necessary training in the use and statistical interpretation of facts.

The Director of the School will meet the entire body of students once a week for the discussion of **Social Forces**, taking as a text some topic of current interest but of general application; and the Supervisor of Field Work will meet all students for class conference and visits to local institutions.

The elective courses include medical sociology and medical social service, immigration, housing, labor legislation, executive and financial management, the delinquent, social settlements, neighborhood activities, the church and the community. These courses will fill at least two hours a week in the class room supplemented by directed reading and field work.

The second year's work for the coming year, as heretofore, need not be spent in residence. It may be combined with university work, fellowship, or part time positions in which training and experience can be gained.

For the following year, beginning October 1913, there will be offered as an alternative a **full second year course** of residence instruction in which students may take any elective courses omitted the first year, and new courses in legislative programs of charitable societies, case work study in family rehabilitation, advanced course in children's work, social surveys, problems of maladjustment and exploitation, and social progress.

Send for Announcement for 1912-13

NEW YORK SCHOOL OF PHILANTHROPY

105 East 22d Street, New York

THE COMMON WELFARE

NEW YORK CHARITIES IN CONFERENCE

The function of municipal and state aid in the relief of poverty was the principal topic on which discussion hung this month at the third New York City Conference of Charities and Correction. A committee was appointed last year, following the contention of certain speakers that private aid is no longer able to bear the load which it shouldered thirty years ago when outdoor relief was abandoned by the city.

That the relief given by private charitable organizations at present to widows with children is inadequate was, the committee stated, the preponderant judgment of those who testified before it. The majority advocated drawing on public funds as the way out. A smaller number—yet one which when it came to signing the tentative report of the committee mustered 6 out of 7 votes—advocated that this public money should be distributed by a case-work method through the intermediary of private societies. Representatives of various religious, racial, and secular relief-giving organizations, among them the St. Vincent de Paul Society and the United Hebrew Charities, expressed themselves in favor of this hybrid arrangement, the New York Charity Organization Society and the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities taking a positive stand against it, or, for that matter, against a return to public outdoor relief in any form.

There were other matters which claimed attention. Special emphasis was laid on the inadequacy of hospital facilities and the present confusion resulting from the lack of centralized hospital control. Minimum wage boards were urged, on the ground that they would mean saving to the state by relieving it from the burdens put upon the community by the sweated trades. E. Stagg Whitin declared that the city reformatory is today, he believes, devoid of reform, the workhouse *sans*

work and the penitentiary a veritable "pen."

But the keenest interest centered after all in the session on families. The committee report came at the close of the session. A general discussion of governmental aid for widows and other women with dependent children preceded it. Those who favored governmental aid in one form or another were Comptroller Prendergast, Mrs. Florence Kelley, Patrick Mallon, Mrs. William Einstein, president of the Widowed Mothers' Fund Association, Robert W. Heberd, secretary of the State Board of Charities, and Jacob A. Cantor who spoke for the Congestion Commission; in opposition were Mrs. John M. Glenn and W. Frank Persons, of the Charity Organization Society. William I. Nichols, superintendent of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities read, as a member of the committee, a minority report embodying his objections to a return to public outdoor relief.

Among the positions taken by those opposed to a change were that it threatened the personal relationships offered by the present system between beneficiary, the agent of a relief society and the relatives and friends co-operating. They feared also the weakening of family responsibility and a return to the old corrupt and haphazard methods of outdoor relief, which tended to give the most lavishly to those who asked loudest and to afford most meager assistance to the modest and self-respecting. Discrimination is made more difficult and pressure is increased. They believed that private philanthropy is becoming steadily more generous, efficient, and constructive, and that the possibilities of educating the philanthropic public to their responsibilities are by no means exhausted. They believed that the legitimate function of public agencies and the legitimate use of public funds for social purposes is to prevent the need of mothers' pensions

by furthering measures for accident prevention and compensation, for the prevention of unemployment, etc., and that a pension system would draw off public funds from this work and from the adequate maintenance of public institutions;—and this to a larger extent than can be reckoned at the present time because public relief always means a large increase in the number of applicants for assistance. They strongly opposed any system of subsidizing private charities for many reasons, among them being that public appropriation tends to supplant rather than to supplement private gifts, while the possession of public funds tends to make agents of relief societies less discriminating.

Mr. Nichols in his report expressed a further practical objection to any subsidy plan:

The proposed relation between the public treasury and the private charitable societies is likely to be embarrassing and to impair the efficiency of the societies. Brooklyn has had an exceptional experience in this phase of the question which may be worth noting. For years previous to consolidation with New York, the Brooklyn city government was accustomed to distribute annually among certain charitable societies a large sum of money denominated the "excise fund." There was constant effort on the part of societies which had not received an appropriation to be placed on the list, and the various societies already on the list sought all the influence that they could command to secure a larger appropriation. The effect upon the societies of this contention became so unmistakably harmful and demoralizing that the distribution of public funds among private societies was abandoned as one of the peculiarities of Brooklyn to be relinquished upon being made a borough of Greater New York.

While the plan proposed by the committee for apportioning public funds to private societies is somewhat different from that which formerly prevailed in Brooklyn, it would involve a discrimination between societies which would be unsatisfactory, and unquestionably would tend to weaken the support from voluntary contributions. The societies would more and more depend upon the funds controlled by the government, and the close contact of the workers of the societies with public officials would tend to prevent the development of the co-operation and personal service of volunteers which is the most important function of private charitable societies.

The supporters of governmental aid based their plea for a return to the tax rolls as a source of relief for widows,

on the ground that charitable gifts for this purpose are inadequate and un dependable. Those who advocated dispensing public funds through the agency of private societies maintained that the element of personal contact would be retained and the danger of political corruption minimized. Those who advocated widow's pensions set as their standard of adequacy the full amount needed for support, and proposed to cut out to a great extent any wage-earning by the mothers of young children.

The committee's majority report read by its chairman, O. F. Lewis,¹ gave the results of hearings at which representatives of the ten principal public and private relief agencies in New York testified. In summarizing the objections to outdoor relief expressed at the hearings, the report brought out, besides the arguments noted, the fact that when public outdoor relief was given up in New York, the societies taking over the work found that there was no apparent increase in suffering from poverty throughout the city, that relief had in some cases been a gratuity awarded to those not needing it and withheld from the needy; that it was lacking in those constructive elements of personal service upon which family rehabilitation depends. Two witnesses, while acknowledging the inadequacy of private funds at the present time, believed that a renewal of public outdoor relief for widows would not furnish the cure, but would make the situation worse. The contrary was the opinion of Homer Folks, who is opposed to public grants through private societies, but favored direct governmental relief, unless private charity provides enough to prevent the commitment of children for poverty alone—a condition, the existence of which was in turn contested by Mr. Nichols. Mr. Folks said:

More harm is being done at the present time by inadequate relief of widows by private societies than could possibly be done by a system of public outdoor relief for widows properly administered.

This was in rebuttal of the opinion expressed elsewhere that more harm would be done by the element of pauperism in

¹The committee in its final form consisted of Robert W. Heberd, Thomas M. Mulry, Lillian D. Wald, Cyrus L. Sulzberger, Thomas W. Hynes, William I. Nichols and O. F. Lewis.

outdoor relief than even by the physical suffering caused by inadequate private relief. The point was approached from still another angle by the advocates of state pensions for widows who maintained that these would not carry the stigma of pauperism; that the state should not require of such a mother any work beyond that of bringing up her family, and that compulsory education and child labor laws put this responsibility for the support of widows' children equally up to the state.

PUBLIC AID THROUGH PRIVATE ORGANIZATIONS

The gamut of proposal was therefore a three-cornered one, ranging from public outdoor relief given direct by public agencies on standards different from those of thirty years ago, to the continuance of the present sharp line of demarcation in New York between public indoor relief (hospitals, asylums, etc.) and private care of families in their homes.

The committee's recommendation, as a basis for discussion this summer and legislation next year, was a midway one; namely, for governmental aid extended through the intermediary of private societies, in much the same way that the city now makes grants to private institutions for the care of delinquent children. The majority recommendations follow:

1. The problem of the widow with dependent children is still largely vague in the minds of charitable organizations. Nowhere could we obtain a clear-cut or exhaustive outline of methods of dealing with the problem, or of the extent of the problem. We find that few of the societies were able to state how many dependent widows with children they have in charge; what their expenditures for widows with children are, or what a rational budget for them for a year would be. The societies do not and cannot co-operate intelligently or unify their methods or their records, for want of this uniform view.

2. The societies are unable to finance their relief work adequately. This has necessarily resulted in restricting the amount of relief and in some instances may have been a contributing factor in the establishment of the policy that the minimum amount of relief should be given and that such relief should be curtailed or abolished at the earliest possible moment.

3. We fail to find that the relief policies of the societies have resulted in such reduction of need and destitution in the case of destitute widows with children as to warrant the continuance of these policies under the present financial conditions of the societies. We are convinced that grave and often irreparable injury to widows and their children is occurring because of the present financial inability of charitable societies to relieve adequately.

4. We adhere to the consensus of opinion of the Washington conference called by President Roosevelt, that deserving widows should be adequately helped in their own homes rather than that their children should be placed in institutions, and we believe that it is legitimate to call upon municipal funds to supplement the efforts of charitable societies in such relieving of deserving widows and their children, at a cost probably no greater than that involved in caring for children in institutions and otherwise.

5. We believe that the difficulties of administering governmental aid for this special purpose are not insuperable. We believe that the opposition to governmental aid is not to the theory of governmental aid, but to the methods heretofore used for its administration.

6. We hope and believe that ultimately far-reaching methods for the relief and prevention of destitution will be adopted in this country. In the meantime we are convinced that the destitute widow and her children are a real problem in this community and that it is the duty of the community to understand this problem and to take such measures as will prevent the breaking up of such families, by giving adequate relief in suitable cases.

7. Your committee therefore presents tentative recommendations looking to legislation in 1913. We hope that between now and the beginning of next year the propositions we are about to cite will enjoy general discussion by social workers. Our program is stated only on general lines, for we are conscious that the detailed and careful discussion of the problem of the widow with dependent children during the rest of the year may cause important improvements in this program. For the purpose of consideration, therefore, we suggest legislation along the following lines:

(a) The establishment by the city of a "Department of Home Assistance", for the relief of widows with young children, somewhat along the following lines and with the following powers and duties:

(b) The said department to be governed by a long term board of trustees of nine members, at least three of whom shall be women, including the commissioner of public charities, ex-officio. The members to serve without salary, but to be allowed their necessary official expenses.

(c) Lists from which the mayor may select members to be submitted to him by the leading relief organizations of the city somewhat as provided in the city charter covering the

appointment of trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals:

(d) Such board of trustees to be empowered to grant relief to dependent widows in this city having two or more children under the age of sixteen years, whose husbands were at the time of their decease citizens of the United States and residents of the city of New York. Such relief to be granted through existing private relief organizations, certified by the State Board of Charities as being competent to perform such service.

(e) All public moneys paid through such organizations to be in the form of monthly allowances and to be paid in full to the families without deduction for expenses of any kind. These expenditures to be subject to the control of the board of trustees of the department of home assistance and the general supervision of the State Board of Charities.

(f) The relief granted by the said board of trustees shall be granted out of any moneys appropriated in the annual city budget for such purposes or otherwise as provided by law for meeting deficiencies in departmental expenses in said city, in the following manner and to the following extent: Any society designated as an intermediary for disbursing the funds granted by the said board of trustees, shall make separate application in every given case on forms provided by the said board of trustees for that purpose, for grants of moneys in suitable cases already under the care of and receiving relief from such societies to an amount equaling fifty per cent of the amount requested of the board of trustees of the department of home assistance, and when such request has been granted the societies may proceed to disburse the relief allowed, and secure reimbursement through monthly bills rendered to such board of trustees.

(g) The societies to make all necessary investigations and to maintain an efficient supervision of all families of widows aided in accordance with the terms of said act, the cost of which is estimated to make the contribution of the societies equal to that of the city.

FUNDS FOR SOCIAL CENTER EXTENSION

Strong proof that social center development and the wider use of the school plant is genuinely popular with the voters of Wisconsin was furnished by the municipal election returns in the two communities in which the question recently came before the voters. Though unheralded by either the social-democrats or the non-partisan alliance, one of the issues in the Milwaukee election was the special tax levy for the development of neighborhood club houses by the school board.

A year ago agitation in Milwaukee had led to the use of more than a dozen schoolhouses for neighborhood clubs. Besides these, three school buildings were equipped and opened for other social and recreational activities. For the systematic expansion of the movement, funds were necessary. In accordance with the Wisconsin Law passed at the last session of the legislature, the school board submitted the question of a special tax to a popular referendum this spring. Edward J. Ward of the University of Wisconsin writes as follows:

It was a good test because two years ago the social-democratic party advocated social center development as a campaign issue. When, however, the legislature declared that the administration of this work should be in the hands of the school board, and when the school board became more or less anti-social-democratic, the social-democratic organization ceased promoting the social center idea as a party measure. On the other hand, the non-partisan organization did not endorse the social center project because two years before the socialists had backed it. So the question was submitted without the influence of either faction. The people themselves who had come to understand the social center, passed the measure by a large majority. As a result of this vote, there will be \$88,000 available for social center development in Milwaukee.

Across the state from Milwaukee in the little town of Prescott on the Mississippi River, people interested in community organization formed a year ago the Prescott Peoples' Club. The membership included the entire population of the town and Mayor J. W. Howes was elected president. Meetings were held in the schoolhouse for the discussion of public questions and the building began to be used for various recreational purposes. Soon the need of a social center director and recreational leader came to be recognized, and last summer Genevieve Turner was engaged for this work. After festivals, celebrations, and other organized recreational activities during the summer and interesting indoor activities in the fall and winter, the vision of conscious town organization began to widen. On April 2, the question of Mayor Howes' re-election came before the members of the club, which in this case meant the town. The issue was wheth-

er the civic, social, and recreational development should be continued and enlarged. Mayor Howes was re-elected.

Forty-five places in Wisconsin have joined in spreading the movement for community organization and social center development. The state leaders of this civic revival hope that this popular endorsement will strengthen the purpose of school boards in all the towns between Milwaukee and Prescott, which have wanted proof that the social center propaganda is popular. The next step in Wisconsin is expected to be the appointment in every town of a man who, as associate superintendent of schools, will serve as civic secretary, social center organizer, and recreational leader.

GARDENING FOR HEALTH

The weeks ahead are digging, planting, weeding, hoeing, and gathering-in weeks. Shall they be turned to profit by healthy country and suburban folks alone? Why not also by city people and those who are sick or feeble or convalescing? Bolton Hall of the New York Vacant Lot Gardens Association answers:

I have tried vacant lot gardening myself right here in Harlem, and the record, wherever there has been a capable superintendent or wherever the thing has been started on a moderate scale, has been one of uniform success. Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, Philadelphia, and dozens of other places have shown that it is practicable and profitable to the community concerned. Neither is it an untried plan for tuberculosis patients. Its use should be extended to all sanitariums and charitable organizations. We have had many tuberculosis patients on our plots, and the Montefiore Home near New York city, as well as other institutions, is making a successful record in gardening. On the land feeble or incompetent women and even children can always find just as much work as they are capable of doing, and even if the results are



YOUNG GARDENERS.

Children lending a hand to their mother's gardening.

only a few dollars per month, it adds immensely to their physical, mental, and moral well-being. It is a new experience and a new source of interest in life: in the air and sunshine they grow more than mere marketable produce; they grow healthy bodies, minds and souls."

Mr. Hall believes that whatever land we have—especially in the cities and suburbs—should be put to work. His experience has been that much of it can be had free or at a very nominal rent; and that if the place is properly organized the people are quick to take advantage of it. Quoting him again:

We found on the Jerome park tract loaned to us by the Astors and on the Dyckman street lots loaned us by W. F. Burns, that many found it practicable to live in their tents or homemade shanties during the whole winter and that even the invalids were able to raise enough on the rent-free land to make all the difference between comfort and poverty. Until all the available land is taken up, I would not confine the offer to invalids. Many need just such opportunity to prevent their becoming invalids or to help sick relatives.

While spring and early summer has a psychological advantage as a beginning time, yet the season of growth and outdoor living is being greatly prolonged by new methods, and Mr. Hall has suggestions and hopes even for a succession of crops all the year round. The experience of the Vacant Lot Gardens Association has enabled them to work out plans for assigning lots, methods of enforcing sanitary rules and increasing productivity.

THE WAITERS' STRIKE

KATHARINE ANTHONY

[Not labor troubles in far-away mines or mills, but dinner-time strikes in three of the most fashionable hotels have been the order of events in New York this May.

At 7 o'clock Tuesday evening, May 7, the waiters in the Belmont walked out, and subsequently there were strikes at the Waldorf and Vanderbilt Hotels—again at the hour which meant the most complete clogging of the hotel machinery.

The Hotel Workers' Union was launched in Manhattan about six months ago, organized along industrial lines; that is, to take in all the workers. During the past month, a strike of the cooks and chambermaids was threatened and at union headquarters it has been stated that a chief problem of the leaders was to keep the walk-out from spreading. Their program was to concentrate on the big hotels.

It has been the disposition of the newspapers to treat the strike as a joke. What it means in the eyes of one striker, Miss Anthony describes.]

One Saturday evening I happened to meet an old neighbor, Mr. Roget, who is a waiter in the Hotel Belmont. His wife and the two babies, he told me, were well, but business was very bad. He himself had been on strike since Tuesday, and might be out much longer. He then told me in a dignified way and with his pleasant Belgian accent these details of the current waiters' strike:

It is not so much for more wages, this strike, as for better conditions. You know we work a long day followed by a short day and so on. On the long watch, we go to work at five o'clock in the morning and work fifteen, sixteen, sometimes twenty-two hours. No time is allowed to go outside for meals. The food provided is not fit to eat. The meat is bad, and if you could only see that hard bread! No vegetables. There are lots of potatoes but they are old and black. You would not eat them.

For me, because I am married, it is a little better. I have two eggs and tea before I leave home at five o'clock. Then sometimes I have no more food till three o'clock, and that is too long. Those poor fellows that are not married have no breakfast at home and it is worse for them.

Can't you tell a waiter when you meet him on the street? Look at his face and at his feet. He always has stomach trouble and you can see that in his face. And he always has something the matter with his feet.

The head waiter at our place thinks that men should be treated like dogs. I have known him to discharge twelve or fifteen men in one day. Last week one of the omnibuses, as he was going down to get his food, took a roll from the pantry. He thought "it will at least help digest my meal." The head waiter saw him and discharged him, and next day he put up a notice on the pantry wall: "Omnibus B— discharged for *stealing!*" Think of it! to brand a man, and a young man too, like that.

Another omnibus took a cup of coffee from

a pot he was carrying out. It had been paid for, and there was some left in the pot. It did not belong to the hotel. Well, the head waiter saw him, and he was fined five dollars.

Anyway, just as a regular thing, we have to pay so many fines that it always takes two to three dollars out of every week's wages. If a man drops a fork, he is fined twenty-five cents. You know we are handling dishes all day and we must sometimes drop one, especially in the rush hours. The fines are worse for the omnibuses because they get only twenty-five dollars a month and no tips. We regular waiters get only twenty-five dollars, but then, of course, there are the tips. We do not ask for more wages in this strike. The special waiters, though, ask for more. They are called in extra for banquets, and get two dollars a night. They go to work at four o'clock in the afternoon and work till two or three or sometimes five o'clock. Just before the people go home the headwaiter will often kick them out so that he will get all the tips. Now they ask for three dollars a night and a right to stay and get their own tips.

To-night there was a big strike at the Waldorf. There was a dinner for 1800, and 300 waiters, after they served the soup, went to the head waiter and asked for three dollars and the right to stay and collect their tip. The head waiter said "Boys, you have got me this time, I'll have to give in." That head waiter—he is still a man.

Last Tuesday night 100 of us went out like that at our hotel. It was about the union. A while ago the head waiter discharged a man without giving him any reason. He said "You come to-morrow and fetch your check." This man went to the office and said: "Why am I discharged?" The manager said: "Because you belong to the union." The next day the head waiter discharged another man because he belonged to the union. Then we knew we should all be discharged because every man belonged to the union. Last Tuesday at seven o'clock in the evening we sent a committee to the head waiter and asked if he would take those two men back, and he said "No"; so at a quarter past seven we all went out. You should see the waiters all coming in and throwing down the orders for chicken, casserole, steak, and other things all together with the checks on the side tables.

After this Mr. Roget said good night and went away in the confident mood of a striker whose strike is still young. I was led to compare the dignified, agreeable impression he left with that conveyed by the burlesque accounts which I had just seen in print about these men and their strike. Like many of the foreign waiters in New York, Mr. Roget is a man who has served a three years' apprenticeship in French, German, and

English hotels. He speaks several languages, and is a certificated waiter. He respects his calling, loves and cherishes his family, and acts by his principles. If we do not respect these things, what shall we respect?

THE RED CROSS MEDALS

The American Red Cross has recently adopted a series of designs for medals to be awarded for various kinds of assistance in its work. Through the generosity of the American Numismatic Society, Gutzon Borglum was engaged to prepare the designs which were then



MEDAL TO BE AWARDED FOR MERITORIOUS FIRST AID WORK. Reverse side of the medal; the obverse, which is the same on all medals, is shown on the cover of this week's SURVEY.



FOR DELEGATES TO NINTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE. Reverse side of the medal presented to those serving as conference representatives.

presented to the Red Cross by the society. The series includes five designs. The first, reproduced on our cover this week, represents a knight of the crusades who has dismounted from his horse to give a drink of water from his helmet to a sick or wounded traveler. This design will decorate the obverse side of all medals awarded by the Red Cross for any purpose. The four additional designs are intended for the reverse side of medals to be awarded for particular purposes and uses, such as meritorious first aid work, unrecompensed personal service, excellence of exhibits, and service as conference delegates.



A BROKEN LEVEE.

THE MISSISSIPPI AND THE RED CROSS

ERNEST P. BICKNELL
National Director American Red Cross

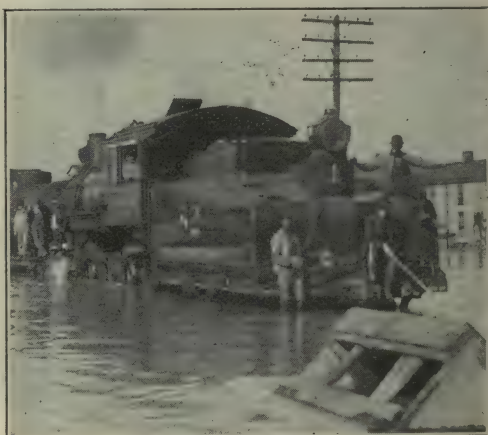
Lacking the elements of surprise, sudden horror, or tragic death, the greatest and most destructive flood which has ever occurred in the Mississippi Valley is commanding little attention from press or public. The Red Cross, through President Taft and the governors of several states, has issued graphic statements of the needs of the flood sufferers. Local committees have tried to arouse interest. The result is a grand total of contributed relief funds of probably less than \$50,000. Public interest subsided while the waters were yet rising. This small response was, in some measure, due to the fact that the public knew that the army was expending a large amount of money in relief. It is but natural for the people to remain unresponsive when they understand that the national government has assumed the cost of relief operations.

The disaster has been progressive and cumulative. At the confluence of the Mississippi and Ohio river floods, the destruction began with the breaking of levees and the submerging of populous lowlands near Cairo, Ill. This was about April 1. As the crest of the flood has moved slowly down the river its progress has been marked by the breaking of levees; first, in Kentucky and Missouri, then in Tennessee and Arkansas; finally

in Mississippi and Louisiana. As this article is written, May 11, the flood is just throwing its full strength against the levees at New Orleans.

The vast body of water, varying between twenty and fifty miles in width where the restraining walls have failed, tries in vain to squeeze its mighty current between levees only a mile or two apart. As an old river pilot described it to the writer, "it is like trying to force an elephant through a key-hole." And the breaking of levees at one point does not relieve the condition below, as the entire volume of water, spread over a width of many miles, must try to crowd through the artificial narrows farther down stream.

Between Cairo and New Orleans, more



FLOOD SCENE AT MEMPHIS.

May 25, 1912.

than 600 miles as the river runs, the area of land submerged by the flood has probably exceeded 15,000 square miles. This is greater than the combined area of the states of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. From this flooded district have been driven more than 175,000 inhabitants. They have left their homes and their farm animals and their stored up supplies of grain and hay, together with their farming implements and equipment. Some animals have been saved, but thousands have been drowned. Without shelter or food, the people have fled to the high ground or huddled on

of the quartermaster's department, was placed in general charge with headquarters at Memphis. From personal observation I can say without qualification that the officers in this work have shown marked ability and that their industry and promptness have been beyond praise. At the date of this writing more than \$700,000 has been expended by the army in relief in the form of service and supplies.

The manner in which the Red Cross and the army can work side by side, supplementing each other, has been illustrated here very clearly. The army offi-



RELIEF CAMP IN GROUNDS OF CARNEGIE LIBRARY, HICKMAN, KY.

their house tops awaiting the arrival of rescue parties.

Here again, as at San Francisco in 1906, the army has been of inestimable assistance. Capable officers were promptly detailed to the chief danger points along the river with authority to draw upon the great supply depots of the quartermaster and commissary departments at St. Louis, and where necessary in the interest of haste, to buy in whatever markets were most accessible. As the crest of the flood moved southward, the number of officers detailed to the relief work was increased. Major J. E. Normoyle,

orders or purchase the supplies and see to their delivery in proper proportions and amounts at the relief centers. They also assist in the rescue work of searching out and bringing in the refugees from their flooded homes and installing them in camps of army tents.

Here the army work ends. Government of the camps, registration, feeding, discipline, breaking camp, removing the refugees to their homes, and re-establishing them there, are left to the Red Cross or local relief committees. Officers of the army medical department, under Major Miller, have given important supervision



FIGHTING THE FLOOD WITH SAND-BAGS AT HICKMAN, KY.

Note the temporary addition to the levee to prevent the water from sweeping across the railroad.

to sanitary precautions, but actual measures of sanitation have been in the hands of state and local health authorities and the Red Cross.

At the chief relief centers the American Red Cross has stationed experienced men, drawn chiefly from the charity organization societies which are its institutional members. These men have assisted local committees in organizing the camps, have established systematic registration and distribution of food and clothing, and when the camp machinery has been put into good running order, have gone on to other points. Besides the national director, the Red Cross has

been represented in this work by C. M. Hubbard and C. L. Gurney, of the St. Louis Provident Association, William M. McGrath, of the Birmingham Associated Charities, and S. P. Morris, of the Colorado Anti-Tuberculosis Association. The magnitude of the work which these men have supervised may be indicated by the statement that the camps at Hickman, Ky., for some time in charge of Mr. Morris, contained at one time a population of 3,600 persons. At Dyersburg, Tenn., Mr. McGrath supervised the care of over 2,800 refugees, and at Tiptonville almost as many. In Vicksburg, Miss., and Helena, Ark., and in the



PRINCIPAL BUSINESS STREET, HICKMAN, KY.

smaller centers about these cities, perhaps 25,000 refugees have been in camps. Mr. Hubbard, Mr. Gurney, and Mr. McGrath have done notable work in this section. As this is written refugees to the number of about 7,000 are being gathered into camp in and near Baton Rouge, La., where Mr. Morris is at present stationed.

Ten Red Cross nurses, four from Kansas City, and six from New Orleans, are in attendance upon the sick in the various camps in Mississippi and Louisiana.

of life to which they are unaccustomed.

In order to correlate these widely extended measures for the protection of health and to bring under observation the large problems of sanitation which affect the entire flood district from Cairo to the Gulf of Mexico, the Red Cross engaged Lieutenant-Colonel Jefferson R. Kean, of the Medical Corps, United States Army, as a special health commissioner. Colonel Kean, who made an international reputation by the remarkably effective work of sanitation which he



BADLY FLOODED DISTRICT AT HICKMAN, KY.

Five Red Cross physicians are also actively engaged in the camps and among the scattered groups of people huddled in such isolated houses as have escaped the disaster. Over all this great region impends the menace of disease, particularly of typhoid and malaria. It is hoped that the active measures of these physicians and nurses, supported vigorously by the power of local health authorities, may ward off serious outbreaks of these scourges, which always threatens when large numbers of people are gathered into close groups under conditions

performed in Cuba and Porto Rico following the Spanish American War, has just completed a careful survey of sanitary conditions throughout the entire flooded territory. He conferred with state and local health authorities and assisted in articulating their respective efforts in order to assure that no section escapes attention. It is of interest to note that this is the most extensive and comprehensive survey of its character ever undertaken in the United States. It is hoped that the results, when published, may prove of permanent value.

THE TITANIC AND THE RED CROSS

ARTHUR P. KELLOGG

Daniel Burke, survivor of the Titanic, youthful, well-dressed, wearing a mourning band on his arm, a rosette of crepe on his hat, and a long black ribbon from his button-hole, applied to the Red Cross emergency relief committee for help.

Thereby hangs a tale which illustrates in large degree the kind of work which the Red Cross does in time of peace. Incidentally, it is a tale that Kirk Monroe or Elijah Kellogg might covet. He told his story simply, and in great detail.

Yes, he was Daniel Burke of Chester, England—19 High street, to be exact. His father had been dead a long time. When his mother died two months ago, leaving no other living relatives in England, he and his sister, Catherine, decided to come to America. In the excitement of the collision he was saved and Catherine was lost. He was in the life-boat with Mrs. Astor. Yes, after the life-boat had cast off, he was the man about whom Mrs. Astor had thrown her coat to make him look like a woman when there was talk of pitching him overboard.

He described his sister Catherine and her clothes minutely, and told of the thin gold chain round her neck, with a golden sovereign for a pendant. On it were her initials, he said, A. C. B. Her first name was Alice, but she always went by her middle name, Catherine.

His whole story came out as he was questioned by W. Frank Persons, superintendent of the Charity Organization Society, who is in charge of the relief work for the Red Cross.¹ Corroborative evidence was found in the Titanic's passenger list which had the names of Dan-

iel and Catherine Burke, in the Carpathia's list of survivors which showed Daniel but not Catherine, and in the newspaper accounts of how Mrs. Astor had thrown her coat over a boy in the life-boat after one man had been put out.

So far, so good. They sent Burke back to the Mills Hotel where he had registered on the Friday following the docking of the Carpathia.

At the hotel he had struck up an acquaintance with another guest, a blind man, and took him to church. Learning his story, the blind man told it to the hotel manager, who sent him to the relief committee after taking him to a large clothing store where he was given a complete outfit of clothes and mourning.

In a day or two the manager of the Mills Hotel telephoned in great excitement that Burke had disappeared. On the same morning another young man applied for help and said, forsooth, that he was Daniel Burke—and proved it, for he had his Titanic ticket and other documents. He, too, had a sister Katharine, but she had been in New York for some years and was alive and well. A few minutes later, the public stenographer of a Herald Square hotel brought the first Daniel Burke to the committee's room again. He stuck to his story and amplified the details in the most convincing manner. The stenographer told how his boy of twelve, playing in front of the hotel, had struck up an acquaintance with Daniel, and the father, much impressed with the story, had brought him to the committee after keeping him over Sunday at his home.

He said the two boys had become great chums, played and talked together all day, although one was nineteen and the other twelve.

In that simple statement, given by chance, lay the key to the story of Daniel Burke. For Mr. Persons, thinking of the lad's expression and of some very immature tricks of speech, sent him over to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children for observation. A few days later he had Dr. Schlapp's report. The boy was nineteen years old in body and fourteen in mind—a high-

¹The Red Cross emergency relief committee is composed of: Robert W. deForest, Otto T. Barnard, Edward T. Devine, Mrs. John M. Glenn, Lloyd C. Griscom, Florence M. Johnson, Mrs. W. B. Rice, Cleveland H. Dodge, Mrs. W. K. Draper, Commissioner William Williams, Mrs. Richard Irvin, Mrs. Nelson H. Henry, Eleanor H. Hewitt, J. P. Morgan, Jr., Rev. D. J. McMahon, and Mrs. E. R. Hewitt.

In addition there was an advisory committee on the Titanic disaster, composed of Mrs. W. K. Draper, Mrs. John M. Glenn, Mrs. Shephard A. Morgan, Katharine W. Tweed, Edward T. Devine, John A. Kingsbury, Rev. D. J. McMahon, W. Frank Persons, Morris D. Waldman, and Mrs. W. F. Persons, secretary.

grade imbecile. Every word of the Titanic story, of the drowned sister Catherine known by her middle name, of the wreck and the coat and the life-boat, was cunningly woven from newspaper reports. It was just such a bit of romancing as a boy of fourteen would put into a game of robbing the Deadwood coach or in outwitting his teacher.

In the meantime all other clues had been run down. Mr. Persons learned by cable that no one from Chester had sailed on the Titanic, and that the street number was fictitious. But it was puzzling to find that the boy's description of his alleged sister compared closely with the description of the body of Catherine Burke which had been brought into Halifax by the Mackay-Bennett. A sister of Catherine Burke, who claimed and buried the body, denied that this boy could be her brother, because her brother—whose name is Daniel!—is not feeble-minded and lives in Ireland. Thus "Daniel Burke" was proved to be neither the Daniel Burke who sailed on the Titanic, nor the brother Daniel of the Catherine Burke who sailed on the Titanic.

Faced with all this, he still claimed to be of English birth and a survivor from the wreck.

If the boy were an Englishman, as he stoutly maintained, his feeble-mindedness would require his deportation under the immigration law. He was accordingly sent to Commissioner Williams at Ellis Island. There, facing a return to England, he started a new string of stories. One of these proved true. He gave his real name, the names of his father and mother, whom he said were dead, and the date and place of his birth in a New England town. The name and the date and place of birth were verified from public records, but the parents and the aunt, with whom he said he had lived of recent years, are unknown in the village where he placed them. He cannot be persuaded to give any further information.

Therefore Commissioner Williams, finding him not an alien, returned him to the committee. The committee, finding him not a Titanic survivor, referred him to Commissioner of Public Charities

Drummond, who placed him in the home for feeble-minded on Randall's Island. And there he is today, marooned by his own yarns, to remain until he identifies himself. He reads, talks intelligently, and is probably capable of great improvement under the right sort of training. Relatives can reach him through Mr. Persons at 105 East 22 street, New York. His name, of course, is not Burke—nor is Burke the name of the man he impersonated.

Now this story is not typical at all of the cases which have come to the Red Cross. The typical applicant is a dry-eyed, choking little widow, with several babies, from England, Ireland, Germany, Sweden, Syria, concerned not at all with any money that might be had, asking only that the great Red Cross, of which President Taft himself is chief, find her husband's body.

But the story does indicate the structural value of the Red Cross organization. Its "institutional members" are the leading charity organization societies of the country. Relief work following a disaster is entrusted to the nearest institutional member, in this case the New York Charity Organization Society, in the Minnesota forest fires the Minneapolis Associated Charities. That means that the boy who was not Daniel Burke was neither speeded carelessly on his way with a pocketful of temptations gold, nor roughly turned adrift when he was found out a faker. The charity organization societies acknowledge and practice a continuing responsibility for their cases.

The "Burke" boy's story, too, brings out the complications of administering the Titanic relief fund. In that one case the Charity Organization Society, the Red Cross, the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, the federal Immigration Bureau, the municipal Department of Public Charities, the town officials of Chester, England, and of a New England village, the Mills Hotel and its blind Samaritan, and the Herald Square stenographer were all essential parts of the procedure. If the story had been truth instead of romance, still other questions would have been raised: Should an English boy be helped from

the American fund of \$150,000, or from the British fund tenfold larger; as a minor, who should act as his guardian; did he need relief, or a good job?

And at that, his case would be simple compared with typical cases of widows and children: Shall they stay in America or go back home; how can they be provided for in comfort without a breadwinner; how, again, about the British fund and British citizenship?

This last question applies only to permanent relief, for all immediate needs, so far as they could be learned, were generously and promptly met without regard to nationality. It has now been determined that there will be the closest co-operation between the two committees and that the American fund will be used for all those who decide to remain in America.

Before the Carpathia was in, the committee was at work and its representatives met her at the dock. It attempted to get in touch immediately with every survivor, to learn her needs, to make plans for her, to search for her husband's body through the representative it had sent to Halifax—in brief, to serve her pressing needs, and to secure a full statement of her family and her resources so that it might act intelligently in the final distribution of the fund. As many of the families were leaving New York almost immediately for all parts of the country, the greatest haste was necessary. Volunteer visitors from the Charity Organization Society, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor and the United Hebrew Charities worked all day and far into the evening interviewing survivors. Those in charge of the office spent half the night writing up and tabulating their reports. Their stories are now a matter of record, and the final distribution of the fund can be made on a basis of needs, for real rehabilitation rather than relief.

Emergent relief consumed the special fund of \$36,000 promptly collected by the women's relief committee, and \$17,000 of the Red Cross fund was distributed to meet the immediate needs of 165 of the more than 350 applicants. Families of survivors were most quickly and easily found, but of the total number

now known to the committee about half are not represented by survivors, but are the dependent relatives of those who perished. From the first the committee was alert to find these families by inquiry of survivors who were not relatives, from newspapers, from other charity organization societies and from foreign consuls.

The committee's task now is to work out a plan for each family. Much of the task is delicate—dealing with people who have been in comfortable circumstances and to whom has come the double blow of bereavement and the need for accepting help. Such, for instance, as the widow of a prosperous commission merchant in an English village. When he went down he wore a belt containing in cash the entire proceeds of the sale of his business. The wife and the children are here penniless. The trained eye of the Charity Organization Society questioner caught a suggestion of even more trouble to come, and a physician confirmed her fears. The mother has incipient tuberculosis. Now, such a person may be deported, but the committee found that the climate of the part of England from which she came is particularly bad for tuberculosis, and the size of the relief fund makes it possible to plan for sanitarium care in this country. Her health can be restored, but not her husband nor the silver tea service, apple of her eye, which was given him when he resigned as clerk of the parish church to strike out in the New World.

One of the most puzzling cases was that of the ballet dancer from Cleopatra in the Barnum and Baily circus. In order that she might go on the road, her mother was coming from England to care for her two small children. The mother was lost. The dancer's salary is small so that she faced the difficult task of taking the children with her on tour in a circus, and both of them little kids. After it had been all talked over she proposed that the committee set her up in a side show at Coney Island so that she could take care of the children herself. All that the committee need do, she said, was to buy her a tent, some camp chairs, a few spangles and the abbreviated (vertically) costumes for six dancers. Some

way that did not seem a legitimate use for relief funds, though it must be confessed it was in the line of self-help. But a plan was worked out by which the youngsters will not have to follow the show.

These are exceptional cases. More typical is Mrs. Giovannini, a well-educated Italian woman of twenty-five with three children and soon to have a fourth. Leaving her enough to live on until his return, her husband had gone to Italy to consult a specialist, taking with him the savings of seven years from his salary of \$25 a week. Neither her two brothers, who are laborers, nor her family in Italy, can help. She is in a very serious physical condition, and must have a pension until her children can begin to earn their own living. The oldest is now eight.

Or Mrs. Korner, a Russian Jewess. She and her husband were coming here to study. Their savings went down with him. She has the equivalent of a high school education and a diploma to teach in Russia—which was lost—but must be tidied over the period of adjustment in the new land.

Or Mrs. Goldbaum, also a Jewess, whose husband had sold his drygoods business in Johannesburg, South Africa, and took all the proceeds to the bottom of the Atlantic with him in cash. Mrs. Goldbaum asks to be started in business in a small way.

Or Mrs. Johnson, whose voice, which is her living, has gone from her entirely from the shock, so that she must learn a new means of support and carry the mortgage on the home which she and her husband were buying.

Or Miss Flood, who lost nine relatives—mother, two sisters, two brothers, an uncle, an aunt, and two cousins. She is completely prostrated and has no kith or kin left in the world.

Or the missionary returning after thirteen years in India. All his savings and household effects were lost. But he has his wife and their three children. The father's health is broken by the tropics. His salary of \$1,200 a year is meager enough for a family of five in the United States.

Then there is the pitiful case of the

woman from up state, New York, who had lost her husband and her oldest son by tuberculosis before the wreck. A daughter of nineteen, the main support of the family, had been visiting relatives in Sweden and went down with the Titanic. The oldest daughter now living, aged fifteen, has tuberculosis, and there is a boy of nine in school. The mother earns nine dollars a week as a laundress. The relatives in Sweden are poor and cannot help.

The stories might be prolonged indefinitely. So far as money will help they are being helped. But the amount of misery and sorrow, the wracked nerves, the number of expected babies carried next to breaking hearts, are staggering.

THE FACTORY FIRE AND THE RED CROSS

ADAPTED FROM THE REPORT JUST ISSUED BY
THE RED CROSS EMERGENCY RELIEF COM-
MITTEE OF THE CHARITY ORGANIZA-
TION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF
NEW YORK.

On March 25, 1911, a fire in the premises of the Triangle Shirt Waist Company at 23 Washington Place, New York, resulted in the death of 146 persons, principally women and girls, and the injury of about as many more.

The families affected were for the most part recent Jewish and Italian immigrants; dependent largely on seasonal occupations or work irregular for other reasons; dependent largely, too, on the earnings of girls and women. They were for the most part families who had never received charitable assistance. In only a few cases, moreover, would they have become dependent on charity as a result of this accident if there had been no special fund for their benefit. Around most of them there was a circle of relatives and friends who might have prevented this, if there were not sufficient potential resources in the immediate family. On the other hand, in nearly every case the accident caused, aside from grievous personal bereavement, an economic loss which would have involved a definite lowering of the standard of living of one or more families if there had not been resources in addition to those of the charitable agencies.

The emergency relief fund was perhaps unprecedented in liberality. The total amount contributed to the Red Cross was \$103,899.38, and the union fund¹ brought the grand total to about \$120,000, a larger amount, in proportion to the number of families and the situation caused by the fire, than has generally, if ever, been available for emergency relief. It seemed to be essentially an expression of sympathy: not so much carefully considered contributions to supply the necessities of life, as impulsive gifts, from a passionate desire to do what was possible to compensate for the horrible event. There was sufficient money to do whatever seemed wise. The principle on which the Red Cross Committee acted in the distribution of the fund was that it is the function of emergency relief not to reimburse financial losses as such, but to restore the victims of the disaster, as quickly as possible and as completely as may be, to their accustomed standard of living, or to prevent a serious lowering of that standard. This involved a consideration of the factor which the killed or injured person played in maintaining the old standard. No schedule of appropriations for different types of cases was worked out on the basis of relationship to the deceased and number of dependents, as was done after the mine disasters at Cherry and Monongah. What was done was to consider each case individually, as is done in ordinary relief work, and on the basis of all the information at command, considering all the elements in the situation, to grant an appropriation which should obviate an otherwise inevitable lowering of the standard of living in that particular family. In not a few cases it was found even easier to facilitate an actual improvement: to grant a lump sum which would set a father up in business, for example, rather than merely to continue, in the form of a pension, his daughter's accustomed contribution.

One-third of the cases, chiefly those

in which no serious injury had been sustained, were closed within five weeks after the fire; and another third within two months more, that is, before July. Of the third that remained in charge at that time—three months after the fire—some had not yet been able to work out plans for the future, and in others it was necessary to await information from remote villages in Europe before reaching a final decision. The last payments were made in March, 1912.

The total amount spent for relief was \$80,556.16. The appropriations range in size from \$10 to \$1,000 in the families in which no death had occurred; and from \$50 to \$5,167.20 in the families which had lost one or more of their members. Three-fifths of the appropriations to families in which there was a death were of \$500 or over, one-fifth of \$1,000 and over; in only one case of injury was the amount over \$500, and that one appropriation was of \$1,000. About 90 per cent of the expenditure was for families in which there had been a death.

The purposes for which the appropriations were made are shown in the following table:

Emergent and temporary relief	
To families in which there was no death..	\$7,842.35 ¹
To families in which there was a death....	4,688.66
To families in charge of the union committee	287.00
	<hr/> \$12,818.01
Funeral expenses.....	6,167.10 ²
Permanent provision for relatives of those who were killed:	
In the United States.....	44,672.15 ³
In Europe, Palestine, and the West Indies	16,898.90
Total	<hr/> \$80,556.16

Emergent relief was given freely throughout the first few days, in the office as well as in the homes; and liberal temporary assistance, pending a final decision or a re-adjustment of family arrangements, was given to families who had lost one or more of their members, and to persons who had been injured or were incapacitated by the shock.

¹This represents the total expenditures in these cases.

²This includes \$1,000 to the Hebrew Free Burial Society, to reimburse it for its expenditures in connection with thirty funerals.

³\$16,500 of this represents trust funds for sixteen children in seven families.

¹The Ladies' Dress and Waistmakers' Union quite properly felt that the relief of its members should be given from its own fund, and arrangements to that effect were made with the union on the first day of the emergency work. The relations between the two offices were absolutely satisfactory and the cases were handled on the same principles.

In all of the Jewish families in which there seemed to be any need twenty-five or fifty dollars was given for the expenses of Passover week, and a similar gift for Easter was made in a number of Italian families. Modest amounts were granted to replace clothing that had been lost when it seemed to be really needed. The largest part of this sum, however, was given to enable those who had been injured to regain their health and to do so without unreasonable sacrifice on the part of other members of the family. A few stories may give an idea of the variety of circumstances in these families.

No. 210. (Italian.) A girl of 18, the principal support of her father and mother, anæmic and suffering from nervous shock. \$50 was given in order that she might go to the country. She would stay only six days because she wanted to be at home to see her sister start for Italy. (\$55.81)

No. 187. (Italian.) Two girls, 20 and 16, uninjured, but hysterical and nervous. They live in Hoboken with their mother and brother, who has a small store. Their father is in Italy, ill with tuberculosis. \$50 was given on April 10 for medicine, clothing, and other incidental expenses. When a visit was made in November it was found that the girls were still in a nervous condition and under a physician's care. One of them had married: her family urging it because she could not work; her suitor, because he expected she would receive a large appropriation from the Red Cross fund. He is able to support her, however. It seemed advisable to make a further grant to the unmarried girl, since at present she is dependent on her brother, who has also his mother to support. (\$100.00)

No. 200. (Native-born.) A man of 57, on duty in the Asch Building the night after the fire, seriously injured by a falling beam. The family had lived comfortably on his wages and those of the son of 21, who was a clerk, with a lodger to help pay the rent. A daughter, 24 years old, was studying art in Boston. The company for which the man worked does not make any allowance to its employees in case of accident or sickness. A monthly allowance equal to his wages was given until his health was restored and the doctor's bill, a very moderate one in view of the amount of attention it represented, was paid. On visiting in November it was learned that he is entirely recovered and has established a business on his own account, in which he is already clearing more money than he used to receive in wages. (\$285.00)

No. 142. (Russian.) A girl of 19, seriously injured: left arm and leg paralyzed and no

hope of recovery. She was a favorite niece of one of the proprietors, who made a liberal weekly allowance for her care, but could not meet the expense of all her needs. Her father is comparatively well-to-do and has a small store. \$1,000 was sent to the girl through the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities on November 10, to enable her to have the care which her condition requires. (\$1,000.00)

In only one instance was it necessary for the Red Cross to promise in advance of burial to pay the undertaker's bill. The question of reimbursement, however, began to be raised very early by the Italian families, and in the Jewish cases there were several requests for tombstones or for reimbursement of additional expenses incurred by the family when the burial proper had been provided by some society. The funeral bills among the Italians ranged from \$76.70 to \$345.80. The maximum paid by the Red Cross toward the expense of any one funeral was \$150. Of the total \$6,000 over two-thirds was expended for Italians, although the number of deaths among them was only two-thirds as great as the number among the Jewish families in charge of the Red Cross.

In most of the families in which a death had occurred it seemed necessary, or at least proper, to make provision of a more permanent nature for surviving relatives. The appropriations for this purpose account for over three-fourths of the total disbursements. Of this, \$44,672.15 was for the benefit of relatives in the United States, and \$16,898.90 for the benefit of relatives in other countries—Russia, Austria, Hungary, Roumania, England, Jamaica, and Palestine. In all of these cases the family had been dependent, in some degree, on the one who had been killed. One of those in which there were relatives both here and abroad was

No. 21. (English.) A young married woman of 26 died from the effect of injuries received in jumping from a ninth-story window. Her husband, a Swiss lace-maker, had recently gone to Switzerland and she expected to join him there soon. She had a father in Jamaica to whom she had been accustomed to send money. She and a sister had come to New York after the Kingston earthquake a few years ago, with the assistance of the relief fund. The younger girl is taking nurse's

training in a New York hospital, and looked to her married sister for help in case of emergency. There is a married sister in New York who is in poor circumstances, and brothers in Providence and in Jamaica who are said to be prosperous, but who seem to do nothing for their relatives. \$100 was given to the sister for a reserve fund, and £72 in all (\$349.50) was sent to the father. The husband has not been heard from in any way. (\$449.50)

A few of the Jewish families who left dependents in this country, beginning with the one which received the largest appropriation, were the following:

No. 120. (Russian.) A man, 30 years old, was killed, leaving a wife and two children, four and two years of age. They had been in this country only three months. The woman spoke no English and had no trade and had no near relatives in this country except a sister who had come over with her and was almost as helpless. After the fire she went to a poor cousin, whose family was seriously incommoded by the addition of four people. She wished to return to Russia, where she had a brother and a sister. Her passage was engaged, passport and other official papers were secured, arrangements made for having her looked after at all points in Russia where she would change cars, and for paying to her a lump sum of money with which to establish a business. Three days before she was to sail, however, she received a letter from her brother telling her on no account to return, as there were rumors of pogroms and of a foreign war. This so frightened her that she was not willing to go. A few days later she again changed her mind and wished to go home. Arrangements were again made for her return, and again, a day or two before the date of sailing, she refused to go. The United Hebrew Charities was then requested to take charge of the family. \$1,050 altogether has been placed with that society to be used in current expenses and in carrying out some plan for making the woman self-supporting; and \$4,000 to be kept as a trust fund for the two children. (\$5,167.20.)

No. 87. (Russian.) A young man of 21 was killed, the only support of his aged mother and an invalid sister who was suffering from cancer. The son also was in poor health. He had been working for the Triangle Shirt Waist Company only a short time. The family had been receiving assistance from the United Hebrew Charities. \$100 was immediately sent to that society to be used for the family and later this amount was increased to \$1,000. A second \$1,000 was appropriated in November. (\$2,000.00)

No. 62. (Russian.) A girl of 20 was killed, the only unmarried child of old parents, who had also five married sons and daughters all living in New York. The daughter who

was killed was engaged to be married, but it had been arranged that her parents would always have a home with her. \$80 was given for temporary assistance; and the old people moved to the home of a married daughter up-town. The father, an intelligent, dignified, patriarchal old man, earnestly requested that whatever appropriation was made to them should be in the form of a lump sum, in order that he might go into business. (He had in mind the money-lending business. \$1,000 was given for business on April 25. In October the entire family had moved from the last address known to us, leaving with neighbors the impression that they were in prosperous circumstances. (\$1,080.00)

No. 168. (Russian.) A girl of 19 was killed, the chief support of the family of five. Her father, though only 55, looked very old, and earned a very little by teaching Hebrew; her mother did not work; her older brother was about to be married and only paid board; the other brother, 16 years old, had left high school and started to work because of his sister's death. After giving temporary assistance for current expenses a grant of \$700 in all was made to enable the father to establish himself in a delicatessen shop, which he opened on May 20. Within a month he came back to say that he had used all the money and could not make expenses, but an interview at the shop did not confirm this nor did it reveal any reason for making a further appropriation. In October it was found that the man had sold his business in July and moved away. His successor was making it pay. He had bought it for \$175 and thought the old man had not lost money on the sale. (\$830.00)

The most serious situations in the Italian families were caused by the death of girls or young women who had supported and cared for aged or infirm parents. In the case which received the largest appropriation there were also little children who were left orphans by the fire.

No. 85. A widow 33 years old and her sister of 18 were killed, leaving their old father and mother, a brother of 16, and the five little children of the widow, three of whom were already in an institution. The old mother was almost crazed with grief. She did nothing but moan and weep for weeks, and has not yet recovered. There was a married daughter in the same house who undertook responsibility for the little girl, and later combined her household with that of the old people. The other child who was at home at the time of the disaster was placed in the institution with his brothers. The boy of 16 shows a disposition to do all he can for his parents. He is a plume-maker, earning \$6 a week. After giving emergent relief and help in paying the funeral expenses, a pension of \$25 a

month was paid to the father and mother until November. \$600 was then placed with the Charity Organization Society to continue this pension for two years; and a trust fund of \$2,500 for the benefit of the five children (\$500 for each) was also placed with the Charity Organization Society. (\$3,510.00)

No. 54. A married woman 38 years old and her two daughters, 20 and 14, were killed; leaving her husband and two sons, 19 and 5 years old. The three women were earning together about \$36 a week; the man and his son, respectively shoemaker and barber, about \$15. Temporary assistance was given and money to cover the funeral expenses of the two girls. (The mother's body was buried with the unidentified.) A little later, on the recommendation of the Italian consul-general, \$750 was given to enable the man to set up a shoe shop. In October it was learned that instead of doing this he has been living on the money, and has done no work since the fire, and that his son also has worked very little. The little boy is well taken care of by a cousin. In January the man asked for more money, to cover the expense of removing his wife's body, which he had identified by some belongings in the possession of the coroner, to a private grave by the side of the daughters. It was found that \$60 would have sufficed amply for all the legitimate expenses connected with this transfer, though the undertaker's bill was for four times that amount, and \$60 was therefore given, the family agreeing that this was a fair payment under the circumstances. (\$1,085.00)

No. 14. A woman of 31 was killed, leaving a mother of 60 who had been largely dependent on her, though she earned a little herself. The daughter had earned \$12-\$18 a week on buttonholes, and her mother said that she had savings to the amount of \$1,000 on her person at the time of the fire. Later this amount rose to \$4,000. Relatives provided the funeral and took care of the mother, whose mind seemed to have suffered so that she was a very difficult problem for them. Her one desire was to return to Italy and enter the convent where one of her daughters was a nun. The Italian consul-general arranged for free transportation and the Red Cross Committee gave \$1,000 to be paid to her on her arrival in Italy. She sailed on May 9, apparently pleased with what had been done for her. In October it was learned that friends had received a letter from her indicating that she was well and in comfortable circumstances. In January a letter was received by the committee in which she asked for further assistance in general terms, making no reference to the convent. (\$1,055.00)

No. 89. A girl of 16 was killed, the only support at the time of her mother, who was a tobacco stripper, and her brother, 14 years old. She was an errand girl and had been receiving \$4.50 a week, but on the day of the fire her wages had been raised to \$6.00. The mother's mind was seriously affected by

the shock and for a long time it was impossible to rouse her from her depression. The neurologist who examined her thought there was grave danger of suicide. She could not be induced to go to a hospital. An Italian woman who lived in the same house voluntarily assumed all responsibility for her: prepared meals for her and the little boy and did not leave her alone a moment for many weeks. Funeral expenses were paid; temporary help was given; the 14-year-old boy was persuaded to take a course at the vocational school; and a pension was promised until he should be fitted to help support his mother. The mother's mental condition slowly improved and she went back to work. When she began to get better she told about an illegitimate child, a baby girl, who was in an institution, and she became more and more determined to have this child with her. This was discouraged, on account of her condition, but late in August she brought the child home. At first this seemed to have a bad effect on her mental condition: she called the child by the name of the dead girl, and seemed more depressed than she had been latterly. Later, however, she gained more rapidly, and at present is in an encouraging condition. In November, as it was clear that continuous oversight would be needed for a long time, the remainder of the appropriation for this family was placed with the Charity Organization Society. It is sufficient to continue the pension for two years and provide moderately for extra expenses which may arise. \$100 was given to the friend who has been mentioned, in consideration of the constant care she gave in the weeks after the fire. Before accepting this she made sure that it had not been deducted from the appropriation for the family. She still continues her interest and friendly offices. (\$933.40)

Of the 37 cases in which there were relatives abroad for whom some provision was required, only four were Italians. The Italians no doubt are less apt to send their daughters over here to lay the new foundation of the family fortunes than are the Jews of Russia and other eastern European countries. In the case of the four Italian families the office of the Italian consul-general courteously undertook to make investigations in Italy through the municipal authorities, to make recommendations as to suitable appropriations, and to transmit the money appropriated to the relatives in Italy. One of these was

No. 59. A girl of 23 was killed. She lived with an uncle's family, and helped support her mother and two younger sisters in Sicily. She had two brothers working as laborers in Alabama. Official reports from Italy indicated that she had sent only about 200 lire

(\$40) to her mother in the two years since she had been here. Relatives said, however, that she had \$225 in bills on her person at the time of the fire, which she had intended to use in bringing her mother and sisters to America. \$100 was sent to the mother on April 17 through the American consul-general. It was learned in September that there had been a delay on the part of the authorities in Italy in getting this to her, but she received it soon after that. On the receipt of a report from the Italian consul-general in regard to the circumstances of the family and after further consultation with the relatives here \$400 more was sent. (\$500.00)

The method of procedure in the case of the Jewish dependents in Europe was of necessity somewhat different. After finding out as much as possible from relatives and friends here, frequently seeing receipts for money orders and recent letters, a digest of the information was sent to the Jewish Colonization Association in Paris, who made investigations through their agents or correspondents in the vicinity and reported to the committee. In this way it was hoped to insure that the inquiries would be conducted in a manner that would respect such racial sentiments as, for example, the prejudice against sending bad news by letter or telling it abruptly. By the time the inquiry was made the news had already reached most of the families, even in the remote villages. Generally it had come indirectly or by inference: they had heard of the great factory fire through the newspapers, and if they had not received the usual letters had concluded, or at least feared, that their daughter or son had been one of the victims. The fire occurred just before the Passover, when they were accustomed to look for a special remittance for the expenses of the holiday.

Remittances were sent in most instances through the American consuls-general in Moscow, Vienna, and Bucharest, who have been at great pains to see that the money was delivered to the persons for whom it was intended—no easy undertaking in some instances when there was some inaccuracy in the address or when the names carried here were not the names by which the beneficiaries were known at home. This gave double assurance of the identity of

the beneficiaries, from our own government officials as well as from a private society in Europe.

In making the decisions in these cases the committee had in mind not only the amount and regularity of the contribution cut off by the fire, but also circumstances bearing on the probability of its continuance, the other resources of the family, the length of time before younger children would be in a position to help their parents, and so on. If some of these amounts seem small in comparison with appropriations to families in the United States the difference in the cost of living and in the standard of living should be taken into account, and the appropriation should be considered in terms of the monthly remittances which it replaced. The advantage of a lump sum over a monthly allowance was urged by nearly all the friends who were consulted about families in Europe, and by the beneficiaries themselves from whom word was had directly. In most cases the amounts they suggested did not exceed those granted.

No. 140. (Austrian.) A girl of 19 was killed. She had a married brother in New York and an unmarried brother in St. Louis who died about the time of the fire. She and this unmarried brother had supported their father in Austria, her contribution being about \$8 per month. She was engaged to be married and seems to have supported her fiancé also. The father was said to own a small dilapidated house and garden, valued at about \$1,000, which were heavily mortgaged, and there were four children with him, one an insane deaf mute and the others ranging from 12 to 16 years in age. The married son here was apparently prosperous. In response to a direct request from the father a post-office order for 100 kronen (\$20.80) was sent him on May 19; and after receiving further information about the circumstances 1500 kronen (\$303.90) was sent on June 22 through the American consul-general in Vienna. The brother's wife reported in October that the family had expressed appreciation and satisfaction. (\$324.70)

No. 163. (Russian.) A girl of 18 was killed. She lived with a cousin here and had a brother in the city. Her mother, a widow, and four younger children were in Russia, dependent on the two children here. The girl had sent 20 roubles a month and had also been in the habit of making up deficiencies in her brother's contribution, though he was older than she, when he did

not send a similar amount. After the fire he showed a disposition to drop his responsibility entirely, but it was made clear to him that the committee assumed that he would continue his usual contributions. \$35 was given him in April and May to send to Russia, and 500 roubles (\$257.75) was sent on June 22 to the mother through the American consul-general in Moscow. \$80 was given to the cousin to reimburse her for funeral expenses. (\$372.75)

No. 51. (Roumanian.) A girl of 23 was killed, the oldest of six children, the three youngest being still with the parents in Roumania. She had been in New York over three years; a brother of 21 had been here about two and could not do more than support himself. She was supporting a sister of 19, who had only recently come over and was a dressmaker's apprentice, as well as sending money regularly to her parents. The committee's European correspondent reported that he found the family "really in distress," as they had been burned out of their home a few days before. Rumor was running through the quarter that their daughter had been killed in the fire in New York but they did not believe it because they had received some money for Passover from their son, who wrote that, thanks to God, his sisters were both very well. The father was a peddler, making about two francs a day in summer, one franc in winter. The 17-year-old son was a carpenter, earning up to forty francs a month, and the daughter next to him was apprenticed to a dressmaker who gave her 1.50 francs a week. Pending receipt of information from Europe money was given at intervals to the son to send home, and on June 5 \$300 was sent through him. A monthly allowance was given to the sister until October, by which time she was earning enough to pay her board in an uncle's family. A final grant of \$50 was made to her to provide her with winter clothing. The children here had not, up to November, received any word from their parents about the calamity which had befallen them in April. (\$585.00)

No. 139. (Family living in Palestine.) A young man 23 years old was killed. He practically supported his father and mother and three sisters in Palestine, sending them probably between \$20 and 30 a month. His father had tuberculosis and his mother was a cripple. He had an uncle in New York who is a responsible business man, and who helps his sister more or less. \$50 was sent in two remittances, through the uncle here, and on June 29 a draft for 3862 francs (\$749.90) was sent through the same relative, making the total appropriation \$799.90. In October the uncle said that the grant had been of great benefit to the family: that they had invested it in business, in which they were doing well, and that their health was much improved. (\$799.90)

THE INTERNATIONAL RED CROSS IN SESSION

JOHN VAN SCHAICK, Jr.

For nearly two weeks the Ninth International Red Cross Conference has been in session in Washington. The Associated Press has carried reports of important proceedings, and on the eve of adjournment, I endeavored to ascertain from officers and prominent delegates the things which stood out most clearly in their mind as accomplished or suggested by this conference.

Remember that the International Red Cross Conference is not a legislative body. It can take no action which commits the different countries represented. It is simply a gathering for the exchange of views and experiences. Everyone seems to agree that it has been a most successful conference, that it has accomplished a vast amount of work, and that it has been entertained in a manner creditable to the American people.

"One thing which has marked this conference particularly from an American point of view," said Ernest P. Bicknell, field director of the American body, "is the very obvious drift of the Red Cross everywhere toward peace activities instead of holding itself entirely for service during war. Two arguments are advanced in favor of the Red Cross Society doing humanitarian work in time of peace. One is that the society, splendidly organized, having means, standing as it does for the service of humanity, feels that it is a waste of energy and a very selfish thing to remain idle from war to war.

"The other argument is less altruistic, but is nevertheless an argument of common sense: If a society stands still from war to war that society will be dead when war comes. In order to make the society efficient in time of war, it ought to be made to render efficient service in time of peace."

No more interesting session was held than that in which Mabel T. Boardman presented the report of forty-two different activities carried on by the American society since the last conference. These activities dealt with suffer-

ing caused by fire, flood, earthquake, storm, and shipwreck, together with service in small wars in Mexico, Honduras, and Nicaragua.

Two or three delegates criticized this report and held that it was unwise for the Red Cross to render any service except in time of war. The British society for example holds itself absolutely for service in war. The British delegates, Sir John Farley of England and Col. Carleton Jones of Canada, asserted that peace activities cheapened the name and the emblem of the Red Cross. Their criticisms called out many responses,—including one from France and one from Italy which strongly endorsed the American position. "Why," said these delegates, "train people for service and then let them sit idly by while our citizens are killed or ruined by disaster?"

With the exception of the British delegates, the conference was practically agreed that the Red Cross ought to be made useful in time of peace. Five years ago in London, such an agreement could not have been reached.

"A few conferences ago," said Mr. Bicknell, "the entire attention of the delegates was given to war matters. From our point of view the session in which the delegates spoke so emphatically in favor of the peace activities of the society was the high point of the conference."

"Is there not a danger, Mr. Bicknell," said I, "in having the Red Cross enter the field of general philanthropy?"

"The danger is more apparent than real," he replied. "It would be a very great danger if the Red Cross Society were anxious to become either another relief-giving agency or to compete with the societies already in business for doing particular pieces of work. Where the Red Cross Society does any general philanthropic work, in this country it does so by co-operating with existing agencies. Moreover, remember that in Europe most philanthropies are governmental or semi-governmental. There is no danger, therefore, of a conflict. The German Red Cross Society is practically the only society in that country for the prevention of tuberculosis. How much better to have all

that splendid, efficient machinery used for some imperative human need than to have it remaining idle and waiting for a war."

I saw the vice-president of the American National Red Cross¹ this afternoon studying the very interesting exhibit in connection with the conference.

"What impresses you the most, Mr. deForest, in all this Red Cross work?" I plumped the question at him suddenly, but he was ready with an answer.

"The tremendous preparation to relieve suffering in war," he replied, "which by making war we are causing. On one hand, we are creating conditions; on the other hand, we are seeking to mitigate them."

That kind of a reply which gets right down to the bed rock basis of cause is what we might expect from the president of the New York Charity Organization Society.

It may be the imagination of an optimist, but I am profoundly convinced that the Red Cross Society, instead of being an organization which condones war, is rapidly becoming one of our strongest forces against war. Peace reformers find some of their strongest allies among these delegates.

Another thing of much importance especially to the American delegates is the plan for the first time presented to an international conference whereby the Red Cross Society may render service in a time of civil war. This is one of the most delicate and difficult of topics. As Mr. Bicknell remarked it is "jammed full of dynamite." When war was raging last year between Diaz and Madero in Mexico, the Red Cross offered its services to the president of the Republic not only for the benefit of the federals but also for suffering revolutionists. The Mexican government declined on the ground that it could not give a guarantee of protection to the Red Cross flag or Red Cross workers, as the rebels were an irresponsible body.

Fighting went on close to the American border. Men were shot and left uncared for on the field,—sometimes within ten feet of the American line.

¹Robert W. deForest of New York City.

Common humanity made it necessary for the Red Cross to take action. Their doctors and nurses had no assurance of safety, but they went across the line, gathered up the wounded, and cared for them, sometimes in Mexico, and sometimes in the States, but without the protection of international law.

This weak spot in the field of Red Cross activity was seriously debated by the American society. They got Joshua Clark of the state department to prepare a scheme by which it would be possible for a country in which a rebellion was in progress to let a Red Cross Society into the field, to help both sides, and at the same time avoid giving recognition to insurgents.

This paper was put into French, and sent abroad to all delegates some weeks before the conference.

When they arrived in Washington, nearly all foreign delegates expressed alarm over the dangerous American proposal. Nothing, it seems, is more difficult to avoid than "recognition." The American proposal was referred to a special committee which reported that it was a matter which could not properly come before the conference. The American delegates were not committed to Mr. Clark's particular plan, but were very anxious to have the matter go on record. It would be useful at some future conference. By the hardest kind of work they secured general agreement at the time of the report of the committee to permit Mr. Clark to make a brief statement of the American position, which thus becomes a matter of history and paves the way for action by and bye.

Henry White, former ambassador to Rome and France, presided over the sessions. Count Somaglia, vice-president of the Italian society; Dr. Farkas of Budapest, and Baron Ozawa of Japan were among the most picturesque figures at the meetings. The Japanese delegates were all most progressive, intelligent, and up-to-date.

The exhibit has been of the very largest educational value to the people of this community as well as to the delegates. Never in the history of the Red Cross have the delegates come so close together

and been made so well acquainted with each other.

After all, acquaintanceship is what this old world needs. Whether differences be national, social, or individual, how often they fade away when men sit down together.

COMMUNICATIONS

THE STATE IMMIGRATION BUREAU

TO THE EDITOR:

I venture to ask you to give place to my comments upon Miss Claghorn's article on the First Year's Work of a New State Bureau¹ because it seems to me unfortunate that a statement that might be considered most discouraging to those who labored for the creation of a bureau should be allowed to go unchallenged.

Every reason that existed for creating the bureau exists for continuing and strengthening it. The need for it arose from the continued failure of existing agencies, public and private, properly to protect the alien immigrant from exploitation in certain essential matters during the first years of his life in America.

The impression of success or failure is vital to the extension of the principle of protection for the immigrant, as New York was the first state to organize an immigration bureau which was in reality a bureau for the immigrant and not a land settler's agency.

The bill was drafted and the bureau's duties were outlined for a \$41,000 appropriation. The program would not have been impossible and open to Miss Claghorn's criticism of being diffusive if that amount of money had been appropriated. The law was left as drafted. The appropriation was cut to \$9,700.

After reading the annual report, it would seem that many of the criticisms in the article are unwarranted and there has been a failure to credit the bureau with important work actually accomplished. The chief investigator explained her method in her statement: "Owing to the experimental nature of the bureau, it has attempted to deal with all phases of the subject in order to lay a broad foundation for its future work and to outline the methods best adapted to carrying out the purpose which the legislature had in mind."

It seems statesmanlike for the chief investigator to spend the appropriation in the first year in an attempt to carry out the intent of the law as far as possible and thus convince the next legislature that the bureau should be more adequately supported. It is entirely creditable that the first insufficient state appropriation was supplemented from private sources. In fact, it exhibits a new attitude

¹See THE SURVEY, May 11, p. 269.

of office-holders that we are not often given to witness.

In her attempt to compute the actual results, Miss Claghorn states information compiled, but fails to note its use by employment centers, or that 459 persons were helped to secure employment. The writer states that the number of inspections is not given. She fails to have seen the chart foot-noted at the beginning of the chapter (page 33) which gives the facts that she thought had not been provided.

The critic states that little has been done to remedy transportation conditions and fails to note the number of complaints handled (page 129), the number of agents that have been investigated and the violators of law that have been ordered to comply (page 50); fails also to report that the bogus ticket has been almost entirely eliminated (page 50) and that one railway terminal and one coastwise line have already reorganized their transportation systems where aliens are handled so that the exploitation of these helpless persons by runners and porters has been largely eliminated.

It would have seemed proper to note the promise of the formation of a transportation system which is now under way, and that immigrant hotels are being licensed and regulated (page 55), and also a new set of dock regulations for runners and porters drawn up by Collector Loeb after conference with Commissioner Williams and the chief investigator of the bureau.

In referring to the new immigrant lodging-place law, it is stated that the law "covers mainly the question of publicity of rates and conformity to fire, building, and health laws of the state, leaving many forms of extortion and abuse untouched." The writer has failed to grasp the significance of this law, or she would have recognized in it one of the most sweeping pieces of social legislation. The bond now required from the lodging-house keeper before a license is given is from \$100 to \$500, according to the number of lodgers. This payment binds him "to obey all laws, rules and regulations, applicable to such immigrant lodging-place prescribed by any lawful authority." And the law further stipulates "such obligor shall discharge all obligations and pay all damages, loss, and injuries which shall accrue to any person or persons dealing with such licensee, or resulting from any fraud or deceit, conversion of property, oppression, excessive charges, or other wrongful act of such licensee or of his servants or agents, in connection with business so licensed."

Those familiar with the exploitation of the alien in immigrant hotels and lodging-houses realize what an effective weapon of defence this statute becomes for the immigrant.

The critic says, "It is perhaps no fault of the bureau that only 515 complainants have found their way to this division in the course of a year." The report states that 515 "complaints" were brought to the bureau, using the term to apply to charges against particu-

lar individuals or groups. In many cases, the number of complainants involved ranged from fifteen to twenty.

Some consideration might have been given the figures relative to those coming to the bureau for advice and aid in one form or another, and in connection with the cases prosecuted it should be borne in mind that all this work was done at no cost to the state, as the state had failed to provide for it in the appropriation.

In their preparation and prosecution, one counsel paid by private sources was kept busy all the time. The Legal Aid Society established an immigration branch to take care of the civil cases in which the state cannot proceed, and at the instigation of the chief investigator, the North American Civic League for Immigrants paid an attorney to handle the personal injury cases.

A most important result of the year's work, which should in justice to the bureau be mentioned, is that of thirty-six bank corporations which were prosecuted, and of the eleven persons or corporations seeking to defraud the alien of his savings who were prosecuted for violating advertising regulations; also the 123 prosecutions in cases dealing with notaries public, information bureaux, collection agencies, and lawyers. One of these concerns alone which has been put out of business had 15,000 aliens on its books from whom it was levying tribute, though this fact, so convincing as to the value of the bureau, was unfortunately not mentioned in the official report.

It seems obvious that the extent of protection granted by the complaint department of the bureau cannot be judged entirely by the number of cases handled. Reference might have been made to the very valuable legislation secured by the bureau's activity during the past year—three laws dealing with transportation matters and protecting the aliens from steamship agents and runners; two laws further regulating the pernicious dealings of private bankers; a law dealing with real estate dealers and others who would deceive the aliens through misleading advertisements, and another important enactment protecting the aliens from misrepresentation of terms of employment on the part of labor agencies.

Credit might have been given to the bureau for heading the movement resulting in the formation of a federation of state land, labor, and immigration officials organized in Washington last fall. This federation is now at work on the big subject of immigrant distribution.

Miss Claghorn's charge of duplication of other organizations is a serious one, and it is well to state in this connection that no dependents were handled directly by the bureau, but the aliens coming to the attention of the bureau were at once placed in the hands of the proper authorities. Moreover, it is well to bear in mind that helpless aliens who have been exploited are not necessarily subjects for charity, but in many cases for advice and direction.

The Department of Education is doubtless the logical department to deal with alien school children and alien education, but so far it has refused to do so. Duplication in matters of employment has not occurred as the state employment agency referred to went out of existence five years ago.

Frank, fair criticism is a valuable tonic for everybody. The fear that an unjust construction might be placed upon the work of the bureau prods me to this lengthy criticism of a criticism.

No doubt the bureau of immigration has failed to accomplish some things that its chief investigator, and those who stood sponsors for the new department, and Miss Claghorn wished. It is well to bear in mind that a new organization with great difficulties incident to the formation of a new piece of machinery, with limited appropriation, and concerted opposition from those who would prey upon the helplessness of aliens, needs the support and encouragement of all who are interested in promoting official responsibility for the helpless.

LILLIAN D. WALD.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

In brief reply to Miss Wald's letter, let me say first that I am particularly sorry that my statement regarding the fund contributed in addition to the official appropriation was misunderstood. I do not see how this could be interpreted in any other way than as it was meant, as a giving of due credit to the public-spirited officials who made this contribution.

As to the appropriation itself, I pointed out that the amount was entirely inadequate to carry out the work as planned, but this seemed to me a better reason in making administrative decisions for restriction of the field than for diffusion of the program. But this is a question of policy, in which, as in the other matters of policy discussed in the review, there is room for honest difference of opinion. I frankly expressed mine for what it was worth, not at all with the idea of belittling the bureau or its work, but with the hearty desire to see it as effective as possible, so that it might make a strong claim for continuance and the larger appropriation it needs.

As to the items of accomplishment omitted, to which Miss Wald calls attention, I was obliged owing to limitation of space to summarize results very briefly and omit all reference to plans or promises. It seems to me that the additional information presented by Miss Wald does not materially affect the relative proportions of the work as I outlined it; but I may be mistaken in this, and am glad that these further details have been presented, in order to remedy any lack of proper emphasis. I am also glad to be corrected as to the number of inspections, which I confess, I was unable to find.

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN.

New York.

THE LAW OF THE SEA AND THE LAW OF CLASS

TO THE EDITOR:

"No such plain lesson in the meaning of human inequality has ever been afforded," according to the English *Nation*, as the class list of those rescued from the Titanic. The facts are these. Of the saloon passengers 63 per cent were saved, of the second class 42 per cent, and of the third class 25 per cent. Nearly all of the women, 97 per cent, who were in the first class, 84 per cent of the women in the second class, and 55 per cent in the third class were saved. But it is among the children that the contrast is greatest. For although all the children were saved in the first and second classes only 30 per cent of the children in the third class were rescued. Among the men the proportions were 34 per cent of the men of the saloon, 8 per cent of the second class and 12 per cent of the third were saved. Commenting on what it calls this "damning schedule of human values," the *Nation* asks: "Is it not self-evident that no equal chance of life was afforded to the members of the three classes, that the wealth of the wealthy proved their salvation in this hour of need, and the poverty of the poor their undoing? How else explain, by the chivalry of the sea, why a larger proportion of the men in the saloon were saved than of the children in the steerage?"

There is no place where the contrasts of life are greater or crueller than on a modern ocean liner. For the profits of the company come not from those upon whom every luxury and attention is lavished but from those who are crowded in the barracks of the steerage. The first-class passenger, with a social conscience, ought to feel doubly the discomforts of those who are poorer than he when he remembers that he is enjoying light and air and space and food at the expense of the steerage. Certainly in the event of disaster he does not want to feel that he has in this unequal bargain purchased his own safety at the cost of the lives of children whose right to life, the rule of the sea should say, is superior to his own. And so as the *Nation* points out the American and English public should insist on knowing whether "equal opportunity was given to all grades of passengers to know that all women and children were wanted for the boats, what measures were taken for gathering them together on the decks where the boats were available, and whether preference was or was not given to saloon male passengers over second and steerage passengers. The fact that a number of extremely wealthy men are among those who lost their lives must not be permitted to obscure this wider and graver issue." This is the only way of indicating the rule that we want to prevail in the future.—A.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

JUNE CONFERENCES.

- BLIND**, American Association of Instruction for the Blind, Pittsburgh, Pa., June 25-28. Corres. Sec'y., W. B. Wait, New York School for the Blind, New York.
- BOYS' CLUBS**, Federated, Cleveland, O., June 11-12. Sec'y., George N. Putnam, 35 Congress St., Boston, Mass.
- CHARITIES**, National Conference of Jewish, Cleveland, O., June 9-12. Sec'y., Rose Sommerfield, 225 E. 63 St., New York.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, National Conference of, Cleveland, O., June 12-19. Sec'y., Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.
- OHIO STATE CONFERENCE OF**, Cleveland, O., June 12-13. Sec'y., H. H. Shlirer, Board of State Charities, Columbus, Ohio.
- CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION**, Young Women's, Southern General, Blue Ridge, N. C., June 5-15.
- SOUTHWESTERN GENERAL**, Monte Ne, Ark., June 14-24.
- NORTHWEST GENERAL**, Gearhart Park, Ore., June 25-July 3.
- WESTERN GENERAL**, Cascade, Colo., June 21-July 1.
- EASTERN STUDENT**, Silver Bay, Lake George, N. Y., June 21-July 1.
- EAST CENTRAL STUDENT**, Eagles Mere, Pa., June 25-July 5.
- EASTERN CITY**, Silver Bay, Lake George, N. Y., July 2-12.
- CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE**, Semi-annual meeting of Commission on, of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, Cleveland, O., June. Sec'y., Rev. Charles S. Macfarland, 215 Fourth Ave., New York.
- DEPENDENT, TRUANT, BACKWARD AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN**, National Conference on Education of, Cleveland, O., June 10-12. Sec'y. Elmer L. Coffeen, Westboro, Mass.
- EPILEPSY AND CARE AND TREATMENT OF EPILEPTICS**, National Association for Study of, Vine-land, N. J., June 3. Sec'y., J. F. Munson, Sonyea N. Y.
- FLORENCE CRITTENTON MISSION**, Twenty-ninth Annual Convention of the National Chicago, Ill., June 5-7. Sec'y., Mrs. Emma L. Robertson, 307 C. St., N. W., Washington, D. C.
- INDUSTRIAL DISEASES**, Second National Conference on, Atlantic City, N. J., June 3-5. Sec'y., John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.
- MEDICAL ASSOCIATION**, American, Atlantic City, N. J., June 4-7. Sec'y., Alexander R. Craig, M.D., 535 Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.
- NURSES**, American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for, Chicago, Ill., June 3-6. Sec'y., Jessie E. Cotton, Springfield Hospital, Springfield, Mass.
- NURSES' ASSOCIATION**, American, Chicago, Ill., June 5-7. Sec'y., Agnes G. Deans, 247 Hancock Ave., West, Detroit, Mich.
- ORGANIZING CHARITY**, American Association of Societies for, Cleveland, O., June. Sec'y., Francis H. McLean, 105 East 22 St., New York.
- PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA**, Cleveland, O., June 5-8. Sec'y., H. S. Braucher, 1 Madison Ave., New York.
- PROBATION ASSOCIATION**, National, Cleveland, O., June 11-19. Sec'y., Arthur W. Towne, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
- PUBLIC RELIEF OFFICIALS**, National Association of, Cleveland, O., June 12 and Warrensville, O., June 15. Sec'y., H. H. Shlirer, State Board of Charities, Columbus, O.
- REMEDIAL LOAN ASSOCIATIONS**, National Federation of, Cleveland, O., probably June 13-14. Sec'y., J. T. Enxicios, 914 G. st., N. W., Washington, D. C.
- SETTLEMENTS**, National Federation of, Cleveland, O., June. Sec'y., Robert A. Woods, South End House, Boston, Mass.
- WOMEN'S CLUBS**, General Federation of, San Francisco, Cal., June 25-July 8. Corres. Sec'y., Mrs. Frank Shiek, Wheatland, Wyo.

LATER MEETINGS.

INTERNATIONAL

- BATHS AND SCHOOL BATHS**, International Conference on People's, Scheveningen, (The Hague), last week in August. Gen. Sec'y., A. M. Douwes Dekker, The Hague.
- CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATIONS**, Fifth International Congress of the, Boston, Mass., Sept. 24-28.
- CHEMISTRY**, Congress on Applied, Washington, D. C., Sept. 6-13. Sec'y., Bernard C. Hesse, M.D., 25 Broad St., New York.
- EUGENICS**, First International Congress on, London, Eng., July 24-30. Information may be secured from Hon.-Sec'y., Eugenics Education Society, 6, York Bldgs., Adelphi, London.
- FARM WOMEN**, First International Congress of, Sethbridge, Alberta, Oct. 21-25. Sec'y.-Treas., Eleanor L. Burns, Sethbridge, Alberta.
- HYGIENE AND DEMOGRAPHY**, Fifteenth Congress on, Washington D. C. Sept. 23-28. Sec'y. Dr. John S. Fulton Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C.
- LABOR LEGISLATION**, Association for, Zurich, Switzerland, Sept. 10-12. Sec'y., Stephen Bauer, Basel, Switzerland.
- PRISON CONGRESS**, Quinquennial, London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y., F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.
- RELIEF**, Committee on Public and Private, London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y., Charles S. Loch, Charity Organization Society, London, Eng.
- SCHOOL HYGIENE CONGRESS**, Fourth International, Buffalo, N. Y., August 25-30, 1913. Gen. Sec'y., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, Convent Ave. and 139 St., New York.
- UNEMPLOYMENT**, International Association for Fight against, Ghent, Belgium, 1913. Amer. corres. officer, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

NATIONAL

- CHARITIES**, National Conference of Catholic, Washington, D. C., Sept. 22-26. Sec'y., Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.
- DENTAL ASSOCIATION**, 16th Annual Session of the Oral Hygiene Committee of the National, Washington, D. C., Sept. 10-13. Chairman, W. G. Ebersole, National Dental Association, Cleveland, O.
- INFANT MORTALITY**, American Association for Study and Prevention of, Cleveland, O., Oct. 2-5. Exec.-Sec'y., Gertrude B. Knipp, Medical and Chirurgical Faculty Bldg., 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.
- MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENTS**, American Society of, Dallas, Texas, Nov. 12-16. Sec'y., A. Prescott Folwell, 50 Union Square, New York.
- MUNICIPAL LEAGUE**, Annual Meeting of the National, Los Angeles, Cal., July 8-12. Sec'y., Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 121 So. Broad St., Philadelphia, Pa.
- PELLAGRA**, National Association for the Study of, Columbia, S. C., Oct. 3-4. Information may be secured from Dr. J. W. Babcock, Columbia, S. C.
- PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION**, American, Washington, D. C., September 18-20. Sec'y., Selskar M. Gunn, 289 Fourth Ave., New York.
- RED CROSS**, The American, Washington, D. C., December. Sec'y., Charles L. Magee, Washington, D. C.

STATE AND LOCAL

- CHARITIES**, Massachusetts State Conference of, Haverhill, Mass., Oct. 23-25. Sec'y., Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont St., Boston, Mass.
- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION**, Pennsylvania State Conference of, Wilkes-Barre, Pa., Oct. 29-31. Sec'y., William B. Buck, Charities Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

ANARCHY: FROM BELOW AND FROM ABOVE

In New England and in California there are disturbing indications of a disposition to appeal from the ordinary established institutions of society to a trial of force. Lawrence and San Diego are storm centers, but mutterings are to be heard also from other quarters of the horizon. Workmen are being told that the old-fashioned strike is futile. A new and better plan has been devised. They are to strike and at the same time remain at work. They are to draw pay from their masters, whom they are to hate with all the greater intensity, even as they practice the sabotage which means destruction of property and the endangering of life and limb. Let us make no mistake about the meaning of the doctrine of the class conscious conflict as preached by those who advocate "direct action." It means literal anarchy, organized lawlessness, the overthrow by force not only of the existing government, but of the existing morality and social order. To deny this would be easily exposed hypocrisy. Those who believe in orderly community life, in the usefulness of private property, in respect for the person and established rights of others, in enforcing the obligations of contracts, in morality as against unmorality, have absolutely no choice but to expose and oppose these teachings with all their strength.

There is one way, however, of attempting to stamp out these doctrines which can have no other effect than to encourage and promote them. The blood of martyrs has ever been the seed of the cause for which it is shed. Professor Simkhovitch, who is perhaps better acquainted than any other university teacher in America with the literature of socialism and anarchism, writes us as follows:

"The bitter class feeling has sometimes played here and elsewhere a most unfortunate role in the conduct of trials, with very disastrous results. The Haymarket Riot and the hanging of the so-called Chicago anarchists are directly responsible for many of the insane and anarchistic attempts since. A pamphlet issued by the anarchists called *The Chicago Martyrs*, containing the speeches of the anarchists and some documents issued later on by Governor Altgeld, has been published and translated into nearly every civilized language, and it was and is the chief anarchistic propaganda document. I am reasonably sure that this pamphlet played no small role in the mental development of Czolgosz."

There are those who would thereupon cry out that we must not allow such pamphlets to be printed, as the famous drunkard, on learning that a predecessor had lost his life from trying to blow out a candle when drunk, swore that he would never blow out a candle again. The remedy lies further back.

If, in Lawrence, men guilty of organizing a strike, but innocent of murder, are hanged or imprisoned for murder, no subsequent attempt to prevent the circulation of information about the event will avail to undo the mischief. If, in San Diego, men who promulgate obnoxious doctrines by peaceful means are clubbed, tortured, and shamefully maltreated by lynching vigilantes with im-

punity, not all the public schools of a generation can do enough in teaching the children to be law-abiding and considerate of the rights of others to counteract the consequences. Anarchy from below is detestable and dangerous. Anarchy from above is even more dangerous and detestable. There is no cure for the lawlessness of the street and the shop which does not rest upon a respect of law and a full guarantee of legal and constitutional rights.

We cannot believe that there will be a substantial failure of justice in Lawrence, but certainly there have been many incidents in the preliminary stage of trials not yet completed and in minor cases already decided which do not inspire confidence; and there are sinister rumors and symptoms of a public sentiment more bent upon "stern warnings" than upon doing even-handed justice. We cannot believe that the state of California and the federal courts in that state will fail to give protection and a redress of wrongs to those who have been criminally assaulted. Thus far, however, we have heard more in the way of justifying "extreme measures" than of an intention to deal impartially with anarchy whatever its origin.

Unless we are all unconscious converts to Nietzsche's doctrine of the "will to power"; unless we have outgrown our Christian morality of forbearance, and our American political traditions and social instincts, we shall set our faces against the doctrine of force, whether it take the form of "direct action" in the shop, or that of lawless suppression of free speech and movement. To compromise with either means disaster. Fortunately Socialists in their national convention have made clear their uncompromising hostility to both kinds of anarchy. No harm would come from equally clear cut declarations in the platforms of other political parties. The issues, however, are not to be settled mainly by the formulation of platforms, but rather by frank and fair-minded discussion, by sound elementary education, by steady and unsensational enforcement of law, and above all by the correction of recognized evils, not primarily for the sake of preventing the growth of anarchy, however desirable that may be, but fundamentally because the evils should be corrected.

No half way measures will suffice. Nothing less than the abolition of poverty, in the sense of deprivation of the necessities of a normal human life, will really satisfy the awakened twentieth century conscience. Even that is, of course, not the whole of a social program, but it is a good beginning.

The abolition of slavery advocated by Franklin and many of his distinguished contemporaries came after a hundred years as an incident of a costly and ghastly civil war. It might have come peacefully and constitutionally long before if men had been willing to pay the price. The abolition of poverty can be accomplished more easily, with less expense and with no great delay. The means are known, the only doubt is as to whether again men are willing to pay the price. Infectious disease, overwork, congestion, alcoholism, mental degeneracy, an inadequate educational system, and an obsolete penal system are the seven wonders of the modern world. They are all removable and with them will go that squalor and misery on which social discontent thrives. Brains and money and good will judiciously mixed are the prerequisites.

THE COMMON WELFARE

8-HOURS FOR WOMEN OUT IN WASHINGTON

To the Supreme Court of the state of Washington belongs a new distinction. It is the first American court of last resort to uphold the validity of an eight-hour law for women. This it did in a decision rendered a few weeks ago. The decision is of far-reaching importance for two reasons: It upholds the most advanced labor legislation for women yet brought before any American superior court; and it reiterates in defense of an eight-hour law the now classic utterance of the United States Supreme Court, sustaining a narrower labor statute.

"We take judicial cognizance," wrote Justice Brewer in 1908, "of all matters of general knowledge," thus in a sentence sweeping away the legal subtleties which had so long befogged the simple human facts as to health and welfare which justify these labor statutes. The Supreme Court of the state of Washington now amplifies Justice Brewer's words, and again lays stress upon the new defense of labor laws, introduced by Louis D. Brandeis. It says:

Courts in passing upon the reasonableness or unreasonableness of a statute, and deciding whether the legislature has exceeded its powers to such an extent as to render the act invalid, must look at the terms of the act itself, and bring to their assistance such scientific, economic, physical, and other pertinent facts as are common knowledge and of which they can take judicial notice.

And again:

Circumstances and occasions calling for its [the police power's] exercise have multiplied with marvelous rapidity in recent years, by reason of the well recognized fact that modern social and economic conditions have called into existence agencies previously unknown; many of which so vitally affect the health and physical condition of laborers, and especially female

laborers, that legislation of the character here involved has been sustained with greater liberality than was formerly evinced under less exacting conditions.

Of the powers and responsibilities of the legislatures in framing labor laws, this admirable decision says in unmistakable language:

We have before us, then, the question whether in this particular act the legislature has so far exceeded the necessary and reasonable exercise of the police power, in fixing the maximum daily labor at eight hours, as to render the act invalid. Any legislative enactment must be regarded as valid unless it unquestionably and palpably violates some right secured by fundamental law. All doubts as to its validity must be resolved in favor of the statute. Courts are not concerned with questions of propriety, advisability or wisdom of any statute. Those questions are for the exclusive consideration of the legislature. Legislative functions are not to be usurped by the courts. After we have given the statute a careful consideration in all of its bearings, if we are not clearly convinced that it is unconstitutional, we should resolve all doubts in its favor and sustain it.

While there are other distinctions, we think the only material difference between the statute sustained in *Muller vs. Oregon*, supra, and the one now under consideration, is that in the former the maximum limit was ten hours, while in the latter it is eight hours. Yet we cannot say that the limitation of eight hours is so unreasonable or arbitrary as to invalidate the statute. The question of the limitation to be fixed was one resting within the discretion of the legislature. It is common knowledge that a large portion of the working time for labor in this country is by private contract fixed at eight hours per day. It must be presumed that, after careful consideration and inquiry, the legislature concluded that a maximum of eight hours was a reasonable and proper limitation to place upon the world of female laborers in the factories and employments mentioned in the statute, and we are unable to conclude that the limitation thus fixed is unreasonable and arbitrary. Resolving as we must all doubts in favor of the act, we conclude it must be sustained.

"WITH BRUSHES OF COMET'S HAIR"

Artists are waking to the part civic art in its widest sense can play in America. At the third annual convention of the American Federation of Arts held at Washington in May, one session was devoted to the discussion of town planning, civic art, and the housing problem. The addresses on these subjects which were given by Cass Gilbert, past president of the American Institute of Architects; Richard B. Watrous, secretary of the American Civic Association, and Edward T. Hartman, secretary of the Massachusetts Civic League, recognized that art may be as well and as effectively developed on a "ten league canvas" as on one of ten square feet. These speakers even asserted that the larger canvas ought to be of the greater interest because it is constructive and big with human possibility.

We have largely confined housing reforms, declared Mr. Hartman, to efforts toward improving certain centers of fully and badly developed cities while embryo cities are everywhere starting without staff or compass and the fringe of every city is allowed to grow "like the bushman's beard." He went on:

An ideal development of a home district would provide houses of attractive design, large and small, according to the needs and means of the occupants, with open spaces about them, with vegetation, and all laid out with proper orientation in a street system combining both the practical and the aesthetic. Such development should characterize all districts, old and new alike. This is the positive side of the canvas. Every element in it adds to its constructive human values. Such a development will have good human and good aesthetic values. . . . If we should work for art, we should work for it in and around our every day lives. Success of the kind we have had in America has too much reserved art for special niches.

At the opening sessions special committee reports were given on art in the public schools, government art, and civic theaters. These were followed the next day by an address on civic institutions for the people of our large cities by Franklin W. Hooper, director of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. Leila Mechlin, the assistant secretary, re-

ported that as part of the educational work of the federation, exhibitions of oil paintings, water colors, arts and crafts objects, and engravings had been sent to forty-three different cities. Another feature of this propaganda was the preparation of five illustrated lectures which were sent to cities and towns remote from art centers.

The Titanic catastrophe cast a shadow over the meetings, for Francis Davis Millet, late secretary of the federation, went down with the White Star liner. A memorial meeting was held in commemoration of his life and work at which tributes were paid by Senator Elihu Root, Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, Charles Francis Adams, Cass Gilbert, and Charles D. Walcott.

SANITARY SURVEYS OF 1885 AND 1910

In describing before the New York Academy of Political Science the sanitary survey carried out in Springfield, Ill., in 1910, Dr. George T. Palmer, health commissioner, told how in the vaults of the city hall they only recently unearthed several massive volumes, the results of an earlier sanitary survey made in 1885 on a plan suggested by Dr. John H. Rauch, then secretary for the Illinois State Board of Health. The city council had appropriated \$1,000 for the purpose and this work was carried out with most minute detail. The net result of this painstaking application of a survey plan consisted of those big clumsy volumes, dusty, moth-eaten and stowed away in a vault. "In fact," said Dr. Palmer, "when our work was done in 1910, no one recalled that a sanitary survey of the city had ever been carried out."

In the discussion, one main difference between the two investigations developed. In the recent survey Dr. Palmer and his associates brought home their findings to the people of Springfield in a way that left no doubt as to their significance. Instead of hiding their light under a bushel they put it on a big map and in the newspapers where everyone could see what was menacing life and health in the city. Quoting Dr. Palmer:

We simply started out in Springfield to ascer-

tain certain definite facts and without the slightest idea how far or where our studies would carry us. We knew that the city had a higher typhoid fever mortality than other cities of like size and similarly situated. We knew that we had houses and tenements which served as centers of infection of tuberculosis and other diseases. We realized that our infant mortality was too high. We started out simply with the purpose of ascertaining the causes of our undue morbidity and mortality that we might be enabled to take intelligent steps to decrease sickness and lower our death rate.

The steps that followed—the investigation of shallow surface wells and springs, privy vaults, unsanitary vacant lots, and bad housing—were described a year ago in these columns.¹ But the survey was not completed at that time; and, says Dr. Palmer:

It is not now complete, nor will it be for several years to come. Each undertaking when completed, has pointed out something else that required attention and we found an aroused public interest urging us on.

The investigation of dairies led to a study of restaurants and bakeries, and at present the health department is engaged in an investigation of what the health officer is "inclined to regard as the liveliest public health problem of American municipalities"; namely, garbage collection and disposal. In other words he expects to continue applying "survey" methods to the regular administration of Springfield's public health work.

Believing that "the only way you can safely use a town as clinical material is to cure its sores," Dr. Palmer summarizes a few results to date, which he believes have justified their efforts:

For twelve years the average mortality from typhoid fever in Springfield has been something over forty per 100,000 population. In 1910, the year our investigation was undertaken, it was fifty-two. In 1911, the year after our agitation of polluted wells and the passage of sanitary ordinances, our typhoid mortality was in the twenties. The record of one year is not conclusive. Such a result immediately following sanitary agitation, however, is suggestive and encouraging.

In 1909, sixty-eight infants died from summer diarrhoea; in 1910, even after we had a good commercial milk supply, there were sixty-four deaths. In 1911 after our dairy inspections there were forty-one deaths. This may be coincidence, but it is suggestive. We

accentuated the civic needs of the city in every possible way, and we feel that we perhaps stimulated others to activity in their individual lines.

At any rate, whether our sanitary investigations had anything to do with it or not, a great many things have come about during the past two years. A detention home has removed children from the jail and has simplified the work of an excellent trained probation officer. A tuberculosis association of 1,000 members operates a dispensary and employs visiting nurses. Medical inspection of school children is established. The almshouse of Sangamon county is being thoroughly studied from a medical and sociological standpoint and provision is being made for county care of indigent consumptives. The dispensation of county charity has been placed in better hands. But, most important, the people are awakened to a necessity of a thorough knowledge of local conditions and a broad and sweeping survey of the city,—a real survey this time—is being considered and is practically assured.

A CARPENTERS' UNION IN A CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

No strikes have occurred in Dallas since the business men gave earnest of their genuine belief that the proper function of the Chamber of Commerce is to promote better relations between employer and employe. The announcement of this policy followed by definite measures "to correct living and working conditions for the man who toils with his hands" has caused the carpenters' union to apply for membership in the Dallas Chamber of Commerce. Alexander Sanger, its president, is sure that many more of the labor organizations of the city will follow this most unusual example. According to an officer, who has appeared before a number of labor organizations to bear in person the invitation of President Sanger to "join together under one banner whose only motto shall be 'do it for Dallas,'" a true spirit of co-operation was shown in every instance.

Success in settling difficulties which arose between the paper-hangers' and painters' union and the contracting paint and paper houses three years ago led to the ambitious plan of the Chamber of Commerce to make itself, through the power of earned public respect, the court of last resort on questions of business policy affecting the life and welfare of the city. One step which has tended to

¹See THE SURVEY, March 18, 1911, p. 1009

convince employes that the business men of the city wish to make living and working conditions more desirable, more pleasant, and more healthful, has been the formulation of a city plan. Dallas has undertaken to command the allegiance of all classes in its population by specializing in this plan upon three departments: city and district housing, public hygiene and sanitation, and parks, playgrounds, and social centers.

The belief that a city cannot prosper "unless housing conditions are satisfactory and unless the question of public health and sanitation is given proper attention" is spreading in Dallas. The secretary of the Chamber of Commerce epitomizes the new industrial gospel in Dallas when he says "laboring men are entitled to many things in the way of surroundings for health and environment for pleasure which they do not now get and which it is the absolute duty of the employing class to provide for them."

FIRE AND OTHER FACTORY HAZARDS

Fire prevention, industrial education, and workmen's compensation appeared again this year on the program of the annual meeting of the National Association of Manufacturers. The committee on industrial education reported progress along the lines laid down at the last annual meeting of the association. The committee, under the chairmanship of R. E. Miles of Wisconsin, has been collecting information during the year in regard to systems of industrial education in practice throughout the country and has been active in its support of the Page bill before congress.

The speaker on fire prevention was Franklin H. Wentworth, secretary of a mutual association, the National Fire Protection Association, which has been singularly successful in preventive work. He quoted the well-known figures, which cannot, however, be too often quoted, on American as compared with European fire losses. Thirty-three cents per person per year is the European average; three dollars per person per year is the American. Almost \$250,000,000 a year over a period of ten years; \$1,000,-

000 a day for the first two months of 1912 are some of the cold figures that make Europeans speculate as to whether we are a nation of incendiaries or a nation of children playing with matches.

The great question is in Mr. Wentworth's opinion how to make the inevitable fires less dangerous, how to make it possible in big cities to have the fire a unit fire, extinguished within tall buildings by a self-sufficient inside apparatus installed in the building itself. As the first and longest step toward abolishing the conflagration hazard in great cities, Mr. Wentworth held that all window and door frames should be fireproof; window openings protected by shutters, if possible—by wired glass, in any case. He believed that this precaution and the prohibition of shingle roofs—the cause of the Chelsea fire—would almost obliterate the conflagration hazard.

He reported that, in great part owing to the educational work of the National Fire Protection Association, twenty states have this year proclaimed fire prevention days.

The most interesting contribution on workmen's compensation, after the committee's report of progress, was an address by Frank A. Law of the Fidelity and Casualty Company. "Does the progress made so far enable us to determine the ideal toward which we should work?" he asked, and answered "I think it does." Continuing he said:

Workmen's compensation should be compulsory; that is, it should go into operation irrespective of the consent of employers and employes. It should be exclusive; that is, it should be the only remedy that the injured employe or, in case of his death, his dependents, should have against the employer. The remedies based on the employers' common-law or statutory liability for fault should be wiped out even where the employer is negligent. Workmen's compensation should apply to all employments, farm laborers, domestic servants, workmen in so-called non-hazardous occupations, and workmen in shops employing less than a stated number of men should not be excluded. If it is our purpose really to take care of injured workmen, or in case of death their dependents, we should not defeat our purpose in part merely because in some occupations injuries are less frequent than in others. Besides, if we create a condition where some classes in the community are

subjected to a burden and others are not, those who are not burdened will take a less vital interest in the burdens imposed on the others. Once the workmen's compensation system is firmly established, there will arise a movement to increase the benefits paid. There is less chance of a proper handling of the matter if the burdens all fall on the manufacturers and none on the farmers. The exclusion of the acts is probably due more to measures of political expediency than to any conception of justice or right.

OPTIONAL AND COMPULSORY LAWS

Pending the deciding of the constitutional question raised by the New York courts in such a way as to make compulsory law possible in all states, Mr. Law recommended the passing of optional laws. He analyzed what he regarded as the strong points and the defects in actual working of the various forms of optional law so far passed. He said:

An optional law, to be successful, defining success as the acceptance of the workmen's compensation system by practically all employers and employes, must possess certain characteristics. An optional law will not be successful unless, first, it is made more easy for employer and employe to come under the workmen's compensation system than it is to stay under the employers' liability system, and second the cost of paying compensation benefits is made less than the cost of the employers' liability settlements. Of all the optional acts that have been enacted in the several states, that of New Jersey has been the most successful. It has been successful because it possessed the two essential characteristics just described. The optional acts of Wisconsin, California, and Kansas have been failures relatively because it was necessary for employers to take affirmative action to bring themselves under the workmen's compensation provisions of the act by filing notice of the acceptance of such provisions with certain state authorities. Human nature as at present constituted is characterized by a good deal of inertia and people will not take the trouble oftentimes to do even the things that are advantageous to them.

The legislators in New Jersey, wise in their generation and recognizing human inertia, turned the procedure about and made their law a success by providing that the employer and employes should be presumed to have elected to come under the workmen's compensation provisions of the law if they did not give notice each to the other that they did not accept it. Another element in the failure relatively of the California and Wisconsin acts has been that the workmen's compensation benefits were made so large as to make them cost materially more than the employer's liability settlements. Here again the legislators

in New Jersey were wise and pitched the workmen's compensation benefits in their law at a moderate figure so that they would cost less than the employers' liability settlements,—I refer to the aggregate, of course, and not to the individual cases. As a result of these two features of the law, fully 80 to 90 per cent of all employers in New Jersey have come under the workmen's compensation section of the law. No other state has attained the success of New Jersey. Illinois may, however, as its law also provides that employers shall be presumed to have elected to accept the workmen's compensation provisions of the law in the absence of notice in writing filed with the state. Here positive affirmative action is required by the employer to get out from under the workmen's compensation provisions of the act. The average employer will be inert and will stay where he is put by the law. But under the Illinois act, no employe is bound by the workmen's compensation provisions of the act unless his employer furnishes him with or posts a legible statement of the compensation provisions of the act, and there is consequently a chance for a failure of the act to be effective in many cases. This is an unwise requirement, it seems to me, and points to the legislators losing sight of what after all was their main object, namely, the establishment of the workmen's compensation system in place of the employers' liability system. Both the New York and the old Massachusetts optional laws have failed, the first, because of the cumbersome provisions for registering consents to accept the act, and the second, principally I imagine because it devolved upon employers the necessity of working out the scheme of benefits. I greatly fear that the new Maryland, Massachusetts, and Michigan optional laws will not accomplish all that is hoped for through them, in the case of the last two because of the affirmative action required of employers to come under the workmen's compensation provisions. It is hardly safe to predict the outcome in Massachusetts, however, seeing that the plan presents novel features not possessed by any other act. In addition to the two above described characteristics of a successful workmen's compensation act, it is advantageous also to provide an incentive to employer and employe to accept the workmen's compensation system, thus as in the New Jersey Act the employer in case he refuses to come under the workmen's compensation system may be deprived wholly of his fellow-servant, assumption-of-risk, and contributory-negligence defenses; and the employe in case he refuses to come under the workmen's compensation system may be relegated to the common law without modifications in his actions for damages against his employer.

Mr. Law outlined in some detail the problems to be met in any act, laid down certain essentials for success, and dis-

cussed the relative merits of compensation and state or national insurance schemes and the attitude of the accident liability companies toward compensation legislation.

THE ONLY WAY TO RAISE THE MINETTAS: RAZE THEM

Greenwich House has recently become interested in a campaign to clean up Minetta street and Minetta lane, two narrow, crooked streets, each about a block long running between Macdougall, Carmine and Bleeker streets on the lower West Side of Manhattan. They have long been known for their disreputable resorts and, although they have improved within the last few years, are characterized by Inspector Daly as second to only one other district of the size in New York.

Greenwich House first took up the question of improving these streets with the various city departments in January. Several of the houses were vacated by the department of health and several owners whose houses were being used for purposes of prostitution were notified by the tenement house department and the tenants evicted. At about the same time an Italian woman, commonly known as Maggie, who owns a grocery store in Minetta lane and controls a large number of prostitutes in the street, was arrested, and has since been sentenced to three months in the penitentiary.

In spite of the co-operation of all the departments, however, it was evident that any such efforts could bring about only a temporary improvement. The houses are for the most part former dwellings, small, and so old that it is practically impossible to keep them in repair. They have for years been inhabited by Negroes and Italians of the lowest grade and it would be difficult to persuade a better class of people to move into them. Even if the living conditions in the two streets could be greatly improved it is doubtful whether the character of the residents would change, for the place has had a bad reputation for so many years that decent people avoid it. It seemed better, therefore, to Green-

wich House to concentrate attention on an effort to get rid of these streets entirely and put a park in their place.

A meeting to discuss the subject was held at Greenwich House early this spring and a report was made of conditions in the two streets. Inspector Daly and Officer Kellor of the police department reported that while there are undoubtedly many decent people living in both street and lane there were eleven houses in which either prostitutes or cadets live and there were thirty-seven immoral women in the two streets, sixty arrests of prostitutes having been made there since last June. School men, priests and probation officers, in the course of the evening's discussions agreed that the streets should be cleared away and made into a park or if this were impossible that they should be widened so as to permit the building of entirely new tenements. Representatives from the bureau of design and survey have made a diagram showing the proposed park, and Greenwich House hopes to succeed in having this plan accepted by the city within the next year.

THE FLOOD AND ITS AFTERMATH

After the army distribution of rations ends and before the victims of the Mississippi flood have had time to produce any kind of growing crop there will come an interval which all are anticipating with dread. In that interval the substantial planter with good credit will go in debt for food for his family, his labor and his animals. But what will the small farmer do whose assets are so reduced by his flood losses that his credit is gone? Some small farmers own their land, more are tenants. In the great refugee camps at Baton Rouge and Port Hudson and Harrisonburg about one-fifth of the population are small farmers. If this proportion holds good throughout the flooded district it means that approximately 50,000 persons whose homes have been submerged belong to the class which has slight credit even in normal times. Some of this class can weather the pe-

riod between army rations and crops but a large proportion cannot do so without help from the outside. First after the water goes comes the expense, heavy in most instances, of gathering the horses and cattle and hogs from the hills to which they were hurriedly removed and turning them to the farms with the roads and bridges destroyed and the lowlands a sea of mud. This is a serious problem as the distance to be traveled will be from twenty-five to forty miles. A great many thousand farm animals have been drowned and can only be replaced at large cost. When the farmer reaches his home he finds the house in bad condition, outbuildings carried away, fences destroyed, not a pound of food or a bushel of grain for his livestock remains. The grass is all gone from his fields and even the leaves on the bushes and trees are killed to a height beyond the reach of the animals. The farmer has no cotton seed or corn or peas for planting. He is in truth almost as helpless as when in the refugee camps and is cut off from the support which he received in camp. His family is subject to the scourge of malaria and typhoid which usually follow in the wake of a flood.

These are some of the reasons for the widespread sense of dread encountered wherever one goes in the flood districts. The army has performed its tremendous emergency work with admirable promptness and on a scale of astonishing magnitude, but the army's work must end with the passing of the emergency which required the saving of lives and provision for the temporary maintenance and shelter of the people. Upon local authorities and committees and the Red Cross the rehabilitation part of the great task must fall. For its proper performance this task will require many thousands of dollars and such intelligent and impartial distribution as will insure a fair show for the remote and the less accessible districts as well as for the larger and more conspicuous communities. In fact the more remote regions are the more helpless and needy. The army will soon have completed its part. Now the public must assume the burden.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE SOUTHERN SOCIOLOGICAL CONGRESS

A. J. McKELWAY

Commissioner Kate Barnard of Oklahoma, on a visit to Nashville, suggested the sociological congress to Governor Ben W. Hooper. Governor Hooper, once an orphan boy, and now interested in all social reforms—he used his influence for the advanced Tennessee child labor law and is deeply concerned over prison problems—instantly favored the suggestion. Having sought the aid of J. E. McCulloch, who acted as executive secretary, he called the congress to meet in Nashville, May 7 to 10. Two directors were appointed from each state and the District of Columbia, a program was arranged, on which appeared the names of a large number of southern students of social problems, and the meeting attracted many national leaders in the field of social work. The first question before the organizers of the conference was whether the Southern Sociological Congress should be made a permanent organization. It was felt at the initial meeting of the board of directors that the congress had no justification for existence on any theory that there are social problems peculiar to the southern states. It was agreed that the Negro problem, down for a full share of discussion, was most acute in the southern states, but was itself only one phase of the same racial problem which confronts the people of the Pacific Coast. So far as this is part of the city problem the people of New York and Philadelphia share it with the people of Savannah and New Orleans. It was agreed that problems of child welfare, of the care of dependent, delinquent, afflicted, and working children, with questions of infant mortality, child hygiene and recreation, were by no means peculiarly southern problems. Nor could the case be made out for any other of the topics discussed.

One of the opening addresses was on Southern Problems That Challenge Our Thought, but the speaker, G. W. Dyer,

professor of sociology at Vanderbilt University, confined himself largely to the problems of the city which have become acute in the South through the rapid change in recent years from rural to urban community life.

On the other hand, it was felt that the conference would be of unquestioned value in mobilizing southern resources and southern interest for advancing upon the common social problems of the nation, and it was argued that a southern congress would be more largely attended by southern people interested than would the National Conference of Charities and Correction, except when that body met in a southern city. Alexander Johnson estimated that attendance at the national conference in a northern or western city would cost the 700 or 800 delegates at Nashville \$30,000 more in traveling expenses alone. The registration at this congress was far in excess of the registration from the southern states at the national conference.

The educational value of discussions carried by southern newspapers was also a consideration in favor of a permanent organization, and it was felt that there was a large amount of undeveloped talent for leadership in social service in the South, which these interstate meetings could bring to the surface. Leaders would come to know each other, and "swap" experiences. The decision therefore was to make the organization a permanent one, to have annual meetings, but to hold them in conjunction with the national conference whenever that body came to a southern city. The experience of the national body was largely drawn upon in framing a constitution.

The following officers and committees were elected:

President, Ben W. Hooper, Tennessee.

First Vice-president, A. J. McKelway, Washington, D. C.

Second Vice-president, Kate Barnard, Oklahoma.

Executive Committee: Mrs. W. L. Murdock, Birmingham, Ala.; Prof. C. H. Bocker, Arkansas; Dr. Wickliff Rose, Washington, D. C.; Prof. L. L. Bernard, Gainesville, Fla.; W. Woods White, Atlanta, Ga.; Bernard Flexner, Louisville, Ky.; Agnes Morris, Baton Rouge, La.; H. Wirt Steele, Baltimore, Md.; A. T. Stovall, Okaloosa, Miss.; Prof. C. A. Ellwood, Missouri; Clarence H. Poe, Raleigh, N. C.;

H. Huson, Oklahoma City, Okla.; Judge J. H. McCullough, South Carolina; W. R. Cole, Nashville, Tenn.; Prof. C. S. Potts, Austin, Tex.; Dr. J. T. Mastin, Richmond, Va.; Governor Thomas Glasscock, West Virginia.

Chairmen of Standing Committees: Public Health, Dr. W. S. Rankin, North Carolina; Courts and Prisons, John H. DeWitt, Tennessee; Child Welfare, A. J. McKelway, District of Columbia; Organized Charities, J. C. Logan, Georgia; the Negro Problem, J. H. Dillard, Louisiana; the Church and Social Service, John A. Rice, Texas.

In the absence of Governor Hooper, who was ill, the scope of the meeting was outlined by Ira Landrith, former secretary of the Religious Education Association, who touched epigrammatically each of the problems to be considered.

While it would be impossible to discriminate among the important addresses of the congress without unwittingly doing injustice, the writer was especially taken with those of C. S. Potts of the University of Texas, on the indeterminate sentence; W. H. Oates, on prison conditions in Alabama; Owen R. Lovejoy, on child labor in the South, an address which made a marked impression in its fearless setting forth of the facts and its tactful appeal to the best southern sentiment; W. H. Thomas of Alabama, on the Negro and crime; Dr. Henry F. Coke, on the relation of education and social work; John M. Glenn, on co-ordination and co-operation; Charles S. Macfarland, on the church and modern industry, and W. Woods White, on the money shark business. Several of the visitors to the congress declared that Mr. White's explanation of his loan and savings institution in Atlanta, which is unique in its methods and admirable in its results, was itself worth the expense of attending the congress. The editors of *THE SURVEY* held the boards at the closing evening session, Edward T. Devine speaking on the call of the social worker, and Graham Taylor on the qualifications of the social worker.

The range of the discussions at the congress were reflected in a stirring social program drafted by the organization committee. To their mind the congress should stand:

For the abolition of the convict lease and contract system, and for the adoption of modern principles of prison reform;

For the extension and improvement of juvenile courts and of juvenile reformatories;

For the proper care and treatment of defectives, the blind, the deaf, the insane, the epileptic, and the feeble-minded;

For the recognition of the relation of alcoholism to disease, to crime, to pauperism, and to vice, and for the adoption of appropriate preventive measures;

For the adoption of uniform laws of the highest standards on marriage and divorce;

For the adoption of uniform laws on vital statistics;

For the abolition of child labor by the adoption of the uniform child labor law;

For the adoption of school attendance laws, that the reproach of the greatest degree of illiteracy be removed from the South;

For the suppression of prostitution;

For the solving of the race question in a spirit of helpfulness to the Negro, and of equal justice to both races;

For co-operation between the church and all social agencies for the securing of all these results.

THE ROOT AMENDMENT

HERBERT PARSONS

The Dillingham immigration bill had, as it came from the Senate, a clause known as the Root amendment, which provides that any alien who takes advantage of his residence in the United States to conspire with others for the violent overthrow of a foreign government recognized by the United States may be deported by the secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor. This amendment was designed to meet the Mexican situation, where American lives and interests are said to be in danger as the result of conspiracies hatched by Mexican insurgents just over the border on our side.

If the Mexican situation is to be dealt with, then it would seem that the proper way to reach it is by amending the so-called neutrality statutes so that American citizens, as well as aliens, can be punished, after a regular trial, if they violate fair and necessary neutrality. A glance at this provision will show, however, that it is very much broader than the Mexican situation calls for, and that it strikes at one of the proudest traditions in American life, for it would submit to summary deportation any alien, no matter how eminent, who came to this country to plead the cause of his oppressed fellow countrymen.

Our own government was founded on the right of revolution. It came into being by "the violent overthrow of a foreign government" recognized by other countries. On the principle of the Root amendment, Benjamin Franklin should not have been allowed to plead our cause in France.

To this free country we have been accustomed to welcome those struggling for liberty in other countries. Had this clause been law, many of the Germans of '48 would have been deported; Kosuth, instead of being received by Congress, would have been held at Castle Garden for return by the next steamer; Garibaldi would have had his sojourn among us rudely interrupted; Irish home-rulers coming here to enlist the sympathy and financial support of Irish-Americans would have been harshly turned away, and we would have been deprived of much of the Irish brawn and muscle which aided so materially in the building of our railways a generation or more ago; and, though we fought Spain to free Cuba, Cubans here could not have asked our support against Spain.

Is it not cause for satisfaction to us as citizens of a republic that Chinese here plotted for the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty, Mexicans for the overthrow of the absolutism of Diaz, and Young Turks for the liberal movement in Turkey? What American has recently appealed more to the imagination than Shuster in his work for the oppressed Persians? And yet, if this amendment should become law, and some Persian, still hoping to rescue his country from autocracy, should visit us to enlist the interest of Shuster and his friends, he would be deported.

Every American educational institution in foreign countries has been a breeder of revolution. One of the claims to fame of Robert College in Constantinople, religious institution though it is, lies in its moral and personal contribution to the Young Turk movement. A Chinese cadet from our own West Point joined the revolutionary forces.

Moreover, we have always sympathized with those struggling for popular institutions. As Daniel Webster, when secretary of state put it, the United

States cannot "fail to cherish always a lively interest in the fortunes of nations struggling for institutions like their own." We owe much to those of our countrymen who came here to escape political oppression. No roll of citizens has a finer list of American names. Their faith in popular institutions has been an inspiration and their service to their adopted country most notable. Our own and all history, including that of the last decade, shows that autocracy and non-popular governments, existing as they do largely by force or the ability to use force, can generally only be overthrown by force or the threat to use force. And our interest should not cease, therefore, if violent overthrow of an existing government is sought.

This provision is also contrary to the enlightened opinion of mankind. England, France, Italy, Switzerland, and Sweden decline to extradite political refugees who are charged with political offenses, the term political offenses generally relating to an attempt violently to overthrow an established government with which other countries are at peace. That is a principle of international law. The United States has recently had occasion to reiterate it in the case of political refugees from Russia. And until this amendment our country's policy in such matters had been so pronouncedly favorable to political refugees that John Sherman, when secretary of state, said, in regard to the case of Guerra, a Mexican political refugee, that the policy of the United States had always been to resolve any doubts in favor of liberty.

MUSCATINE

HARRY F. WARD

Significance lies in the Muscatine¹ situation in its clear revelation of the consequences to the community not simply of industrial strife, but of the conditions which cause it and of those which leave the community unable to find a way out of it. After a year of industrial warfare, with its economic and moral waste, Muscatine stands bewildered, incoherent, impotent. To what

extent is this typical of the national attitude in the wider industrial situation?

Muscatine is paying the penalty of a lack of organization. Button-making has been and is an unorganized industrial process. The conditions and disputes that caused the present conflict root in that fact. Like its principal industry the town itself had not organized its community life. Its present condition is the inevitable result of that failure. Like so many towns, originally agricultural and gradually developing industrial interests, it has grown up in sprawling, haphazard fashion. It has not even a paid fire department. Its forces of law and order, its administration of justice, its ordinances, are all adapted to the simple conditions of an agricultural community, and were either ineffective or brutally unjust under the strain of an industrial situation. The community is now anxious to patch up peace and determined to enforce order, but it is not yet ready to organize its life so that its factory workers shall have justice. In this lack of organization and this willingness to temporize, Muscatine is not a sinner above others. It shares the national attitude.

Another aspect of this same situation is the incoherence of the community mind. There is no community consciousness because there has been no center around which it could focus. The mind of the community, like its external organization, is individualistic, rural, neither developed nor organized to the point of comprehending an industrial situation. There is the widest disagreement concerning the facts; indeed, there is a most general ignorance concerning the facts. There is no community means of getting them. The only newspaper which tried to be impartial soon found its access to the facts limited because both parties to the conflict charged it with being controlled by the other side. With no means either within or without the community for impartially ascertaining and making public the facts, a community of less than 20,000 forms its judgments on prejudice, and reflects all the misconceptions that are current in the class cleavages of a great city. Aside from the immediate contestants, the community stands bewildered because of its

¹See article, page 390, by Samuel Z. Batten, of Des Moines College.

ignorance, resentful because of its injuries, and bitter because of its prejudices. It is vehement against the outsiders who are leading the workers and yet justifies the turning over of its police powers to hired men from private agencies in another state. It is angry against the disturbers of its peace, and yet oblivious of the real causes of disturbance which it had tolerated in its leading industry. Here again the condition is typical.

Another significant feature in the situation is the total lack of leadership in the community. There is no power to influence let alone control the settlement of the dispute. Organized religion has failed to exercise any effective leadership, even over its own adherents. The press has been unable to form the judgments of the community because where it was not biased, it was unable to get all the facts. The business group could not influence their associates to adjust their differences with their employees. The state stands impotent, while the community life is wasted. This failure in leadership rests on the fact that there was no agency to inform public opinion, to discover and make known the real facts in the case. Here again we touch a national condition, and Muscatine is simply another argument showing in agricultural states the necessity for the proposed Federal Commission on Industrial Relations and for state bodies with similar powers for publicity.

Underneath this Muscatine situation, when all the complications of the long struggle are cleared away, there stands out clear and sharp the issue which is fundamental in the general industrial conflict. On one side stand the masters, the autocrats, asserting the right to control the industry which they imagine they have built, without regard to the interests either of the workers or of the community, except those interests which they themselves in their limited fashion choose to recognize. On the other side stand the workers, declining any longer to be mere servants, asserting the rights of free men, demanding to know and to approve the conditions of their work and wages, refusing to permit any other group to hold their lives in its competent or incompetent hands. It is a typical in-

cident in the world-wide struggle to somehow realize democracy in industry, and there can be no industrial peace until the fundamental principle of the democratic control of industry is generally conceded. Then we can proceed with the urgent business of giving form and body to this principle of organizing industry for the benefit of the entire community.

END OF THE ANTHRACITE SUSPENSION

J. J. CURRAN

Rector Holy Savior Church, Wilkes-Barre

The seven weeks' suspension in the anthracite regions of Pennsylvania is now over and almost forgotten. The noisy wheels of industry that were stilled during the period of idleness are again whirring and buzzing as vociferously as if they had never stopped. No sooner had the Wilkes-Barre convention officially declared the suspension at an end than the companies rushed their mules back into the mines, and men hurried into the dark caverns with their mining tools to be ready for resumption on Wednesday morning, May 22—the day this is written. And now the miners and laborers, car runners and mule drivers, company hands and slate pickers may be seen winding a way to the pits as leisurely and buoyantly as though there had been no suspension or thought of prolonged and bitter industrial war. The entire region has resumed its usual air of optimism and security. The merchants and other business men have drawn a deep breath of relief and have already doubled their orders for summer goods. In fact, there is no class of citizens in these parts who are not rejoicing at the close of a suspension, which is now only a matter of history.

As to the merits of the terms of agreement between the representatives of the miners' union and those of the coal operators, I am not afraid to assert that they are not altogether satisfactory to the miners. Five per cent is a small advance in their wages, particularly when we consider that the cost of living is almost daily growing higher, and that the agreement between the men and the operators is to last for four years. No



Boardman Robinson in N. Y. Tribune.
THE MINER EMERGES

less than 10 per cent over the sliding scale should have been accepted by the sub-committee of the mine workers, and on refusal of such demand, the men would have backed their leaders even to the risk of prolonged and bitter struggle.

And now that it is all over and little or no damage done to anybody, a word of praise is due the miners for their patience and maintenance of peace during the crucial period.

One hundred and seventy thousand men and boys of nearly all tongues and nationalities under the sun were in voluntary but precarious idleness for a period of almost two months. It was the incipency of a threatened and bitter industrial war which every man faced with a grim determination foreboding anything but happiness throughout the entire coal fields. Not a man gave sign of breaking the solid ranks; not a man budged from his stolid and fixed attitude to fight it out to the bitter end, even at the risk of life, limb, and property. And yet, the regions were as tranquil and inviting as a period of seven weeks of Sundays. The few little flurries of antagonism to workmen engaged in lawful and necessary repairs were occasioned more by the obtrusion of meddling outsiders than by those who were most interested in the cause of labor. The subordinate officers

of the union had the situation well in hand from the beginning, and in many instances were officially deputized by the various county sheriffs to maintain the law and enforce order when necessity required it.

Thus have the anthracite miners of Pennsylvania proved for the third time within the last twelve years their title to the name of a peace-loving and patriotic people, and without forfeiting at any time the title of brave soldiers in the crisis of an industrial and defensive warfare.

CONTROL OF VENEREAL DISEASES

PRINCE A. MORROW, M. D.

It has long been the reproach of sanitary science that it has failed to evolve any effective scheme for the control of that large and important class of infectious diseases comprehended under the general term "venereal." While the sanitary authorities have within recent years been markedly aggressive in subjecting all other infectious diseases to sanitary supervision, venereal diseases have been practically abandoned to their own evolution. Although the Health Board of New York city was charged by the legislative enactment creating it with the duty of protecting the public health from every form of disease "dangerous to life or detrimental to health," and was armed with full authority to enforce the measures adjudged necessary to carry out this provision, until very lately it has not officially recognized the existence of venereal diseases. The recent action of the present Health Board requiring officers in charge of public institutions after May 1 to report patients suffering from these diseases, therefore, marks a distinct step in the advance of preventive medicine.

Of interest in this connection is the fact that the committee of seven appointed by the Medical Society of the County of New York to make a local study of the "prophylaxis of venereal diseases" in its report in 1901 strongly advocated the department's present plan. It recommended the registration of all

¹Report of the Committee of Seven on the Prophylaxis of Venereal Diseases in New York City by the chairman, Prince A. Morrow, M.D., December, 1901.

cases of venereal disease, urging "that physicians report "the nature of the disease and the origin of the infection wherever practicable, without giving the name and address of the patient." It further recommended "the bacteriological examination of diseased secretions, and increased facilities for the reception and treatment of venereal diseases"; also, that "every hospital receiving state or municipal assistance should be required to open its doors to this class of diseases," and that "all public institutions, hospitals and dispensaries should be required to report all cases." In the opinion of the committee, "education and treatment comprise the most promising remedial measures which are immediately available." The chairman of this committee has approached each administration of the Health Department since 1900, urging that venereal diseases be placed on the same plane of sanitary control as other infectious diseases dangerous to the public health, but the proposition did not succeed until recently—the chief reason given being that such action would encounter a strong hostility from both the medical profession and the public.

The present Board of Health deserves great credit for its courage in breaking with the policy of its predecessors. Other organizations also deserve credit for educating public opinion to sanction and sustain the board's action. It may be fairly claimed that the educational campaign inaugurated by the American Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis for disseminating a knowledge of the extent and dangers of venereal diseases, especially to the family and the race, has been of large value in creating professional and public sentiment favoring department control.

No further justification of this new public policy is needed; the law requires it and the interests of public health demand it. *Salus publica lex suprema.*

Some of the benefits that may be reasonably expected from the inauguration of this policy may be briefly enumerated.

First, it will have an educational influence of the highest value. The public is apt to base its appreciation of the significance and danger of infectious dis-

eases upon the attitude of the sanitary authorities; so long as the officials charged with the care of the health of the people, ignore the existence of venereal diseases, the public naturally looks upon their danger to health as negligible.

Second, the census obtained through notification and registration, however incomplete, at first, will awaken the perceptions of the public to the extent and magnitude of this hidden danger. The first and most essential condition to the correction of evils affecting society is that the public should recognize their existence and understand their significance.

Third, the proposed circulars of information telling the nature of these diseases and the modes of their contagion, direct and indirect, will be of the greatest prophylactic value. One active cause of the spread of these diseases is that they are contagious during a prolonged period and contagious even after apparent cure.

Fourth, the establishment of a bacteriological laboratory for the examination of the gonococcus and the application of the Wasserman reaction will enable patients of the poorer classes to avail themselves of these tests. This will be of special value in preventing the introduction of venereal diseases into the family, by men who suppose themselves cured and no longer infectious to others.

No one is optimistic enough to believe that health department control of venereal diseases will entirely solve the problem. It is not a purely sanitary problem and cannot be successfully worked out by sanitary methods alone. It is, in its larger aspects, a sociological problem complicated in its causes with economic and social conditions, which enter as essential factors. Many of these causes lie entirely without the pale of sanitary control. The communicative mode of these diseases cannot be touched by the strong hand of sanitary repression. It is a matter of personal control and can only be corrected by influences and agencies acting upon the intelligence and moral sense of the individual.

The entrance of the New York City Health Board into this field of prevention is not a signal for cessation of the

activities of other organizations which have been engaged in this prophylactic work for some years past. It is rather an incentive to more vigorous efforts. It furnishes a reasonable expectation that with the aid of this powerful ally the campaign against the venereal peril, undertaken by the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis in this country, will be ultimately crowned with success.

HOME FINDING BY A HUMANE SOCIETY

HOMER FOLKS

An interesting development of children's work has recently occurred in Cleveland. The Western Reserve Child Welfare Council, an organization including representatives of the governing bodies of fifty charitable organizations, institutions, and public agencies having to do with the care of needy children, reached the conclusion that there was great need of a centralized home-finding agency in Cleveland. It was believed that many children remain in unsuitable homes or institutions because of the lack of a well-organized, efficient placing-out agency in close co-operation with all children's work in the city. Instead of recommending the establishment of a new corporation, they urged the Cleveland Humane Society to establish a new department on home-finding and placing-out. Such a department has been established. Among those who urged such action were Bishop Farrelly, Director Cooley of the municipal charities, Judge Addams of the juvenile court, Dr. Wolfenstein, superintendent of the Jewish Orphan Asylum, and James F. Jackson, director of the associated charities.

This action is an interesting indication of the close co-operation and mutual confidence existing between the Cleveland Humane Society and other charitable agencies of that city. It is interesting to note that the humane society did not follow the lead of the American Humane Association and the Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children in New York and Albany, in opposing the establishment of a federal children's bureau. The Cleveland society followed

the example of the Massachusetts and Pennsylvania societies in earnestly supporting the measure. A recent bulletin of the Cleveland Humane Society, commenting on the matter, says:

For our part, we believe that publicity in the affairs of humane societies and other organizations dealing with children is necessary to ensure freedom from the evils and abuses which have too often brought discredit upon such organizations. No efficient agency need fear publicity. The great thing which the Children's Bureau will do, it seems to us, is to keep us all thoroughly informed of the exact progress of the battle against child neglect and dependency. How are we ever to win that battle unless all of the organizations enlisted on the side of the children are enabled to direct their forces intelligently to meet the constantly shifting conditions which constitute the enemy. Without a continual readjustment of work to actual needs we are in danger not only of becoming bad strategists, but also of relying upon weapons which may long ago have become obsolete.

The one question which occurs to us as possibly raising doubt on the advisability of the establishment by the Humane Society of a child-placing department is this: If the Humane Society is generally considered by the community as an agency existing chiefly, if not wholly, for the rescue of children from improper homes, will not the placing of a child in a family by that agency suggest to the community that the child was presumably suffering from improper guardianship, and will not a serious injustice thereby be done to many worthy parents compelled by misfortune, rather than misconduct, to surrender their children? There is nothing except tradition, to be sure, which would suggest that the words "humane society" have to do with the prevention of cruelty. A growing doubt has been felt by many as to the necessity of the permanent existence of a separate organization having to do exclusively with the rescue of children from improper homes. It is an open question as to whether one agency covering both preventive and constructive work would not have a better sense of perspective, and in the long run do the better work. Some of the societies for the prevention of cruelty to children are moving into this larger field. If they are to do so it would seem to us almost a *sine qua non* that they should first change their name.



VOTES FOR WOMEN AND OTHER VOTES

JANE ADDAMS



The comfortable citizen possessing a vote won for him in a previous generation, who is so often profoundly disturbed by the cry of "Votes for Women," seldom connects the present attempt to extend the franchise with those former efforts, as the results of which, he himself became a member of the enfranchised class. Still less does the average voter reflect that in order to make self-government a great instrument in the hands of those who crave social justice, it must ever be built up anew in relation to changing experiences, and that unless this readjustment constantly takes place self-government itself is placed in jeopardy.

Yet the adherents of representative government, with its foundations laid in diversified human experiences, must concede that the value of such government bears a definite relation to the area of its base and that the history of its development is merely a record of new human interests which have become the subjects of governmental action, and the incorporation into the government itself of those classes who represented the new interests.

As the governing classes have been increased by the enfranchisement of one body of men after another, the art of government has been enriched in human interests, and at the same time as government has become thus humanized by new interests it has inevitably become further democratized through the accession of new classes. The two propositions are complementary. For centuries the middle classes in every country in Europe struggled to wrest governmental power from the nobles because they insisted that government must consider the problems of a rising commerce; on the other hand the merchants claimed direct representation because government had already begun to concern itself with commercial affairs. When the

working men of the nineteenth century, the Chartists in England and the "men of '48" in Germany, vigorously demanded the franchise, national parliaments had already begun to regulate the condition of mines and the labor of little children. The working men insisted that they themselves could best represent their own interests, but at the same time their very entrance into government increased the volume and pressure of those interests.

Much of the new demand for political enfranchisement arises from a desire to remedy the unsatisfactory and degrading social conditions which are responsible for so much wrong-doing and wretchedness. The fate of all the unfortunate, the suffering, the criminal, is daily forced upon public attention in painful and intimate ways. But because of the tendency to nationalize all industrial and commercial questions, to make the state responsible for the care of the helpless, to safeguard by law the food we eat and the liquid we drink, to subordinate the claim of the individual family to the health and well being of the community, contemporary women who are without the franchise are much more outside the real life of the world than any set of disenfranchised men could possibly have been in all history, unless it were the men slaves of ancient Greece, because never before has so large an area of life found civic expression, never has Hegel's definition of the state been so accurate, that it is the "realization of the moral ideal." Certain it is that the phenomenal entrance of women into governmental responsibility in the dawn of the twentieth century is coincident with the consideration by governmental bodies of the basic human interests with which women have been traditionally concerned. A most advanced German statesman recently declared in the Reichstag that it was a re-

proach to the imperial government itself that out of two million children born annually in Germany, 400,000 died during the first twelve months of their existence. He proceeded to catalogue various reforms which might remedy this, such as better housing, the increase of park areas, the erection of municipal hospitals, the provision for an adequate milk supply and many another, but he did not make the very obvious suggestion that women might be of service in a situation involving the care of children less than a year old.

Nevertheless, in spite of this lack of perception, women all over the world are claiming and receiving a place in representative government because they insist that they will not cease to perform their traditional duties, simply because these duties have been taken over by existing governments. Political rights have been accorded to them in Finland where women are sitting in the national parliament, in Sweden and Denmark where they are about to receive the full franchise, in New Zealand and Australia where they have exercised it for a quarter of a century: the extension of the franchise to women is discussed as an immediate possibility in England and France and has actually been given to a million and a quarter women in the United States. In certain other countries the entrance of women into government is pushed in connection with the efforts of their fellow countrymen to secure a further extension of the franchise for themselves. Certainly it does not require a social philosopher to draw attention to the fact that our age is characterized by an almost universal attempt to enter into government on the part of those hitherto outside. Not only have Russia and Portugal recently succeeded in establishing the constitutional form of government, but the desire for it has even reached Mohammedan countries where it is apparently opposed to their philosophy. Persia is at present working out a constitutional revolution under the leadership of the priests as

Turkey worked out a constitutional revolution unhampered by the priests. The latter is including women with that inveterate tendency of each revolution to incorporate into its program the most advanced features of existing governments. Following this zigzag line of progress both China and Siam in spite of their eastern customs have given women a political status in their new constitutions by extending to certain classes of them the right of suffrage.

The contemporaneous "Votes for Women" movement is often amorphous and sporadic but always spontaneous. It not only appears simultaneously in various countries but manifests itself in widely separated groups in the same country; in every city it embraces the "smart set" and the hard driven working women; sometimes it is sectarian and dogmatic, at others philosophic and grandiloquent, but it is always vital and constantly becoming more widespread.

In certain aspects it differs from former efforts to extend the franchise. We recall that the final entrance of the middle class into government was characterized by two dramatic revolutions, one in America and one in France, neither of them without bloodshed, and that although the final efforts of the working men were more peaceful, even in restrained England the Chartists burned hayricks and destroyed town property. This world-wide entrance into government on the part of women is happily a bloodless one. Although some glass has been broken in England it is noteworthy that the movement as a whole has been without even a semblance of violence. The creed of the movement, however, is similar to that promulgated by the doctrinaires of the eighteenth century: that if increasing the size of the governing body automatically increases the variety and significance of government, then only when all the people become the governing class can the collective resources and organizations of the community be consistently utilized for the common weal.

FIELD WORK IN SOCIOLOGY

ALEXANDER M. WILSON

Philographs by Pholanthropists



IN THE PRESIDENTIAL RANGE.

Do you know the blackened timber—do you know that
racing stream

With the raw, right-angled log-jam at the end;
And the bar of sun-warmed shingle where a man may
bask and dream

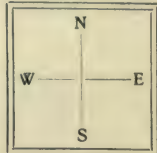
To the click of shod canoe-poles round the bend?
It is there that we are going with our rods and reels
and traces.

To a silent, smoky Indian that we know,—
To a couch of new-pulled hemlock with the starlight on
our faces.

For the Red Gods call us out and we must go!

*They must go—go—go away from here!
On the other side the world they're over due.
'Send your road is clear before you when the old
Spring-fret comes o'er you
And the Red Gods call for you!*

—KIPLING.





ACROSS WATER TO KATAHDIN.

One of the New England lakes, untampered with as yet by the city planners. Photograph by the secretary of the Massachusetts Civic League who forgot his anti-billboard-obia long enough to leave his sign among the lily pads.



ON THE NORTH SHORE OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

Up past Michipicoten Island where still lengthier names are to be learned on a six weeks' vacation. The fisherman is Graham Romeyn Taylor, and the thigh bone of the fish is preserved in the great hall of Chicago Commons.



Photograph by Paul U. Kellogg.

WHITE BIRCHES IN NOVEMBER.

On the lower Au Sable Lake in the Adirondack region where the Adlers, the deForests, the Whites, the Janeways, the Martins, and other folks whose names are familiar in New York reform movements are entered in the camp log books as regular comers.



BREAKING CAMP IN THE CANADIAN ROCKIES.

Where the Pacific Coast insurgents store up energy for the winter. Photograph by John A. Kingsbury before he became a Yonkers commuter and general agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

June 1, 1912.



"Mac" Wilson.

WHITEWATER ON THE HOUSATONIC RIVER.



AT THE TOP OF KATAHDIN.

Frank E. Wing, superintendent of the Municipal Tuberculosis Sanatorium of Chicago, is a registered guide of the state of Maine and knows every paddle stroke on the Allagash. For years, his camp on Upper Wilson Pond was known as far as Bird Centre for its Johnny cake, sow belly, spuds and tabac.



Lewis E. Palmer's legs with two bass which weigh six pounds five between 'em. Showing how Boston-1915 looked off duty.

June 1. 1912.

HALF the fun of a vacation is in planning it ahead. That's how I am having two full vacations this year before summer comes, for I'm planning four different beginnings to the outing that always ends with a few days with the family at the shore. First, a Boston lawyer, who grew up in the shadow of the Presidential Range and whose woodcraft is an instinct, wants me to help trace the route followed by two Indian tribes in an interesting hegira undertaken a hundred and fifty years ago. The Pequawkets and the Annequaticooks, allies, living somewhere near the center of Maine, suffered a disastrous defeat at the hands of a neighboring tribe, losing practically all their braves. Whereupon the widows and the children, with their lares and penates stored in birch canoes, started on an amphibious journey over into New Hampshire and then north into Quebec, where they found refuge with a friendly tribe of Hurons.



Up the "Gulf" back of Mt. Washington, a ladder scales a cliff which goes by the name of Wilson's Reach. When the trail was blazed the author was the only man long enough to scale it.—Ed.



Sam, the coming superman, with his three pound pickerel caught in Debsconeag Dead-water.



Whistling for a wind. Seymour H. Stone, secretary Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis.



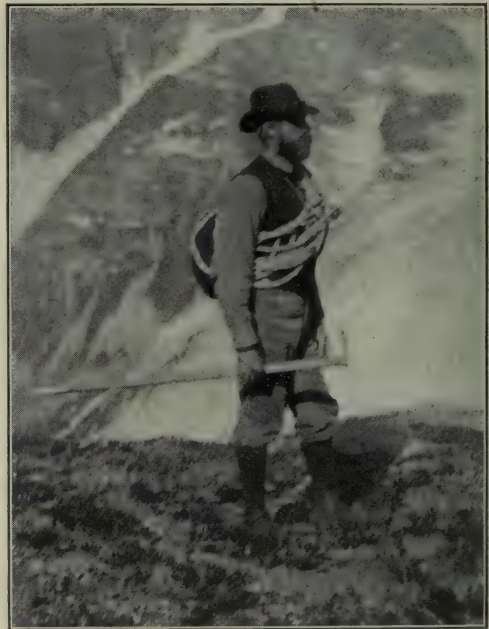
Sherman C. Kingsley of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund digging worms.

At one place it was necessary to make a twelve-mile portage over a watershed, but if those squaws and kiddies did the trick two husky men shouldn't balk! Now, our plans for this trip fell through last summer and bid fair to suffer a like fate again, but it's a stint we've set ourselves and some day we'll do it—in the meantime we're making those carries in our dreams.

Then a Philadelphia surgeon wants me to join him in a cruise along the Maine coast in his fifty-foot sloop. While I don't know the main sheet from the tender's painter, I'm a handy man at polishing brass and holystoning the deck, and on a long reach I can hold the wheel without letting her jibe; and then there's the cool plunge overboard in the morning, the lazy loaf with a book in a calm, and the sting of spray in the face in a beat to windward in a half-gale that periodically bring regret that the creek back home was fresh water and too small for a craft with sail. Alas, it is too late now to get much more out of sailing than the zest that is added to loafing by watching the crew at work!

Then Paul Kellogg says: "Let's go off into the woods anywhere for another taste of what we had five years ago at Temagami." To all of these plans, there is a tentative assent, but the heart-hunger is for the trip that eight-year-old Sam

and I planned on a recent Sunday morning just before the grand struggle I must make against his mighty efforts to hold me in bed. I mustn't tell you any more than that "the place" is in northern Maine, twenty-eight miles by stage from



Parker B. Field, superintendent of the Children's Mission, in the Canadian Rockies in '95. Nowadays Mr. Field, whiskerless, is more often seen hiking around the Blue Hills at the head of a walking party.



Frank Wing bringing in his bed—fresh cut balsam boughs.

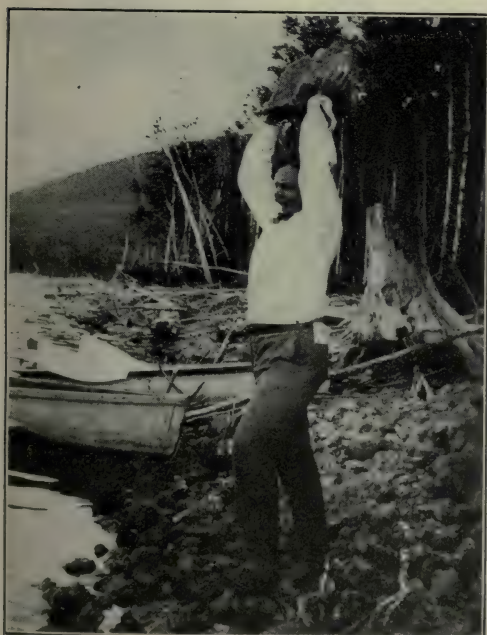


Allen T. Burns, secretary of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, as he looks in the Ontario woods.



One of the Chicago "bunch" darning his Sunday darning in camp.

the railroad and then by canoe five miles down a lake, and then half a mile down a river—one of those raw-right-angled-log-jam rivers. But it's two silent, smoky white men this time. They are kindly, gentle folk who live their bachelor life there in the log cabin they built last sum-



David heaving his pebble. David is W. Frank Persons, director of general work of the New York Charity Organization Society. The Goliath of Poverty may be imagined at the left, up to his knees in a Piscataquis pond.

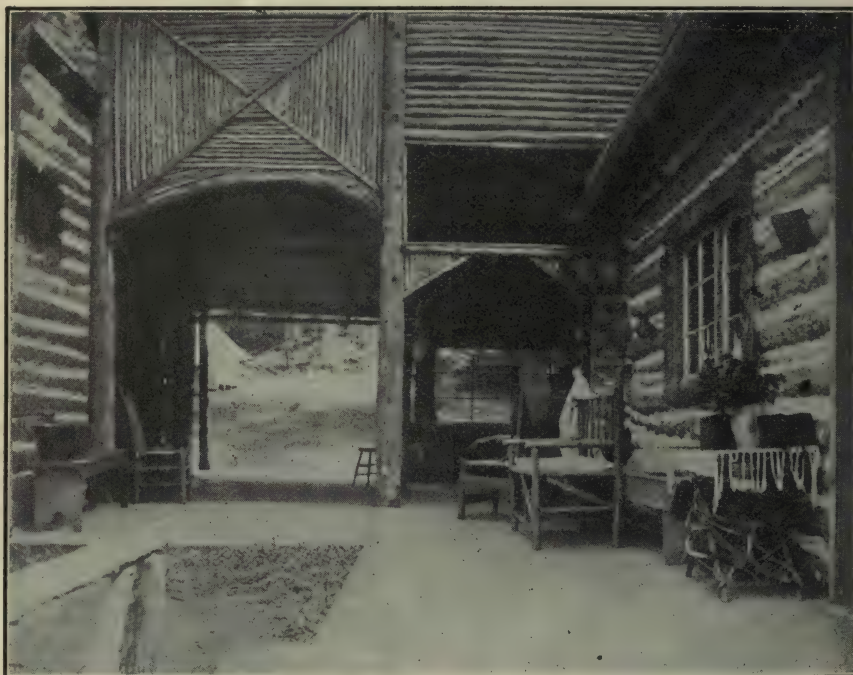
mer—trappers, wise in the lore of the woods, brother to the wild. The crystal-clear river sings an invitation to bask on its sun-warmed shingle or dive into its limpid depths or wade in its pebbly shallows. To the rear, a mountain's blackened timber tells the sad tale of a forest fire. Sam wants to creep with me up to the beaver-dam just this side the mountain and watch that childless pair of beavers gnaw the trees they fell for food and building material, and to hunt for the fawn that ambled along the mountain side in front of me for half a mile last summer, casting shy glances behind at the strange intruder.

Never come out of the woods the same way you went in. We will keep on down the river by canoe, for Sam makes a good bowman on a down-stream trip. He can walk around Stair Falls, but I've got to shoot the bit of water that gave me such a tussle as I poled up last time!

A day down a new stream in the North Woods! Up with the sun, a plunge in the river, a steaming breakfast, a packed kit, and off by seven. Leisurely paddling for steerage-way round new turns into fresh scenes, shooting a rapid, carrying round a fall, stopping for a snapshot at deer or blue heron, and eleven o'clock is here. Pull up on a bar of gravel and spread out the blankets for an airing. Undress for a swim, coming out to lie on the blankets for a sun-bath. Then



The woods in winter also have their "come hither." Alfred T. White and William Augustus White of Brooklyn near the Au Sable Lakes (Adirondacks) in a season of heavy snows.



The Cedar Room at Birchbay, the camp on Lake Memphremagog of Prof. and Mrs. Henry Raymond Mussey. Here, two years ago, a company of social workers spent a week in a cabin colloquy. Another colloquy is to be held this summer.

the dinner with the pipe to cap it—always at least a two-hour rest at noon! And at four o'clock begin to look for a likely camping place for the night. Pitch the tent and put the "wangan" inside, but make your balsam bed out where you can see the stars. While you are doing this for both of us, I'll get supper. Shall

I'll never want to eat again. Frank, how would you like this minute to be lying on the bank while a hundred lumberjacks are breaking up a log-jam on Ambijijis Falls? Or handling the stern paddle in Indian Pitch at Pockwockamus? Next time we go up Katahdin let's follow Thoreau's trail and I'll show you how he walked on tree-tops and tobogganed down waterfalls in icy Abol Stream, which gushes full-grown from the mountain side.

If you think a mile-high mountain means hard work, remember the plucky climb of Katahdin that Mrs. Frank made, or remember Margaret Byington who isn't half as big as you are and did it laughing. George Vaux, Jr., who eats Canadian Selkirks—at least they sound edible—would laugh at our little Appalachian Mountains, but they're the best we have near home, and there's a wonderful lift



THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF FARMING.

The farmer stands and views his lands
And tells his trusting wife and son
How, valiantly, with his own
hands
He'll toll, while they have all
the fun.

But turn the other page and look!
This is the way 'twill really
go—

A pipe and some deep, learned
book—
While wife and son, they wield
the hoe.

Besides being professor of Economics at the University of Wisconsin, director of the Milwaukee Bureau of Economy and Efficiency and a member of the State Industrial Commission, Prof. Commons has a pair of ducks-back breeches and a farm. The originals of photographs and verses were privately printed by F. A. King.



we have flap-jacks or corn-bread? And how about new potatoes with their jackets on? Say, open another can of that "caribou" milk! What's a kahki trouser-leg for but to wipe the cooking knife on? M-m-m, ain't it good! I've got to let out two holes in this belt—ah, now I can breathe! Well, Frank Persons, you can wash the dishes if you like,

to the soul that comes from climbing *any* mountain. Every halt for a rest brings a wider view and a new exaltation.

But don't put off your outings 'till that all-too-short vacation. Mix them in liberally with the year's work. There's always good country nearby for a weekend in the open. If you're in Boston, get Miss Coe and Parker Field to intro-

duce you to the Appalachian Mountain Club which has so happily perfected the machinery for getting outdoors. Then you may have Bow Ridge Camp in the Lynn Woods for your own week-end party almost any time. If you like the canoe, there's the upper reaches of the Charles, or the Squanacook, or the Ipswich, or the Nissitissit, or the Contoocook, or a score of other rivers that go rollicking to the sea. Have you ever paddled up the placid Concord, 'neath "the rude bridge that spans the flood"? Ask Seymour Stone, some time, to take you on snow-shoes over Wauchusett. Even the humble trolley will take you to the mountain fastnesses of the Blue Hills, and Alice Higgins will tell you where the apple blossoms grow. For sheer abandon in play, commend me to the town that owns Joe Lee!

Did you ever waken early enough as you drew into Chicago to see the sand dunes that shut off the view of Lake Michigan? They don't look very exciting from the train, but a few choice spirits will tell you that they are as interesting as the stockyards! Let Jens Jensen take you there for he knows everything that grows outdoors by its first name—and this is nature's botanical garden. You will stumble over the thorny cactus yourself, but he will take you to Quaking Bog and let you gather lady-slippers. I won't promise you any mountains near Chicago, but I've seen Judge Mack sweating laboriously up

some pretty steep hills at Palos and The Sag. The judicial ermine comes off on a June afternoon, also the coat and the vest, right down to the suspenders! Did you ever see the particular variety of barbed-wire fence they affect in Illinois? It fulfills two requirements of the Kentucky judge's definition of a fence—it's "horse high" and "bull strong," but it's hardly "hog tight," for the lowest strand is about one foot from the ground. How would the National Conference of Charities like to see its distinguished president give an exhibition of rolling under such a fence? Come with us on our Saturday afternoon walks and you may lose your dignity, but you'll get back something more worth while. Or come with Graham Taylor and his tow-headed son for a canoe trip down the Kalamazoo, which is only across the lake, or with George Hooker and George Sikes down the Fox. Or get Edith Wyatt to take you to Starved Rock on the gently flowing Illinois, where La Salle planted his brave outpost. Chicago herself doesn't half suspect it—she's so busy admiring her own sociological significance—but there really is some of God's own country not many

miles from "the loop." O you Chicagoese—a s Walt Whitman would apostrophize you—go out to Camp Algonquin in the winter time and let Amelia Sears lead you in a game of Fox and Geese!

Whoever you are, wherever you live, whatever your job, a little play under the open sky will lighten you. Won't you come out and play with me?



A PASTORAL.

The Elfin Ring at Cedar Lodge overlooking Lake Memphremagog where for a quarter of a century the Barrows have spent their summers.

EAST INDIAN IMMIGRATION TO THE PACIFIC COAST

H. A. MILLIS

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE U. S. IMMIGRATION COMMISSION'S INVESTIGATIONS
IN THE ROCKY MOUNTAIN AND PACIFIC STATES

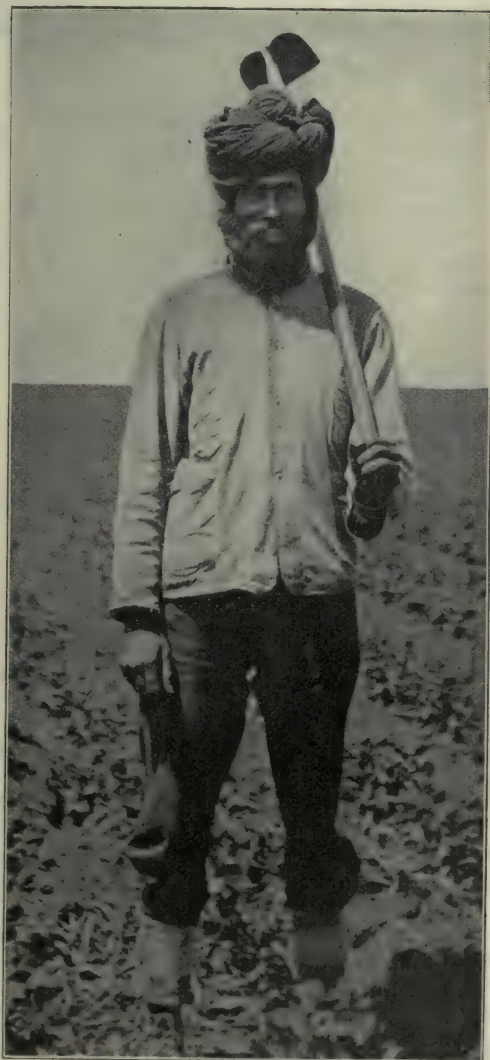
The immigration of Chinese and Japanese to the Pacific Coast has been followed by an immigration of East Indians which for a time aroused a strong feeling of opposition in the other elements of the population. More recently, however, little has been heard of it; for immigrants of this race have been practically denied admission to Canadian territory, and their entrance at our ports has been rendered difficult by a more rigid interpretation of the immigration law making it as restrictive as possible.

The immigration of East Indian laborers into Canada in any considerable number began about five years ago. In 1905 the number of immigrants of this race was forty-eight; in 1906, 387; for nine months in 1907, 2,124; in 1908, 2,623. Much opposition had been aroused by the immigration of Chinese and Japanese, principally into British Columbia, with the result that a head tax of \$500 had been placed upon immigrants of the former nation, while in 1908 an agreement was made with Japan which restricted the number of

immigrants from that country to 400 in any one year. The reaction against the East Indians was more rapid, and the hostility shown toward them still greater than that which at times had been shown toward the Chinese and Japanese. The

East Indians found employment chiefly as unskilled laborers on the railways, in lumber and shingle mills, and in the fishing industry, where they worked for still lower wages than those paid to other Asiatics, who in turn, were generally paid less than white men. Moreover, most of the East Indians were of the "turbanned class," and their strange appearance and peculiar habits and customs precluded them from finding a place as an integral part of the community into which they came.

The hostile attitude toward the East Indians led to an investigation by the Deputy Minister of Labor then in office. This investigation showed that most of the immigration had been induced by the activity of certain steamship companies and their agents, by the distribution of literature, containing exaggerated state-



HIS FIRST POSE.



HINDU LABORERS.

This is only one-third of the group that occupied the two-room shed shown.

ments of the opportunities for fortune-making, throughout some of the rural districts of India from which most of these immigrants came, and by the representations of a few individuals in British Columbia, who had induced a number of the natives of India to come to Canada under actual or verbal agreements to work for hire. Here, because of the severity of the northern climate, and because of the opposition to them and the unsuitability of the employment they were able to secure, many of these laborers suffered greatly. To prevent these hardships, to avoid race friction with its complications, and to protect the white workingmen, whose standard of comfort is of a higher order, and who, as citizens with family and civic obligations, have expenditures to meet and a status to maintain which the Hindu laborer is in a position wholly to ignore, the Canadian government sought a conference with the representatives of the British government, upon whose co-operation it was dependent in meeting this problem.

The conferences which followed in the spring of 1908 were entirely successful in solving the problem which had been disclosed by the Canadian investigation. The Indian government undertook to disabuse the minds of its subjects of the false impressions spread by interested parties, and the steamship companies were given to understand

that their activity was regarded with disfavor. More positive measures were also adopted. The most formidable of these was the application to immigrants of this race of section 38 of the Canadian Immigration Act, which provides that any immigrants who have come to Canada otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which they are natives or citizens, and upon through tickets purchased in that country, may be excluded. As there is no means by which a continuous journey from India to Canada may be accomplished, it is needless to say that the measure is effective. Moreover, by an order in council the amount of money in possession upon landing required in the case of East Indian laborers was increased from \$25 to \$200. That these measures have served their purpose is shown by the fact that in 1909 only six such immigrants were admitted to the dominion. Since 1908 the number in British Columbia has diminished, as a result of the fact that many have returned to their native land or have migrated to the United States in search of a less rigorous climate and of more suitable employment at higher wages.

Previous to 1907 there were very few East Indians in the United States, and most of these were non-laborers and in the eastern cities. In that year, however, 1,072 were admitted, as against 271 in 1906. In 1908 the number admitted

increased to 1,710. Late in that year, however, the immigration officers began to turn back many of those who applied for admission, lest these wandering laborers should become public charges. As a result of this policy and of the measures adopted restricting their admission to Canada, whence most of them had been coming, the number admitted in 1909 was but 337. During the year 1909-1910, however, the interpretation of the general immigration law at the port of San Francisco, to which most of the applicants then came, was less restrictive, and the number who gained entrance again increased to 1,782. This increase, together with the facts that many almost immediately secured employment in the construction of a railroad near San Francisco (this giving rise to a widespread belief that there was organized traffic in this labor) and that an unusually large number of those who came were in the summer of 1910 found to be afflicted with disease, gave rise to an agitation against the Hindus, a change in the administration at the port of San Francisco, and the rejection of the majority of those who arrived. The total number of East Indian immigrants rejected at our ports was 438 in 1907, 331 in 1908, 411 in 1909, and 391 in 1910. For the three years 1908 to 1910, 447, or about 39 per cent of those denied admission, were rejected because afflicted with trachoma; 177, or about 16 per cent, because of "surgeon's certificates of defect mentally or physically which may affect ability to earn living;" and 464, or about 41 per cent, because they were "likely to become a public charge." These figures indicate that either a large percentage of those who applied for admission were unfit, or that the interpretation of the law was severe. Perhaps they indicate both. At any rate the numerous rejections wrought much hardship. In this connection it is to be said, however, that the problem of East Indian immigration has been solved and that the hardship incidental to rejection at our ports has been eliminated, for those who have come since the change of policy at the port of San Francisco has become known are few. The story of this change

of policy, so far as East Indian immigration at the port of San Francisco is concerned, is best and most concisely told by the following figures for the number admitted and the number rejected, by months during 1910:

Month.	Number admitted	Number rejected
January 1910	95	7
February "	377	4
March "	47	28
April "	169	68
May "	231	23
June "	183	105
July "	65	67
August "	189	138
September "	45	183
October "	1	233
November "	1	56
December "	2	14
January 1911	2	0

The policy of restriction, which temporarily at least has resulted in practical exclusion, when leniency would in all probability have brought in large numbers because of the cumulative effects of migrations, meets with almost unanimous approval on the Pacific coast, where the Hindus are regarded as the least desirable, or, better, the most undesirable, of all the eastern Asiatic races which have come to share our soil. Except for a comparative few of an idealistic turn of mind who do not reckon carefully with details, a few who look upon this country as a place of refuge for the Hindu, whom they believe to be oppressed in his native land, and a very few of the many whose chief interest and point of view are industrial, the West stands opposed to the immigration of East Indians as to that of no other race.

In 1909 the federal Immigration Commission made an investigation of the employment, earnings, salient characteristics, and mode of life of the East Indian laborers in the Pacific Coast states. The details which follow are drawn almost entirely from this investigation,



THINNING BEETS.

which was made under the writer's supervision, and the results of which are set forth in greater detail in a special report submitted to the commission.

In the western states, with rare exceptions, the East Indian laborers, who up to July 1, 1910, were estimated to number about 5,000, have engaged in the roughest, most unskilled work outside of factory walls. Perhaps with a continued immigration and a longer residence they

would advance to higher occupations, as they did in British Columbia in spite of their low efficiency, but as yet their employment in the three Pacific Coast states and Nevada has been narrowly limited to "yard work" in lumber mills, as section hands—chiefly in Nevada, but also in other places—as construction laborers, as wandering agricultural laborers engaged in hand work in California, and as unskilled laborers in a pottery and in a few quarries. The only instance known where they have secured employment in manufacture was in a rope factory in Portland, Ore.

Since 1906 Hindus, immigrating for the greater part from British Columbia, have

been employed as "yard laborers" in some of the lumber mills of the Northwest, and chiefly about Bellingham, Tacoma, Gray's Harbor, and Astoria. They have been paid higher wages than the Japanese but as a rule lower wages than "white men," the Hindus not being recognized as of the white race. Their wages have been fixed by the lumber companies at comparatively high rates, because of the strong hostility exhibited

towards them by laborers of other races, who have feared that they would undermine wage rates. In a few instances they have been regarded as worth the wage paid them, but most employers have regarded them as dear labor at the price, because they are physically weak as compared to "white" men, very slow to understand instructions, and require close supervision. Because of these things and the wide-spread and at times violent opposition to them they are not so extensively employed in lumber mills as formerly. In fact, most of the members of the race have migrated from Washington and Oregon to California in search of a warmer climate and of work in the fields and orchards.

In several instances groups of Hindus have been employed in railway construction. In all of these cases where the details are known they were paid somewhat less than the members of the white races, but were found to be too weak because underfed and too slow to be worth the price when other laborers could be secured at somewhat higher wages, with the result that their employment was in but few cases of

more than brief duration. Nor have they been more successful as section hands, as is evidenced by the fact that, though they have been employed by several railway companies, only 73 were reported in a total of 34,919 section hands employed on railroads in the western group of states in the spring and summer of 1909. In this occupation they have sometimes been paid higher wages than other Asiatics, but with few exceptions they have been



PICKING PEACHES.

regarded as the least desirable of all races employed. Unless of the soldier class (and members of that class were found in the ratio of 1 to 30 by the agents of the Immigration Commission), they have proved to be physically weak, unintelligent, and slow to acquire a knowledge of the work to be done.

For various reasons most of the East Indians have drifted into agricultural work in California, where there has been the greatest dearth of cheap labor because of the extension of specialized farming and fruit-growing, and because of the diminishing number of Chinese and Japanese available as wage laborers for seasonal work. In 1908 they made their appearance in the orchards, vineyards, sugar-beet fields, and on the large farms devoted to the production of various kinds of vegetables in northern and central California. In 1909 three small groups made their appearance in southern California. Their work has been of the most unskilled type and limited to hoeing and weeding in field and orchard, and to the harvesting of grapes, other fruit, and vegetables, certain branches of which have long been largely in the hands of Asiatics. In only a few instances have they been assigned to work with teams. In the Newcastle fruit district and along the Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers, where a large part of the land is cultivated by Asiatics, they have found employment without much difficulty, because of a widespread desire to break the monopoly control of the labor supply by the Japanese, or because of the higher wages than formerly commanded by other Asiatics. The ranchers of most communities, however, have been averse to hiring them, even at relatively low wages, because of their uncleanliness and outlandish looks, wearing as they do the Hindu turban. They usually wander in small groups from place to place in search of work, under the leadership of one of their number who acts as interpreter and business agent, and they do not remain long in one place. These groups are not permanent, but are built up as circumstances dictate. The leader is not in a position of authority and usually earns somewhat higher wages than his men, rather than

a share of their earnings. In 1908 their wages varied from twenty-five to fifty cents per day less than was paid to Chinese and Japanese. In some instances when paid on a piece basis they worked at a lower rate than other races. This difference has tended to disappear, however, for the Hindus, when they have found employment in a community, have sometimes demanded as high wages as were being paid to other Asiatics. In 1909 the difference had been reduced to twenty-five cents per day, and in some cases to even less. Though they have commended themselves to some ranchers, they have generally been regarded as distinctly inferior to laborers of other races and not cheap labor at the wages which they have been paid. In few cases have they displaced any other race; usually they have done the work not desired by other races, or have been employed when other laborers were not available at the customary or even a higher wage.

Thus it is evident that the East Indians are practically all unskilled laborers, and chiefly wandering farm hands; that their industrial position has been very insecure; and that in general they have been looked upon as a possible source when laborers of other races were not available on satisfactory terms. In extreme need, they have frequently offered to work for very low wages and in some instances have even demanded employment; yet their competitive ability, because of low efficiency and a general disinclination to hire them, has been comparatively small. With larger numbers, more experience and time, however, their position would doubtless become more secure and their competitive ability greater. With the number of Japanese and Chinese laborers diminishing as a result of the restrictions placed upon the immigration of these classes, the East Indians with freer immigration might fall heir to the kinds of work which have been done in part by these other Asiatics; for employers are inclined to follow the line of least resistance in finding a supply of labor, and competition between races engaged in unskilled work apparently depends more

upon the rate of wages than upon efficiency.

The East Indian laborers have come without their families and live in groups of from two to fifty, depending upon the size of the "gang" employed in a given place and also to some extent upon the number of castes represented among them. Their standard of living is lower than that of any of the races with which they compete, but, with better earnings, their standard as measured by expense rises.

The agricultural laborers are provided with free lodging in "shacks," barns, or other outbuildings, or, more frequently, live in the open. They usually have no furniture and sleep in blankets upon the floor or ground. They generally cook upon a grate placed over a hole in the ground and frequently eat standing, without plate, knife, or fork. Frequently the members of several castes are found working in the same "gang" and lodging together, but the members of each caste form a "mess" and all food

eaten must be prepared by a member of the caste. As a rule they will not purchase meat which has been prepared by other hands, and are thus usually limited for their meat to poultry and lambs butchered by themselves. In fact, they eat little meat. They subsist chiefly upon unleavened bread cooked as pancakes, upon vegetables, such fruit as they may happen to be harvesting, and milk when they can get it. Tea and coffee are sometimes used. Many kinds of food are taboo, the articles upon the tabooed list varying as between the "hat" (Mohammedan) and the "turbanned" Hindus, and from one caste to another. Living in

this manner, their food rarely costs as much as \$7.50 per month for one man—this, however, not including beer and whisky, which are freely consumed in many of the groups. Of clothing, most of these migratory laborers do not have enough for a "change," and "dressing up" usually consists of a change of head-dress and putting on the coat, which most possess. The cost of clothing as estimated for various groups does not average more than \$30 per year for one man.

The construction gangs live in much the same way as the agricultural labor-

ers, but the lumber-mill laborers in the towns live better. They usually sleep in "shacks" or basements which alone are rented to them, the group, large or small, almost without exception occupying only one or two rooms. The average cost of subsistence as reported for seventy-nine mill hands in Oregon and Washington, living in several groups, was \$12 per month, which is not materially different from the expenditures of other races conspicuous as



MOVING ON.

These casual laborers are taking their possessions with them in their search for employment.

"cheap labor" and living in groups of adult males.

The East Indians are controlled only less completely in this than in their own country by caste and custom. In several instances laborers of this race, when imprisoned for larceny or personal violence, have caused serious difficulty, for they have consistently refused to eat food not prepared by themselves or brought by their friends. The Hindus, who constitute about 90 per cent of the entire number, retain their native head-dress.

As already stated, some of our people have looked upon this country as a place of refuge for the Hindu, whom they

believe to be oppressed by the British government. Whether the rule of the British government is oppressive or not, the East Indian laborers have almost without exception come to this country to work until such time as they can save a certain sum of money, after which they expect, or did expect, to return home. They have come to make and save money. Thirty-eight East Indians employed in lumber mills in Washington, in 1909, earned \$451 as an average. In agricultural work their wages when on a day basis vary from \$1.25 to \$1.80 per day, but are most frequently \$1.25 or \$1.50. Their work is very irregular, but during the busier seasons they earn considerably more than is necessary for their subsistence. Almost all of their savings, whether large or small, are immediately sent to India to support their families or to be added to the fund they are engaged in accumulating. Few have as much as \$50 worth of property in this country. In fact, they not infrequently send all of their savings abroad, leaving themselves with nothing to live on in the event of unemployment. Frequently when going to a new locality and failing to secure employment their condition has been pitiable; but they have seldom become public charges, because they have lived a wandering life and apart from the other elements in the community, so that their distress has not become known to others.

Practically all of the Hindus on coming to the United States expected to return to India within a few years. Like other immigrants, however, who first came under similar circumstances, some of them now expect to remain in this country permanently. Thus, of seventy-

nine interviewed in Washington and Oregon in 1909, thirty-six expressed an intention of returning to India, six intended to remain permanently in the United States, while thirty-seven were in doubt as to what they would eventually do. With an immigration of considerable size, the passing of time, and better adjustment to the industrial situation, no doubt a relatively large permanent element would be formed, with its political and social problems. Indeed, in spite of the efforts of the Bureau of Naturalization a few East Indians have secured their first naturalization papers, and before the change in the administration at the port of San Francisco it was stated that some expected to have their wives join them.

The assimilative qualities of the East Indians appear to be the lowest of those of any race in the West. The control exercised by caste and custom has been referred to. So has the relatively low efficiency, which would make assimilation economically very difficult. Moreover, between one-half and three-fifths of them are unable to read and write. Of more importance, assimilation involves a bringing together of different elements; and in the case of the Hindus the strong influence of custom, caste, and taboo, as well as their religion, dark skins, filthy appearance, and dress, stand in the way of association with other races. It is evident from the attitude of other races that they will be given no opportunity to assimilate.

For the present, at any rate, they could find no place in American life save in the exploitation of our resources, and those who are directly interested in that prefer others to serve that end.

A THOUGHT

MADGE ELIZABETH ANDERSON

If we only knew
 What the other man thought,
 If we only knew
 What the other man taught,
 If we only knew
 What the other man wrought,
 We might live our life
 As a wise man ought!

WHAT ONE STOCKHOLDER DID

ALICE HAMILTON

HULL HOUSE, CHICAGO

In these days of enlightened social conscience many men and women feel more or less vague compunctions and misgivings over the lot of the thousands of workers upon whose toil their income depends and who are yet connected with them only by the loosest of ties—that which binds the men employed by a large corporation to the stockholders of that corporation. To such a conscientious stockholder there may come disquieting rumors concerning these employes, stories of over-long hours, of excessive accident and death rate, of tuberculosis and pneumonia caused by irritating dusts; and a very sincere desire may be aroused to do something to correct these evils and to give expression to this sense of responsibility. Yet the difficulties seem so great that he is baffled by their mere contemplation. The stockholders are a scattered, heterogeneous body, the managers almost unapproachable, and supposedly concerned only with profits, and there seems no way to make a protest effective; so the troubled soul is forced to content himself (probably more often herself) by taking up the cause of other unfortunates, although unhappily aware that they are people for whose lot he is not so directly responsible.

I should like to tell the story of one stockholder who attacked this apparently impossible problem with unhesitating directness and found, as I suspect many others would find, that the difficulties were not insurmountable and that the soulless corporation was made up of very reasonable and humane men. About a year ago I went to Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen to talk to her about conditions out in the great Pullman works, because I knew she was a large stockholder in the company. In the course of an investigation carried on for the Occupational Diseases Commission of Illinois¹ we had studied several of the departments at Pullman and had become con-

¹Of this commission Dr. Hamilton was medical officer.—Ed.

vinced that there was a needless amount of industrial disease among the men who were exposed to poisonous or irritating dusts and fumes. For instance, in the paint department there was a great deal of lead poisoning. The paint used for the interior of the sleeping cars in the dressing rooms and sometimes on the ceilings was very rich in white lead, and it was used in such a way that the painter could hardly escape lead poisoning. The paint had to be rubbed down with sand-paper, which produces a great deal of dust. Now, as this was done inside the small enclosure of the dressing rooms, the air became filled with white lead dust. Work of this kind is recognized as the worst the painter can do, and skilled painters are so familiar with the risks that they will not undertake it if they can possibly find anything else to do. As a consequence, many unskilled men were employed by the Pullman company to do the interior painting, some of whom had never handled a brush before. I recall an Italian of twenty years of age, two Lithuanian brothers, a Greek, and two Russians, none of whom were painters by trade. One of the Russians had been a gardener, the other a house servant. Not one of these men had had any idea that the work was dangerous, and if they were warned or instructed by the foreman they had not understood what he said.

We found nineteen men who had recently contracted lead poisoning in the Pullman shops. One of them had worked only one month before he was poisoned, another only seven weeks. There were other places in which men were exposed to poisonous substances, such as the glass etching department, where hydrofluoric acid is used. The fumes of this acid are excessively irritating, causing inflammation of the eyes, nose, and throat, bronchitis, and even broncho-pneumonia. If the acid splashes on the skin it causes a deep, slowly heal-

ing ulcer. Then there was also the department where mirrors are silvered. This is a secret process, and one can only say that the dangerous fumes from the fluids probably contain cyanide bodies.

The Illinois commission was not supposed to go into the problem of the non-poisonous dusts, but as a matter of curiosity we did examine that department which was admitted to be the most dangerous, the sand-blasting. Since the introduction of steel cars this department has grown in importance because it is necessary to prepare all the sheets of steel so that the paint will adhere to the surface. Sand-blasting consists in driving the very finest possible sand against the steel surface with such force that the grains dent it and it becomes roughened all over with millions of tiny dents. This work was done out doors in summer, but in winter it was done inside a building, and the fine sand was excessively bad for the workmen's throats and lungs.

Of course as we conversed with the workmen who were employed in these parts of the plant, we would hear from time to time stories of accidents, especially in the steel car shops, and we gained a very definite impression that the company was not giving the best care to its injured men, and had failed to meet the increased number of accidents caused by the introduction of steel construction with a corresponding increase in its surgical force.

These were the facts that were brought to Mrs. Bowen's attention and that made her decide to take up the whole question of accidents and industrial disease among the employes of this company of which she is a stockholder. First she sent an investigator out to Pullman to look up the accident situation thoroughly and report on it. The resulting report was not at all sensational, but it showed that with an average of 200 accidents a month the company was employing but one surgeon for part of his time, that he was not given the services of a nurse or an assistant, and that there was no company hospital, so that patients who could not pay and for whom the com-

pany was not legally liable had to be sent home or to the county hospital, some twelve miles away. In many cases there would be no objection to sending a wounded man home, but in the case of immigrant men living in lodgings, hospital accommodations seemed necessary.

The results of this investigation of accidents and of the state investigation into occupational diseases were embodied in a report which Mrs. Bowen submitted to the managers of the company, reserving as a last resort an appeal to the stockholders in case the managers should refuse to act. This proved, however, quite needless. The officials were at first somewhat skeptical as to the accuracy of her statements and one of them asked her why, if she thought so poorly of the company, she had not sold her stock and thus freed her conscience, to which she replied that she preferred to stay in and do something about it. On the whole, however, the conference was most amicable and the officials decided to send the report for verification to the men in charge of the various departments. When it was clear that her statements were borne out by the facts, they agreed to carry out, as far as practicable, the reforms which she recommended. Their first step was a very wise one. It consisted in having a thorough physical examination made of all the men employed in work which exposed them to industrial diseases. The examination included urine, sputum, and blood from each case, an enormous task, but it gave them a knowledge of the dangers of certain sorts of work as nothing else could.

During this time the new Occupational Diseases Act came into force in Illinois and obliged the Pullman company to do away with certain of the dangers described above. The fumes in the glass department had to be confined or carried away, and provision had to be made for lunch rooms, wash rooms, and special working clothes for the men engaged in handling poisons. It would have been, however, very difficult to apply the law to the men who sand-papered the interiors of the cars; for the wording of the law is simply that "adequate facilities" shall be provided for carrying off

all injurious dust, and there is no accepted device for doing it in work of this character. Nor does the law touch the men in the departments which are dusty but not poisonous. The company, however, had been impressed with the results of the medical examination and decided to go beyond the law and to include under special protective care not only the men in the poisonous but those in the dusty departments, the sand blasters, glass cutters, metal polishers and buffers, and asbestos cutters.

At present this is the state of things at Pullman. The protection required by law for the workers in paint, acids, etc., is being given also to the men in the dusty trades. This means that they also are provided with respirators and are given a medical examination once a month, as well as the same lunch room and wash room facilities as the men who come under the law. There is one comfort house with an excellent lavatory and lunch room, which is used by 146 men, only fifty of whom are legally entitled to use it. The company now employs five physicians where it had but one. Especially interesting is the change that has been made in the sand-blasting department. The last visit I made to this department was on a bitter zero day, and I was surprised to see the men at work out of doors. It seems that when they were consulted they said that they would prefer to work outside even in winter because it was so much safer. On that day a great bonfire was burning to keep the sand-blasting machine from freezing, and the men came to the fire from time to time to thaw out. Six of them were at work. Four who could stand rather far off from the car were wearing helmets very like divers' helmets; the two who had to come closer to their work were inside small portable houses, with canvas covered openings, through which their arms passed, and

with a window to look through so that they could control the work and yet be protected from the dust. It seemed as if the dangers of this work had been eliminated as far as possible.

The company is trying to solve the difficult problem of protecting the interior painters against lead poisoning by using a compound of lead that is much less poisonous than ordinary white lead. Their chemist had for some time been urging them to substitute lead sulphate for white lead because he thought it made a better paint for the steel cars. When the company decided to take up the matter of lead poisoning they asked the chemist if lead sulphate was safer for the men than white lead, and when he assured them that it was, they decided to adopt it.

There is a very evident feeling of solicitude for the health and safety of the men out at Pullman now, and a readiness to go to great lengths in the prevention of accidents and illness. It needed only that the conditions should be placed clearly and with a certain insistence before the officials of the company for them to recognize the necessity for changes and to proceed to make them.

Surely it is not rash to assume that the same thing would be true of most large companies. The evils that exist are probably of long standing and it simply has not occurred to anyone to inquire if they are still inevitable or if modern methods of protection would not do away with them. This would seem to be a service that a person might perform who is interested in the company and yet in a way an outsider. Mrs. Bowen's experience certainly shows that the much-criticized stockholder may really be the means of starting a very widespread reform in the methods of the company with which he is connected.



SORTING BUTTONS UNDER IDEAL CONDITIONS.

MUSCATINE

THE STRIKE PROBLEM OF A MID-WESTERN TOWN

SAMUEL Z. BATTEN

DES MOINES

The national extent and significance of the industrial struggle stands out perhaps most vividly when the "storm centers" shift from our larger cities or mining camps and grip our prided "typically American" towns. Muscatine, a clean, well-built, attractive community of 17,000 people on the Mississippi, was fifteen months ago one of Iowa's favorite examples of a busy, happy, growing city, with thriving factories, hundreds of comfortable homes, churches, and well-appointed stores, banks, and business buildings. Temperance people pointed to it with satisfaction as a practical demonstration of the value of the no-saloon policy.

For over a year it has been a city torn with civil strife, neighbor is arrayed against neighbor, church life is disturbed, and class feeling is growing. On one side stand a score of manufacturers, on the other are 2,700 workers in the town's main industry—the making of pearl buttons; between, lie the great mass of the people, trying to be impartial, wishing that the troubles would end, and fearing that the city will be ruined. A lockout began hostilities, a strike continued them, and then came the grim contest of endurance. Unable to live through the pro-

tracted idleness, several hundred workers left town. Manufacturers have moved their machines and opened plants elsewhere. Merchants have lost business. There has been disorder. The governor intervened. The town has been twice invaded by militia and several times by special officers hired in another state. Prejudice and incoherence have taken the place of good judgment and sound reasoning. Exaggeration distorts facts.

Forty years ago a German settler began to cut pearl buttons here from the fine, large, fresh-water clam-shells gathered in the Mississippi and its tributaries. The industry grew until, at the time the trouble began, Muscatine factories were producing fully 35 per cent of the pearl buttons of the country. There are several other factories, but the button factories are fifty-two in number, though only about a dozen are of much importance. For a year or more the number of button workers has ranged between 2,700 and 2,800, with a weekly pay-roll of \$30,000. The wages of the workers are moderate; the manufacturers claim, however, that they are higher in Muscatine than in similar factories

elsewhere. The pay-rolls show that a considerable number of men received \$12 a week and over. The average wage paid all workers is \$10 per week, not a high wage in these times.

Button making does not require much skilled labor; in fact, there is no part of the industry that can technically be called skilled. Given a few days, and a man with dexterous fingers can make the wages of a cutter. The factories have employed some 800 women, and these, as the pay-rolls show, have been paid as high as the men. The work is not hard, and it is not especially unhealthy. The cutter stands on his feet all day bending over his machine; many of the women appear pale and flat-chested, due in part to the work of leaning over the tables counting the buttons. Cases of "shell poisoning" occur with some frequency, though as a rule the disease is not serious. It is an infection of the hand of the cutter, caused by the decomposed animal matter on the shell. Shell dust acts like lye on the hands, and some of the cutters wear rubber gloves as a protection.

In the main, the factories are well lighted and airy; in some, there are conveniences for workers with good wash rooms and lunch rooms. The sanitary condition of some factories is satisfactory; others are poorly lighted and ventilated; in several the cutting room

floors are damp and unsanitary. In all, efforts are made to remove the dust from the grinding room by suction fans. In practically all there is dangerous machinery not adequately safeguarded. Unfortunately, a number of boys and girls are employed in the industry, for Iowa is one of the backward states so far as the protection of the workers is concerned. Many of the boys and girls leave school as soon as they are fourteen and crowd into the factories. In one factory boys of sixteen are employed on the night shift, from 6 p. m. to 5.30 a. m., with half an hour at midnight. In this factory women work the same number of hours, five nights a week.

The button industry as the manufacturers themselves admit has been largely unorganized and unstandardized. No one knows the cost of making a gross of buttons. Defective buttons are sold at reduced prices; but no one seems to know whether at a loss or profit to the manufacturer. But for several years past the industry has flourished and a number of manufacturers have made small fortunes. The city of Muscatine, like all other cities, has had an ambition to be a metropolis; the business men boomed the town and advertised for workers. By such means, more workers were brought to the city than could possibly be employed. Some of the



THE MACHINE ELEMENT IN THE BUTTON INDUSTRY.

new comers, in the nature of the case, were not the most stable people or most skilled workers. In a city of one chief industry, such conditions were certain, sooner or later, to bring on a crisis.

The lack of standardization on the business side was paralleled, until recently, by the workers' lack of organization. A button workers' union was started, but not until the autumn and winter of 1910-11 did it have many members. About that time the button industry felt a depression. Wages were affected; and, as we shall see, other causes which were real grievances produced widespread dissatisfaction. The question of wages was not, however, the primary cause of dissatisfaction. The workers felt—whether rightly or wrongly does not matter—that they were not getting a square deal in the weighing and counting of buttons. The basis for wage payments had no standard of uniformity. So long as they felt this way, they were dissatisfied and suspicious. It was not a question of wages but of justice. Be it said that the manufacturers assert that they have always favored Muscatine; and, when a reduction of work has been necessary, that they have shut down their outside factories first. In some of the factories they provided pleasant lunch rooms for the workers, and sold good coffee for a cent a cup. But the temper of the workers was illustrated by the fact that they preferred to eat their lunch out in the mills. They said that since they were not receiving justice, they did not care to receive "charity."

It is important to analyze this chief cause of friction, the main grievance of the workers—their dissatisfaction with the weighing and counting. From the beginning of the industry the manufacturers have supplied the workers with saws, spools, files, etc., free of charge. The cutter was required to cut 168 "blank" buttons as a gross (nominally 144) without regard to their thickness; a number which allowed for defective blanks or those that might be too thin for good buttons. The method of counting and weighing the product at present is somewhat as follows: The worker brings his batch of blanks to the weigh-

master who takes a handful from the bucket and lays them on the table; 168 blanks are then counted out as a gross. In doing this, the "culls"—that is, those which are chipped by being "punched," pushed too hard against the saw,—are laid aside. Then the total of these culls is added to the 168 on the automatic scale to make the unit of weight for the worker's entire output. The workers claim that the heavy buttons always go to the sides of the tub; the difference of six heavy buttons in a count may make a difference of \$2 or more in the week's wages. It will be seen that by this method a "factory" gross always contains 168 *good* blanks instead of the twelve dozen which the system of counting was originally devised to secure; even so there would be no controversy at this point if the standard remained the same. In addition to the extra twenty-four good blanks in every factory gross, the worker receives no pay at all for the culls. The workers claim that a gross may run as high as 300, according to the character of the work and the kind of shells. The standard set varies somewhat in the different shops, and is subject to change at the will of the employer. At some times a blank two lines thick will be counted for the cutter; at other times the blanks must be three or four lines thick.

Practically all of these thin blanks are finished along with the good ones and make thin buttons which are sold as a low-grade product for use on all the cheaper grades of clothing, shirt-waists, sweaters, waists, and children's suits, at prices ranging from four cents a gross upward. But for these low-grade buttons the workers receive nothing. The manufacturers claim that the prices received for them do not pay for the material used, but the exact facts of the matter have never been ascertained. They claim also that the cutters waste much material by leaving the thin part of the shell uncut. The workers admit this and ask why they should be expected to work for nothing—to cut thin "blanks" for which they receive no pay.

In the finishing department a similar



SEWING BUTTONS FOR MISSIONS.

condition prevails. In many instances it was positively asserted that the women workers were not permitted to see their product weighed, and that those who complained were at once discharged. Even in the sorting department, where the matter of breakage does not enter, the so-called bad buttons that have come all the way without yielding the worker any return must be worked over by other hands again without pay. Workers further say that they have known instances where there were by actual count 273 gross of finished buttons in a batch; yet the worker was credited with only 137 gross. Such cases are no doubt very exceptional, but beyond doubt there has been abundant opportunity for unfairness on one side and occasion for dissatisfaction on the other.

We have seen that the manner in which a weigh-master selects and counts a pile of blanks or buttons may mean a difference of \$2 or more in the week's wages. Workmen have believed that the count depended upon the supply of labor. When labor is scarce and business is good the count is "liberal"; but when business is slack and there is an over-supply of workers the count is "strict." Some of the manufacturers admit that when trade is good they can be lenient; but when trade is dull they must run close. It is admitted by all impartial men that the method of weighing and counting is unsatisfactory and that it

should be changed. The individual worker has felt all along that he could obtain no redress on this question. He was told that if he did not like the way things were done he could leave.

Another thing that increased the friction was found in the remarkable decrease of wages during the few months preceding the strike. An examination of the pay-rolls will show some significant facts on this question. In one of the largest shops the men in 1910 receiving on an average over \$14 per week. The week before the lockout few of them received as much as \$12 a week. The figures show that there was a slump in wages from 25 to 50 per cent. During this time the rate had not changed, yet wages had fallen. The men assert that they did as much work as before and cut as many blanks, but their wages showed a mysterious drop. The manufacturers assert that this was due to the irregular work done; that the men were being unionized and were accustomed to gather in groups during working hours, talking and arguing while their machines rattled on doing nothing. The men claim that they were "robbed," and point to their wages as evidence. Where such causes for friction and such occasions for dissatisfaction exist it is not strange that discontent should thrive. All these things furnished a prepared soil for the growth of a button workers' union.



HOME SEWING.

In the winter of 1910-11 as many as 300 new members were received at a single meeting. Some employers say that during this process of unionizing, many of the workers grew insolent and independent. When the manufacturers found that a considerable proportion of their workers were in the union, they doubtless, felt that if any action was to be taken the first opportunity should be improved. It is now fifteen months since they took action.

Saturday afternoon, February 25, 1911, as the workers went to the office to receive their pay envelopes, they were confronted with a notice to the effect that the factories had shut down for some time. Without a moment's warning, some 2,700 workers found themselves out of work. Two things soon convinced the workers that a struggle was impending with unionism as the issue. The fact that all the factories shut down at the same time indicated concerted action on the part of the manufacturers. The next week when workers went to the factories to inquire about the prospects of work they were asked if they belonged to the union; those who would agree to tear up their union cards were taken back and given work. The action of the manufacturers was a lock-out, and it seemed clearly a concerted effort to break up the union.

It was not until some two weeks after the lockout that outside labor organizers came. In answer to an appeal Emmett

Flood of Chicago, representing the American Federation of Labor, and Miss Finnegan, representing the Woman's Trade Union League, were sent to Muscatine. Time passed with no signs of a settlement of the difficulty. In nearly all the factories there were a few who remained at work, and occasionally one would break away from the union and go back. The locked-out workers picketed the plants and exhausted their arguments in persuading those at work to come out with the rest.

From time to time petty acts of persecution and violence occurred at night. Houses of strike-breakers were stoned. Some houses were smeared with paint and tar. "Stink bombs" were thrown into a few. In some instances those who persisted in working were threatened with bodily injury. Efforts to adjust the difficulty proved unavailing, and the disorders became serious around the factories. The city police were few and were believed to be in sympathy with the workers. The sheriff and mayor accordingly called twenty men from a Chicago detective agency and these were sworn in as special officers. A number of citizens assert that they heard the sheriff declare that he had brought these men to the city to slug the people off the streets. Whatever their instructions were, this is what these specials set out to do. In their charges upon the crowd inoffensive and helpless women and children were sometimes knocked down and beaten.

From time to time efforts were made to adjust the differences and bring the parties together. John B. Lennon, treasurer of the American Federation of Labor, spent some time in the city, but without avail. A committee of business men brought representatives of the workers and manufacturers together for a conference and a statement was prepared. In this statement the workers agreed to waive the question of the recognition of the union. But they asked that the workers be taken back without discrimination, and that the question of weights and counts be adjusted. The manufacturers expressed a willingness to treat with their workers as individuals

but refused to meet a committee of any kind. In refusing to sign this agreement they resented the inference that they had even met with a committee from the union, and they absolutely declined to recognize the union in any way. State Commissioner of Labor Van Duyne next sought to find some common ground. It is needless here to give the statement he prepared, which he supposed both parties were willing to accept. But his efforts also proved fruitless, and settlement seemed as far away as ever.

On Monday, April 24, 1911, at the suggestion of the writer, the Ministers' Association of Muscatine met a committee of the button workers' union asking what they could do to help settle the dispute, and inquiring whether the workers were willing to submit the questions at issue to an impartial board of arbitration. The workers acceded to the request. A committee of the ministers then waited upon the manufacturers with the same inquiry. The manufacturers declared that they were willing to treat with their own employes; that they refused to recognize the union in any way, and that there was nothing to arbitrate. A few days later, however, through the personal efforts of Governor B. F. Carroll, representatives of the manufacturers and the workers came to a truce, and signed an agreement. This provided, in brief:

1. Workers to return to work. No discriminating against any former employe by reason of membership in the Button Workers' Protective Union, nor against any employe by reason of non-membership.
2. All employes, except eight persons agreed upon, to be taken back and given their former positions as far as possible.
3. Employers to endeavor to provide constant work for all.
4. Employes to be allowed to witness the weighing and counting of their products.
5. Up-to-date schedules of prices to be posted in each department.
6. Employes to maintain industrial discipline and avoid waste of material.
7. Schedules of wages, counts, weights and measures to be the same as on February 25, 1911.

Following this agreement the factories opened on May 4, and the trouble seemed over. This was a year ago. It is not



OUTSIDE THE FACTORIES.

over yet. No provision had been made whereby the terms of the agreement could be enforced, and from the very first there was friction. The workers claimed that those who had been active in the union were discriminated against. It is certain that a number of union workers were discharged. In many cases it was claimed that no effort was made by the manufacturers to resume full operations or to give employes their former positions. Some of the manufacturers admitted that they did not consider the agreement to be binding; they had simply signed it "out of courtesy to the governor. Therefore, they felt at liberty to break it." The workers declared that they signed the agreement in good faith and endeavored to observe its conditions. In several shops a walk-out occurred, but the workers were ordered back by their leaders; in one instance the workers refused to return.

On August 21, by a general referendum vote, the executive committee of the union was given authority to order a strike. The committee refused to assume the responsibility and referred the decision back to the union. It was carried by an overwhelming vote.

The manufacturers then endeavored to run their factories by employing non-union men, and by persuading some union workers to come back. The union resorted to picketing. The manufacturers secured special officers from Chicago who slept in the factories and sought to protect the non-union workers. Much friction ensued when the "specials" escorted strike-breakers to their homes

and arrested persons whom they accused of violating the peace. An old ordinance, long a dead letter, was revived under which three or more persons, assembled on the street, disturbing the people by shouting or making a noise, might be arrested as an "unlawful assembly."

Through all the long and severe winter the union workers have kept together. Some broke away and returned to work. By spring the factories were running with about one-third of their usual force. In the early chapter of the struggle the sympathies of the townspeople were largely with the working people, but several things have caused some change in this sentiment. The growth of socialism was one factor.

For a number of years past socialists have conducted an active propaganda in Muscatine. In 1900 the socialist vote was 108; in 1910 their vote for governor was 617; at the city election in March, 1911, the socialists polled 1,099 votes, elected two members of the city council and two members of the school board. It is quite possible that the action of the manufacturers in precipitating the lockout crystalized discontent and made this victory possible. Several of the active officers in the button makers' union were well-known socialists, and this gave occasion for some to say that socialism was at the bottom of the whole movement of the workers. Some of the socialist agitators no doubt improved the opportunity to preach their doctrines; but abundant evidence shows that all mention of socialism was strictly forbidden in meetings of the button workers' union. Many people in the city, however, linked socialism with the growth of the button workers' union. At any rate, the political movement intensified the opposition of the manufacturers and their adherents. At a meeting of 300 business men last October, resolutions were adopted as follows:

First: That it is the right of every laborer to accept employment, if he will, and a fundamental duty of the state to protect him in such action. We respect the aims of organized labor and appreciate the great work it has done throughout the world. At the same time, the history which has resulted in the present situation conclusively shows that the Pearl Button Workers' Union has used

unionism as a mask for economic fallacies that make against social order and permanent prosperity.

It is evident that many of the "business men" not only have unintelligently confused unionism and socialism, but regard the button workers' union and the Socialist Party as a mask for fallacies that make against "social order and permanent prosperity."

Another factor in the change in sentiment was the losses sustained by tradesmen. Many of the merchants gave the workers credit during the earlier stages of the struggle when the workers were locked out; but when, after the signing of the agreement, the strike was called, they refused all further credit. They declare that they have hundreds of dollars of dead accounts on their books because of the troubles, and this fact has done much to cool their sympathies.

Other factors in changing sentiment centered around the violence which occurred. As might be expected the strikers were held responsible. It is possible that some of the unionists used language that was liable to misunderstanding. It is quite certain that the union people would have had more sympathy from the people at large if they and their leaders had more sternly repressed all forms of disorder and violence. The murder of a policeman last November was at once ascribed to the influence of the "imported labor agitators," and the community was seized with hysteria. The facts are that the young man who did the shooting, and who has since been sentenced to prison for life, had for some time been living away from Muscatine. He had been left several hundred dollars and was back in town spending it in dissipation. He states that if he had not been drunk when the policeman stopped him on the street he never would have fired the fatal shot. In discussing violence also, the fact must not be forgotten that Muscatine is an old river town with an inheritance of roughness. There was a gang in the early times called the "Mad Creek Rattlers," always ready to commit any crime up to and including murder. And in the first prohibition fight three houses of temperance leaders were dynamited.

The presence of the hired "special offi-

cers" from Chicago undoubtedly provoked much disorder, for their overbearing ways and free use of clubs aroused resentment and resistance on the part of the strikers. It is a strange thing that a town which objects to the introduction of non-resident officials of labor organizations should have turned over its administration of law and order to men hired from a private detective agency in another state, whose antecedents were extremely questionable. It strikes the observer as a confession that the civic organization of the community life had broken down. The well-meaning officials of city and county could in ordinary circumstances fulfil their duties to general satisfaction. It may perhaps be considered fortunate that in the extraordinary situation which arose they did not make more mistakes. Many misunderstandings of events and statements of individuals or committees complicated the difficulties. Employers charge up most of the trouble and of the socialistic growth to the "foreign labor leaders," not realizing that conditions in the button trade have done much to drive the workers into the union, and many of them into socialism. But it should be remembered these "outside leaders" did not appear until the union had grown to include about all the workers. They did not appear until more than two weeks after the "lockout." The socialists increased very rapidly in the city largely because of unsatisfactory industrial conditions. The heavy socialist vote has been in large degree a protest. This is confirmed by a letter from a young man, the president last year of a men's Bible class in one of the churches, the largest men's class in Iowa. He says:

I vote the socialist ticket as a protest against industrial conditions, and honestly believe that 75 per cent of the socialist vote in Muscatine is from the same cause.

At the city election this spring the members of all the other parties united in a citizens' ticket against the socialists; but the latter elected one new member to the city council.

According to the statement of the manufacturers, Treasurer John B. Lennon of the American Federation of Labor was asked why the attempt had

been made to unionize the Muscatine workers where the labor conditions are so good and the wages paid are higher than in other button centers. He is reported to have replied that localities where conditions and wages are good are always selected for the organization of new unions. The workers and Mr. Lennon deny that any such statement was made by him. But the manufacturers make it their pretext for saying:

The only possible conclusions the manufacturers were able to come to after this explanation by Mr. Lennon was that they had made a mistake in the past by paying too high wages at Muscatine and treating their employes with too great liberality.

Evidently the manufacturers propose to change conditions in Muscatine, and to make it no longer "good ground" for unionism. As a matter of fact, the local button industry, like Topsy, has "just growed," with little conscious direction on the part of any one. Any man could buy a saw and begin cutting blanks; as his income warranted, he could add other machines and increase his force of workers. The manufacturers in the main are excellent and well-meaning men, but they have failed properly to organize and standardize the industry. More than that, they seem to have failed wholly to understand the economic development of the time, and to recognize the fact that their workers are partners in the industry. They owe it to themselves, to the workers, and to the community, that they standardize the industry, secure an efficiency expert who will investigate fully some of the problems of the industry, the best use of material, the avoidance of waste, the cost of producing the low grade buttons for which the workers receive nothing, and will devise some standard way of weighing and counting.

The grievances which led to open hostilities should so be redressed. But these grievances are now overshadowed by the question of unionism, so far as the manufacturers are concerned. The history of the struggle makes this fact plain. From the first the manufacturers have declared that they will not deal with their former employes through any union committee. They say they would rather move away their machines, and then, to quote an

officer of the manufacturers' association, "there will be three men for every job in Muscatine." In fact, several have already shipped away part of their machinery to other towns. One man declared that he would not treat with a union committee if the governor should ask him, or even the President of the United States. He would go out of business first.

But the manufacturers have formed an association—a gentlemen's agreement, one calls it—and they are acting as a unit. They are looking to a joint labor bureau to furnish them workers. Such a joint labor bureau can advertise for outside help, keep a black-list, and refuse employment to a striker. But the right and privilege of concerted action which they claim for themselves they seem unwilling to accord to the workers. They act together and yet deny their workers the same opportunity. They do not seem to understand the meaning of unionism, and the necessity of collective bargaining and organized representation on the part of the workers. Thus it is evident that a fundamental principle is in issue; and this must not be obscured by any mistakes on the part of the union or its leaders. This question is nothing more than the democratic organization of industry—the right of the workers to bargain for their labor on the best terms, and to have a voice in determining its conditions.

In all this long and bitter struggle, what has been the influence of the churches and those who profess to stand for the spirit of the lowly Prince of Peace? It must with sadness be answered that many of the workers have dropped out of the Muscatine churches in the belief that they sympathize with the manufacturers. The sewing of finished buttons on cards is largely home work. It is done by the aged, by cripples, by women, and children. For this work the pay is at the rate of one and a half cents for a dozen cards! A good quick worker may earn six cents an hour! It has been the custom for ladies of the church aid societies to "sew buttons" in their meetings and thereby earn a little money for missions and other objects.

During the lockout and strike the union workers asked the church societies to discontinue this practice. Some consented, but in some churches the women resumed the work. This alienated many of the workers, and has caused church dissensions. In one or two, the "button sewers" meet on one day and the "non-sewers" on another. Many of the workers feel that the ministers of the city have never tried to understand the real source of the trouble, but have accepted the common opinion, and have not tried to remove the causes of friction.

In Christmas week a committee representing the commission on the church and social service of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America visited Muscatine and made a very thorough investigation.¹ In the course of our investigation we attended by invitation a meeting of the Pearl Button Workers' Protective Union. It was a bitterly cold night but the large hall was crowded. Miss Finnegan told what the union people of the country were doing to aid the people who were striking for simple justice. She also gave an account of the button workers' Christmas tree, where the children were given a little Christmas treat. I watched the crowd very carefully and saw tears in the eyes of more than one man who wore the "red badge." The strikers are average American people, no better and no worse than the usual run of folks. The deep eternal conscience of the race showed itself in the meeting that night. These people are smarting under a sense of injustice. They are reaching out, blindly enough, many of them, after justice and equality. They look up with confidence and gratitude to any one who will voice their protest and will show them the way. And they will welcome and accept any real leadership that may come to them from any source, and especially from the church. Some of the ministers seem inclined to complain of the socialist leaders who have drawn the multitude of workers after them. But how has it come about, we may ask, that a dozen untrained men with little standing in the

¹The report of the committee presents substantially the same outline of fact, and takes practically the same point of view as this article. Copies may be had from the Rev. Charles S. McFarland, Secy., 215 Fourth Ave., New York.



COLLECTIVE BARGAINERS!

These babies, with bread-winning responsibilities, have banded together in the Juvenile Sewers and Carriers' Union of Muscatine.

community, should gain the confidence of the people and lead the people as they have done? The very question is a confession of ignorance or indifference on the part of those who, by their position, are the nominally recognized leaders. Have these leaders failed to keep close to the people they are set to lead? Here is a question which goes deep into the life of to-day and touches many other communities besides Muscatine. If the recognized leaders do not lead, can they complain if the people follow other leaders? The ministers, even though they were new to the town, could have discovered the real facts in the situation. They could have acquainted themselves with the fundamental grievances, and they could have kept in personal touch with the leaders of the workers. The pathetic eagerness with which the strikers welcomed the visit of the committee of outside

ministers is evidence that no amount of unwise leadership could have availed against the sympathetic advice of men who stood firmly for the relief of any just grievance of the workers.

It is too soon to forecast the final outcome of the struggle. The manufacturers may persist in their opposition to the union. The city and the state may fill the factories and streets with officers, and may maintain a show of law and order; the strikers may become worn out and one by one may be compelled to return to work. But in spite of it all—nay, because of all—discontent will grow among the people. The socialist vote will continue to increase. The gulf between the churches and the people will be widened. Could any situation show greater need for men to try the Golden Rule? Why not try the Golden Rule in Muscatine?

CANADIAN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES ACT

ETHELBERT STEWART

In a special message to the sixty-second congress, on February 2, 1912, recommending the creation of such a commission as is provided for by the senate bill 5546 and house bill 21094, President Taft said:

The magnitude and complexity of modern industrial disputes have put upon some of our statutes and our present mechanism for adjusting such differences—where we can be said to have any mechanism at all—a strain they were never intended to bear and for which they are unsuited. What is urgently

needed today is a re-examination of our laws bearing upon the relation of employer and employe and a careful and discriminating scrutiny of the various plans which are being tried by some of our states and in other countries. This would seem to be the most natural step in bringing about an adjustment of these relations better suited to the newer conditions of industry.

It is precisely this fact, that our laws were never meant to apply, our courts never intended to have jurisdiction, in the really serious industrial problems of the

day, that constitutes the tragedy of our social situation. It is precisely this fact, that we have no tribunals before which industrial controversies may come before they develop into conflicts, that marks the impotency of a system which worked well enough under the conditions out of which it grew,—a system fitted to the pack-mule and the tallow-dip stage of industrial progress, but puerile when applied to an era of electric-lighting companies and empire express trains.

Conditions of employment have been so thoroughly revolutionized that the old legal theories applying to master and servant irritate, and do nothing to solve difficulties that arise between "a master" composed of a chain of employers' associations which control an industry in perhaps twenty states and "a servant" which is composed of a union of hundreds of local unions, encompassing the industry and including in its membership all the skilled workmen and in its allies all the affiliated trades tributary to the industry.

Not only are our laws and our court methods poorly adapted to the present industrial situation as related to conflicts between "master and servant," but they entirely ignore, because they have not yet reached, the larger problems. It was easy enough to ignore the public in the old type of industry where a half dozen workmen struck against a single employer whose customers numbered a few score and who could buy their meat of another butcher, or their coal of another "pit master" while the quarrel was on with their "regular store." We can frankly admit that even yet there is no "third party" to a strike of a second cook against the "mistress" in a private family. But when a federal court in New England ruled that a man who had no coal in mid-winter and could get none had no legal interest that gave him a standing in court, when every anthracite mine in the country was shut down, the question of enlarging the legal powers of the consuming public in all cases of organized or engrossed production of the necessities of life becomes a question of community life and death. In other words, the public has come to believe itself entitled to a continuous and uninterrupted supply of food and fuel,

just as it is to police and fire protection. It is in fact quite conceivable that a temporary suspension even of that court procedure which precludes the public from the conflict would not be so serious as a prolonged cessation of production of food or fuel supply by a strike.

It is not to be wondered at that our laws have not kept pace with economic conditions within the past generation. Railroads were first built in the United States in 1830. It took nearly fifty years to get away from the old common carrier laws enacted to regulate drays and stage-coaches; and to establish an Interstate Commerce Commission which had legal authority to recognize a community right in equal rates and equal service.

In the same way the production of the commodities necessary to sustain life has developed in a few years from myriads of little plants supplying a purely local demand, to the corporate control of that production to such a degree that suspension of work of one group endangers the food or fuel supply of millions of people remote from each other and from the scene and cause of the suspension. Under the old system the capitalist, or "undertaker," as old Adam Smith called him, undertook the task of producing a commodity. He assumed all the risk—the risk of being able to make the goods and of being able to sell them,—the community was at no risk, for if he failed there were plenty of other places to buy the article. Today the community takes a risk unknown and unthinkable to those of the day and time out of which our legal theories grew. The community takes the risk of being starved by the derangement of normal production by one corporation, through a dispute between it and another organized body representing the employes of that corporation; both perhaps controlled by officers and stockholders who never saw the plants in which the actual work is being done. In the sense that all commodities are being produced for the final consumers of those commodities, the consuming public may be considered in that sense at least as the final or ultimate employer of both capital and labor, and in that sense the community as a whole is

taking a risk in all vital industries, which makes it imperative that power shall be placed somewhere to prevent the stoppage of supplies. The community can never take its thumb off the throttle by which alone food and fuel can be supplied to itself. It must have such regulating power as will insure to it food and fuel to maintain its existence. A system of production, a code of laws or court practice which shuts the community out from a voice in its own power to exist stands in its own light, endangers itself rather than the community.

Nor is it in keeping with experience to say that any man, or any single session of any legislature can develop a system of laws which at once meet all emergencies. A bringing together of all the laws, experiments, and decisions which have anywhere or at any time been made to meet the conditions of change under which our industries have passed would be of incalculable assistance in such legislation, and such a survey, is the first step toward a final solution.

The social whole, the total of final consumers of meat, for instance, are after all the real employers, in the sense defined above, of all capital and of all labor engaged in the meat-packing industry. This is the social law of labor, that society, as the final consumer, is the ultimate employer, and as such has at least a right to know why supplies are being withheld; must have at least a power of inquiry and the legal power to say whether or not trivial causes shall be made issues upon which the social whole may be starved or frozen. The community right to a continuous supply of the necessities of life creates an obligation on the part of those supplying a social need to submit their grievances to a committee or a court of inquiry designated by the social whole, before inaugurating a suspension of that supply, either through strike or lockout, and this is being recognized by the law-makers of many countries. The Argentine Republic has recently passed a law controlling strikes and lockouts in all public utility operations. New Zealand, "the country without strikes," and all of Australia has legislation, the nature or consequence of which would be studied

and fairly stated by such a commission as these bills would create.

Among the efforts being made in other countries to adjust the machinery of law to present industrial conditions may be cited the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of 1907 in Canada. The law grew out of a great coal strike in the mines of southern Alberta in the fall of 1906, which threatened to leave the prairie provinces without coal in the face of winter. The act itself is the consolidation of a large body of conciliatory labor legislation which precedes it, its dominant idea being, however, to prevent strikes rather than arbitrate conflicts already begun. By its terms it is made applicable only to so-called public utilities—steam and electric railways, power and lighting plants, and to mines.

In such industries the law prohibits, under suitable penalties, a cessation of industry, either by strike or lockout, until an investigation has been made of the merits of the case and the public fully informed by publication of the findings. Unlike the compulsory arbitration act of New Zealand and Australia, the law does not prohibit strikes or lockouts after an investigation has been made and the merits of the dispute published. A thoroughly informed public opinion is relied upon to take care of the rest.

The law requires that in the event of a dispute arising in any establishment in the industries named, employing ten or more persons, which dispute is likely to result in a strike or lockout, either or both parties shall notify the government and ask for an inquiry. Each party to the dispute is then asked by the government to name a member of a board of three; these two select a third, or in the event of failure to agree, the government names a third. Should either party to the dispute neglect or decline to name a representative for board membership, the government names one for them. The board so constituted has power to summon witnesses and compel testimony. The question of procedure is left to each board, but such good results have uniformly attended informal procedure, such bad or indifferent results where formal court procedure has been adopted, that court rules are rarely adopted by

these boards. The first effort is to ascertain the facts, then to bring the parties together on the facts. Agreements, not verdicts, are sought; hence, conference not cavil is the method of procedure most in vogue. A study of the evolution of procedure under this law would give an object lesson in methods of dealing with industrial problems much needed in the United States.

When the law had been passed but a few days and before the real administration of it could be organized, a strike of telephone girls in Toronto occurred. The girls appealed to the government under the law, although a strike was then on. The company declined to name a member of the board, but the government appointed a member and went on with the inquiry which it made open to the public. The papers published the testimony. Within three days the company appointed an attorney to represent them at the hearings and in a very few days posted an offer to its employees which covered the grounds of the strike, and which was accepted by the strikers, thus ending the difficulty before the board finished its work. The report of the board on that strike was the first complete analysis of the industrial side of the telephone businesses ever published. It is asserted in Canada that the very existence of the law prevents more conflicts than it is ever called upon to investigate because the parties do not want a public investigation.

During the first twenty-nine months of the operation of this law fifty-nine boards were appointed to investigate as many difficulties, covering 65,500 employees. Three of these were in industries outside the operation of law, and where boards were appointed only upon the urgent request of both parties to the disputes. Two of the cases were cotton mills with 5,200 employees, the other was a shoe factory with 300 employees.

That the operation of the law has developed points at which it should be amended is but natural, and any such commission as is provided for by these bills would study the workings of this law and give congress a complete insight into such amendments as are needed.

The law has not disturbed business in Canada. It has not introduced artificial wage rates. It has created no opposition to its fundamental principle and all the criticism aimed at the law addresses itself to amendments and not to repeal. It would be impossible to repeal that law in Canada today.

The attitude of labor organizations toward the Trade Disputes Investigation Act of 1907, was expressed by a report of the executive officers of the Dominion Trade and Labor Congress as follows:

Your executive, after careful consideration, gave its hearty endorsement to the principle of the bill. Organized labor does not want to strike to enforce its demands if the consideration of them can be attained without recourse to that remedy. The strike has been our last resort, and as the bill continued our right to strike, but assured a fair hearing of the demands of the workers, there was nothing to do but give our support to it. Nor is organized labor blind to the fact that in every large industrial struggle the public have a large interest as well in the result as in the means adopted to reach that result. The least the public are entitled to is a knowledge of the merits of the dispute. This knowledge will be given to them under the procedure outlined in the bill. Your executive believes it will be a happy day when every labor dispute can be settled by the parties meeting together in the presence of an impartial tribunal to discuss their differences. Our great difficulty in the past has been that we could not get a hearing. The act has been tested already in the case of the machinists and the Grand Trunk Railway Company, and no better tribute could be paid to it than the settlement arrived at in that case, which was reported to your executive at the time of writing this report as being satisfactory to both parties. The arbitration lasted three days, thus meeting the objections of those who, not unnaturally, thought that the delay possible under the bill might be too great to make its provisions of any avail.

The congress endorsed the act by a vote of eighty-one to nineteen. The words of the resolution are as follows:

WHEREAS organized labor has from time to time expressed its disapproval of strikes except as a last resort in industrial disputes;

WHEREAS particularly in disputes connected with public utilities the public have rights that must be respected and considered;

WHEREAS the Lemieux bill is designed to avoid strikes and lockouts in connection with industrial disputes in certain utilities until such time as the merits of the dispute are publicly investigated; and

WHEREAS organized labor always courts investigation of its grievances by reason of the

justice of its claims and its desire to be fair:
 RESOLVED, That this Trades and Labor Congress of Canada hereby express its approval of the principle of the Lemieux bill as being in consonance with the oft-expressed attitude of organized labor in favor of investigation and conciliation.

It is true that the congress was composed of trade organizations very few of which were under the provisions of the law, but the congress showed its sincerity by asking by a vote of fifty-nine to twenty-two to have the provisions of the law extended to all trades and industries.

It is a mistake to suppose that labor organizations or anyone else disbelieves

in legislation that will prevent, or that will tend to minimize, industrial conflicts. The Sheep Shearers Union in Australia, which had 10,000 strikes in nine years, was the first to welcome the Court of Conciliation Act of 1907.

It is impossible but that a body of world-wide experiments, and the experiences drawn from them, such as the commission would digest would afford congress and the various state legislatures bases for legislation which would save the country millions of dollars in wages, and in loss from strikes with the attendant suffering to the public as well as to the contestants.

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

IX

INDUSTRY AND RELIGION: THEIR COMMON GROUND AND INTERDEPENDENCE¹

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Industry and religion with education state and solve the problem of human life when on common ground. Apart, much more in antagonism, they prove existence to be a tragedy. For what is industry? In human terms, it is the base-line, the rootage, the very condition of existence. And religion with education is the sky-line, the atmosphere, the horizon of life, which makes it more than meat, and the body more than raiment, and without which life is not worth the living.

Apart from religion and education, and the human value with which they invest toil, its process and its product, we have a body without a soul, lungs without any air to breathe, eyes without any light to see through, earth without atmosphere or sky. On the other hand, religion and education without industry give us only disembodied spirit, life on earth without the conditions of an earthly existence.

¹The substance of this article appeared in the Merrick Lectures, 1907-8, under the title *The Social Application of Religion*. Jennings and Graham.

The essentials of industry and religion, not their organizations, are our first consideration. Common ground is sought on which to consider their over-arching ideals and their undergirding motives which hold the constituency of each together, reserving for subsequent inquiry the relations between the church or other ecclesiastical expressions of organized religion and the agencies of employing capital and of organized labor. Have religion and industry, in their largest and most essential human significance, anything in common? What have they to do with each other? Is there any common ground where they can, and ought, and must stand together, if these two essential functions and ideals of human life are to fulfil their part in the order of existence?

In the foreground of our discussion lies the portentous fact that the religions of the western world are entering the second industrial century of human history. What that means we have scarcely begun to imagine. But the first cen-

tury of modern industry stands in the clear. The nineteenth century was ushered into history by the whirl of the power-loom which had then just fairly got to work. When the hand-loom ceased to beat the measured tread of all the centuries gone by, and the power-loom began to set the pace of modern life, then mediaevalism ended and times altogether new began. So much more rapid and radical than any other change through which civilization has ever passed was the transformation wrought by the introduction of machinery, the concentration of capital, the establishment of the competitive order, and the subdivision and organization of labor that the appearance of those new factors among men is recognized as "the industrial revolution." More than anything else which had yet been introduced into the world they began to weave human life itself not only into a new pattern but into a new texture. In less than thirty years the new machinery virtually revolutionized the world's life and began to change the very face of the earth.

We are far enough away from that abrupt break with the past to inquire whither we are being borne on the still rising tides of the new times. Whither away is modern industrialism bearing human life upon its resistless streams of tendency? From the course it took through its first hundred years we can discern at least the direction of the channels through which its swift and tumultuous tendencies are forging their way into the times that are to be.

With the French revolution the individual began to gain a new independence. That mighty revolt against the order of life which had for centuries merged the one man in the mass, forever broke up the ancient solidarity. Out of the death of feudalism came the birth of democracy. The democratic individual was being born politically when machinery appeared to give him a new world to conquer. All the inherent and attendant forces of machine production conspired to intensify the independent individuality of those who exploited the tools of production. Even the many more who were left to work with their bare hands, without either the material

or the machinery for producing their own living, were individualized as never before. The serf was no longer tied to the soil. Liberty of movement came in for the first time with the world market, and labor could go where there was the greatest demand for it. The individual became the new unit of society.

No sooner had the type of this new individual unit been fairly and firmly set than the same forces immediately began to put together those who had been separated from their groups. The industrial process of reintegration set in. The forces resident in or centered about machine production and the subdivision of labor began to assert their superiority to the domination of the very individuals who created and until recently controlled them. The tendency of this new industrial society has been more and more from individual independence to the interdependence of man upon man, craft upon craft, class upon class, nation upon nation. Before this century was half over industrial life swept away from unrestricted competition to a combination of capital and labor as inevitable and involuntary as the pull of the moon upon the tides. From the personal maintenance of the freedom of contract, the wage-workers were driven to the only possible exercise of that right by collective bargaining. Politically, the trend has been from local autonomy and state rights to national and international consolidation. Socially, whole racial populations have been blended more and more in huge cosmopolitan, composite citizenships. The irresistible ground swell and tidal movement of the present quarter century has been away from individualism toward a new solidarity.

Yet beneath all the overlying turmoil and friction, injustice and menace, attending this rapid and radical readjustment, there is certainly developing a larger liberty at least for the class, a rising standard of living for the mass, a stronger defence against the aggression of one class upon another, and a firmer basis and more authoritative power to make and maintain peaceful and permanent settlements of industrial differences. More slowly but surely there are developing legal forms and

sanctions which not only make for justice and peace between employers and employes, but for the recognition of the rights and final authority of that third and greatest party to every industrial interest and issue—the public.

All Christian and Jewish faiths are inextricably identified with these human factors of the industrial problem. Their destiny is inevitably involved in these irresistible tendencies in our industrial democracy. Not for the first time is the power of the Christian ideal and faith being tested by its ability to solve the problems it has raised. For Christianity has ever intensified, if it did not create, the industrial crises which attended its birth and rejuvenescence. The Christian evangel has all along held the ideal overhead and the dynamic within the heart which has inspired a divine discontent. Every now and then the gospel strikes the earth under the feet of the common man, and he rises up and demands to be counted as one. Old John Wycliffe's categorical imperative, "Father he bade us all him call, masters we have none," inspired Piers Ploughman, the first great labor song; John Ball, whose field preaching was a declaration of rights; and Wat Tyler, who led the peasants' strike. Many another labor movement has inscribed no more nor less upon its banners than the Swabian peasants had upon theirs, a serf kneeling at the cross with the legend, "Nothing but God's justice." The progress of the democracy has often halted in passing temple and church, and listened at their oracles to hear whether they could express religious ideals and precepts in terms of industrial relationship; whether it would let the worker be the man the free gospel and the free school have taught him to know himself to be.

Protestant Christianity has from its very birth been persistently faced with the demand for the economic justice and industrial peace promised by the prophets and proclaimed in the name of Christ. The reformation of the sixteenth century must be admitted to have fallen short, however excusably, of the great moral and social results which would have been its legitimate consummation if its splendid beginnings could have been

carried on and out. For it was made possible, more perhaps than by anything else, by the social discontent of the oppressed peasantry. Luther's protest found its most fertile soil in those suffering from the oppressive industrial conditions under which people had been robbed and beaten to the point of revolt. The economic side of the great Reformation is yet to be written. So far it has received scant emphasis except in the radical literature of writers avowedly inimical to Christianity.

At the rise of the evangelical movement in the eighteenth century the Wesleys had no sooner raised that standard of reality in religion than they found themselves face to face with this same imperative industrial problem. The Methodist chapels and class meetings trained both the leaders and the mass of the British working people for their trade union movement, which was one of the incidental and most far-reaching results of the revival in England. The rise of the great middle classes to their activity in social reforms is due to this same evangel which brought the sunrise of a new day out of the leaden skies of eighteenth-century England. Further, the rise of the factory system suddenly put the Christianity of the nineteenth century to the test of its supreme crisis. It was the evangel of the seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, of Frederick Denison Maurice, and of Charles Kingsley, which, more than the Duke of Wellington's battalions, saved England from the revolution threatened by the Chartist movement to the evolution which has sanely and surely developed England's magnificent legislative, municipal, and social progress in the last quarter century.

The present crisis in industrial relationship tests the capacity of the Christianity of the churches to adapt itself to the modern conditions of life, and marks the point at which it will either make another great advance or suffer a sharp decline. It must find terms of economic and industrial relationship in which to express and impress its sanctions, if it is to survive, much more guide and dominate life in this industrial age. And our system and methods of industry must find terms of religious spirit and fellow-

ship in which to justify their claim to be forces making for righteousness and for the progress of the race. This interdependence of religion and industry states the problem of finding common ground, on which they make it possible for each other to fulfil their essential function, a common ground upon which religious industrial life may become actual in this age of the world.

There are at least three human interests upon which both industry and religion set their value. At three points the industrial and religious valuations must either find a common denomination or be fatally exclusive of each other. Religion and industry test each other by the valuation which each puts upon every human life, upon the standard of living, upon union through sacrifice as essential to progress.

Upon each human life religion has ever placed a divine valuation. In both the Jewish and Christian faiths God identifies himself with each single self, by creating man in his own image and likeness and by standing in between each life and self-neglect or the aggression of others. When the king of Israel was self-convicted of blood-guiltiness in sending a common soldier to his death, he cried out, as though he had struck at the very life of God, "Against thee, thee only, have I sinned." The Roman who was capable of coining the sentiment "Nothing that is common to man is foreign to me," was also capable of divorcing his wife because she did not expose to death the girl baby born in his absence, so disappointed was he that the child was not a boy. Yet at that very time Christianity began to invest every life with such a divine sanctity that the law of every Christian nation has ever since gotten in between, not only the parent and the child, but between even the mother and the unborn babe. In America we put a valuation upon every child so great that we can afford to make the school tax heavy rather than to have any boy or girl grow up uneducated. The right to life is so sacred that every community in Christendom bears the burden of providing food, clothing, and shelter to every helpless person, no matter how useless to self or others such

an one may be. More than by any speech, symbol, or act of man, "the cross" sets God's estimate upon the value of every man, woman, and child. And it has imposed upon the religious conscience that sense of the worth of a life which is expressed in what we call "the burden of the soul."

How then does the industrial valuation of the same life accord with the religious value of the soul? Our economists, indeed, estimate each able-bodied working-man's life to be worth at least two thousand dollars to the working wealth of the nation. But in shameless inconsistency with these estimates of our religious ideal and economic valuation stands the industrial depreciation of the value of a human life. Let the price-mark on a life be set by the overwork of women, with which the courts are interfering to protect the nation and the race from the deterioration of their offspring. Let the insatiable waste of child labor be measured by the instinct of self-protection which forces nations to protect themselves from the industrial depletion of the very stock of the race. Let the frightful industrial casualties in America sound the depths of our own disregard of human life and safety by the lists of the dead and wounded, disabled and missing, which in some industries exceed the casualties of the deadliest battle-fields of our worst wars. Let our conscienceless indifference to the grievous burden imposed by the breadwinner's death be arraigned by our prolonged refusal to distribute that burden of supporting the dependent families of the slain or disabled workers as it is distributed in other lands between the owners of the industry, the tax-payers of the state and the wage-earners.

What makes the workaday life a tragedy is the hopelessly inconsistent disparity between the valuation which the industries and the religion of the same people put upon the same life. The claim of religious people to love the "soul," seems the cruelest hypocrisy when identified with the heedless carelessness for the very life of the same person. It would seem that to make good its claims to bearing the burden of souls, religion must find concrete meas-

ures of industrial protection in which to express its care for the lives of men. And yet, until very recently, the working people of America have been left alone by the influential constituencies of the churches to make their hard and heroic struggle for self-protection. First in the field, hardest at work has organized labor been to protect the religious and educational sanctity of each working life, to regulate or suppress child labor, to shorten the hours, and improve the conditions of women's work. But the efforts of others should not be forgotten. The splendid initiative of the Earl of Shaftesbury in placing the factory acts on the statute books of England two generations ago has led men and women from all classes ever since, and never more than now, to unite to protect and enhance the value of life. More and more the forces of religion and civilization are uniting in such concerted movements as the National Child Labor Committee, the Consumers' League, the Visiting Nurses' Association, and many other voluntary agencies to co-operate with factory inspectors, truant officers, and juvenile courts in the enforcement of just and humane legislation. Thus the sanctions of religion and education upon the value of a life are being translated in terms, economic and industrial, by every protected piece of machinery which keeps the fingers on the hand and the hand on the arm; by all the hygienic and sanitary conditions provided for in shops; by all the efforts for industrial insurance; by all the life-saving appliances and conditions on the waterways and the railways of the land; and wherever safety is in peril in the working world.

The standard of living affords another common ground on which religion and industry are found to be interdependent. In raising the standard of living to be compatible with the value of life, both industry and religion realize their ideal. By holding over every one's head the ideal of what a human life was meant and made to be, religion lifts the standards of that life, creates a divine discontent with anything less and lower, and stirs men to struggle singly and together to maintain and advance a rising

scale of living which comes to be as dear as life itself. The response of industry to this ideal of religion is the demand for the opportunity to earn such a livelihood as will make the realization of that idea possible. The struggle of working people to raise and maintain their standard of living is due to the best that is in them and not to the worst. "If this is the kind of a man or woman religion and education teach me to be," the worker naturally concludes, "I should be given the chance to earn the living of such a man or woman." Interpreted in human terms "the standard of living" means the rest which the son of a working mother thinks she should have in her old age, the exemption which his wife should have from wage-earning in order to mother his children, the schooling his boy or girl should get before going out into the working world. The rising standards of living are due to the ideal which religion has taught us all to have of manhood and womanhood, fatherhood and motherhood, wifehood and childhood. Employing industries, which have too long and too widely united to hold down and retard the rise in labor's standard of living, have more and more to their credit many and varied unselfish efforts and achievements in lifting the standards of labor's livelihood and opening to ever-increasing multitudes the opportunity and means of realizing it. Both among employers and employees the struggle to achieve the rising standard of living for the class and the mass should be sanctified by religion. It should be no small part of our personal and collective religious aim and effort not only to protect our fellowmen from lowering the standard of their living, but also to help them raise it, and keep it rising, above a mere living wage, as far as the conditions of the trade or craft will allow. Until we thus translate our religious love of souls into our economic care for selves, religion will mean very little to those who are in the struggle for life and livelihood in an industrial age.

A third common ground on which religion and industry are seen to be interdependent is defined by the fact that both have taught men to sacrifice in order to unite for the common good. Have we

not been teaching, drilling, disciplining our men, women and children—at home, at school, and at church; by their loyalty to family, party, patriotism, and faith—to sacrifice self and stand together for the common good of all or any of them? Have we not invested with patriotic and even religious sanctity those who sacrifice themselves for “their own” folk, fatherland, or faith? How then do these virtues suddenly become vices, these heroes and heroines all at once become sordid conspirators when they combine, stake everything dear to each, risk all, and stop short of the loss of nothing, in united action to save their own or their fellow workers’ standard of living? They may do so in unwise or even unjust ways, but we submit that what is by common consent considered wholly meritorious in every other sphere for self-sacrifice cannot be wholly reprehensible in that of industrial relationship where it is hardest and costliest to exercise the virtues of altruism. What is attributed to the very best in men elsewhere cannot be attributed to the very worst in men here. The “union” of laborers cannot differ, *per se*, morally and as an economic necessity from a combination of capitalists or the communion of members of the same religious faith. If at this age of the world, combination is necessary to success, where is the justice in forcing these competitors of ours to do their business with us as though they lived in that former age of the world when each one could mind his own business without combining with others?

It looks then as though the industrial world has outgrown our moral sense, as though our ethics are hopelessly belated, for we seem to want to make our profits under the modern method of combining all available resources, while at the same time insisting that our fellow workers shall deal with us under the old outworn and discarded system of individual industry. That is, we want others to do unto us as we are not willing to do unto them. It looks as though some of us were being tried and found wanting. Of “times that try men’s souls” we speak as though they were to be dreaded and yet belong to the “heroic age,” but when

we look back upon them from safe distance, we are generally forced to confess that the “times” were not more out of joint than that the “souls”—our own or others’—needed to be tried.

These war times in industry are indeed to be dreaded, but like all great crises that turn the course of history or personal experience, they too are heroic. But the heroism should not be confined to the strikes and lockouts of the irrepressible conflict. Industrial peace should have its victories at the hand of religion, no less renowned than war. The cross and its sacrifice, if they are to mean anything in this industrial age, must be translated by religion into terms of industrial conciliation, intercessorial mediation and sacrificial service, which will bring the pact of Christ’s own peace in human brotherhood out of fratricidal strife.

Industry has its cross as surely as religion. There is no other way to the crown for either than the passion of sacrificial service. Sacrifice not only for self but for others, is the only way by which either the strong or the weak can be crowned with that equality of opportunity which is the God-given right of manhood. Until industry takes up its cross with the self-sacrificing passion of religion, neither labor nor capital, employe nor employer, can really come to their own. Unless religion transforms its cross into terms of economic value and of industrial relationships it can never hold its supremacy over human life in an industrial age. They must unite if either is to realize its ideal or function in human life. For they are interdependent, and only on the common ground of their community of human interests can they ever bring “the new heavens and the new earth” which God has promised to man through them.

[THIS IS THE NINTH OF PROFESSOR TAYLOR’S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH IS RUNNING PERIODICALLY IN THE SURVEY. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I. LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II. THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16; III. PERSONALITY A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE, JANUARY 6; IV. THE CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE, JANUARY 20; V. CHANGING CONDITIONS OF A WORKING FAITH, FEBRUARY 3; VI. THE RELIGION OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS, MARCH 2; VII. THE FAMILY: FIELD, FUNCTION AND TRIBUTARY AGENCIES, APRIL 6; VIII. SURVIVAL AND REVIVAL OF NEIGHBORSHIP, MAY 4; THE TITLE OF THE NEXT ARTICLE WILL BE: ORGANIZED INDUSTRY AND ORGANIZED RELIGION.]

Volume XXVIII, No. 10

Week of June 8, 1912

THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC



1846—DANIEL H. BURNHAM—1912

The American city planner and architect who died June 1 in Heidelberg. Mr. Burnham's genius in the creation of the "White City" on Chicago's lake front in 1892 left as enduring an impress on civic development in the United States as his work for San Francisco, Chicago, and Washington.

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THE PITH OF IT

THE California Supreme Court, close on the heels of the Washington court, has upheld the eight-hour law for women.

BY a non-partisan vote of 49 to 11 the Senate last week followed the House in passing the bill which provides that labor on all government contracts shall be limited to eight hours.

AT the same time a high mortality rate is discoverable among bills dealing with industrial disputes. Labor's opposition to these measures, says Allen T. Burns, is based on the belief that they represent "too little investigation of industrial relations"; yet in them is a reflection of a "strong, irresistible, justifiable public demand for a method to prevent or settle" labor altercations. P. 416.

WHAT is the Pacific Coast doing to forestall the problems that will begin with the first ship heading west through the Panama Canal? asks a correspondent. Getting a grip on conditions which exist now, answers Francis H. McLean, who adds, however, that there is too great readiness to leave matters wholly in the hands of public officials. P. 417.

BY preventing a quorum in the caucus called to consider such legislation as the Dillingham immigration bill, members of the House of Representatives killed that measure for the present session. The Root amendment reviewed by Congressman Parsons in last week's SURVEY especially aroused opposition.

A PERSONAL victory for Judge Lindsey and a civic victory for Denver lay in the triumph last week of the citizens' party. P. 409.

POINTING to the success with which finger prints have met the problem of conviction in New York's Night Court for Women, various agencies are urging the application of the system to all minor offenders. P. 410.

BUT though conviction has been simplified, punishment of prostitutes is still a vexed difficulty. In a letter to THE SURVEY, Mr. Whitin of the Committee of Fourteen discusses the white slave situation in New York. P. 412.

THERE may be nothing in a name, but a letter-head traveling all the way from Brooklyn to lower Manhattan helped bring a substantial increase in wages for scrub women. P. 414.

WHEN the big brewers and the brewery workers got around a long table and worked out a co-operative compensation plan it looked as if an agreement was about to be launched which would carry out along voluntary lines many of the ideas which Germany puts into effect through its imperial system. Now the plan has been halted—perhaps permanently thrown out—by its rejection by the union referendum.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE, EDITOR
GRAHAM TAYLOR, JANE ADDAMS, ASSOCIATES

A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY PUBLISHED BY THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

ROBERT W. DEFOREST, PRESIDENT; OTTO T. BANNARD, VICE-PRESIDENT; J. P. MORGAN, TREASURER; EDWARD T. DEVINE, GENERAL SECRETARY

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IF any city will take the profit out of vice it will immediately reduce the volume of vice at least 50 per cent. If, in addition, it will make vice dangerous to men as well as to women, to patrons, property-owners and business men as well as to dive-keepers and women street-walkers, it will reduce vice 75 per cent or more and will reduce the wreckage of health and morals in much the same proportion."—WIRT W. HALLAM, of Chicago, before the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

"THE SKINNING OF THE BEAST"

"The Denver elections," says Judge Lindsey, "mean that the beast is skinned." The elections were held June 1, and against the combined activities of the local political rings, and against the thumping of the drums of local pride to the effect that Judge Lindsey had defamed the fair name of the city in his *The Beast and the Jungle*, a straight citizens' ticket won out with a 22,000 majority. Far in the lead of all the others ran the polling for the indefatigable juvenile court judge who has made his children's bench the vantage ground for assailing all those forces, high or low, which exploit the community life and which in the long run play havoc with childhood, whether they are gambling joints, or houses of prostitution, or such public service corporations as make common cause with the politicians of the under world in order to control a municipality.

The juvenile court has been almost the only public department on an independent footing and was made the object of an all-sides attack. As the event turned, not only was this assault resisted successfully but the forces which for eight years have kept Mayor Speer in office were turned back and routed at every point. Judge Lindsey will himself have to go through the fight for a second time in the fall to make sure of his seat, as the legal, as distinct from the political, effort to dislodge him, has so tangled up the tenure of the juvenile judgeship that the only safe thing is to be elected at both city and county elections. In the municipal count, Judge Lindsey polled the highest majority, over 40,000 out of a total vote of about 66,500, though against him as the center of the fight the bi-party machine had arrayed but one candidate, C. T. Gavin. For all other offices both Republican and Democratic candidates were run.

Mayor Henry J. Arnold's majority, only two thousand behind Judge Lindsey's, and the clean sweep of all of-

fices show that the people of Denver were alive to the fact that this election was to be more than another of a succession of votes of confidence in Judge Lindsey. It was proclaimed as a campaign for democratic government and citizens of all classes took part, fighting step by step and ward by ward. Among other incidents in the fight Judge Lindsey let his own candidature take care of itself to fight the alderman who represented the machine in one ward, and who seemed well-nigh invincible. "The machine now behind the government," says the *Rocky Mountain News*, "is the only legitimate machine in city government, that in which every good citizen has his place and his duty to perform. In this great machine the business man is working side by side with the laborer."

"No political parties lost," says the *Denver Express*, "only those corporations that have turned votes to dollars lost. No candidates won. Only the people score a victory."

The Denver election gives promise of the triumph of the progressives throughout Colorado. Judge Lindsey claims that "the Recall of Decisions Bill and other radical measures to be submitted to the people in November will all be carried." Says the *Denver News*:

Tramway, water and telephone companies, must be brought under the law and made to respect the rights of the people. There is nothing of such tremendous importance to this city and its people as the successful resistance of the outrageous claims that these monopolies are making, and which claims have been so treacherously upheld by the city's paid servants. The perpetual franchise of the tramway—the \$18,000,000 grab of the water company, and the extortions of the telephone company—all must be fought and beaten by the citizens.

These are bread and butter propositions. On the outcome of them hangs the prosperity of the people and the growth of the city. Fair taxes, with the benefits flowing from their wise and prudent expenditure—better car service, universal transfers, with a three-cent fare eventually—purer water, more water and better water—lower light charges—reduced telephone rates—clean streets—the maximum of protection for health, life and property—it is by such inducements that a city wins home-builders.

REFORMATION BY FINGER PRINTS

With a good deal of persistency the suggestion is at present being made in various quarters that the finger-print system of identification be extended beyond the narrow use to which it has so far been limited—the detection of the major criminal. With the demonstration that records can be made of the finger tips of new born babes which will serve to identify them through life came the argument that this means be adopted for discovering the mothers of foundlings born in institutions.¹ The local Men and Religion Movement in New York not only recommended that finger print records be taken of all persons arrested in the city, but offered to induce all the men of the churches to permit impressions of their fingers to be placed in the records of the police department. In the department itself the suggestion is not without advocacy. Capt. Joseph A. Faurot, finger-print expert for New York's police, has for months been urging the extension of the system.

In a paper prepared by Joseph T. Williams for the Committee on Criminal Courts of the Charity Organization Society of New York, the definite proposal is made that finger printing be extended in the magistrates' courts of New York to include all quasi-criminal offences over which the magistrates have summary jurisdiction, such as intoxication, vagrancy, and disorderly conduct. Those interested in the idea have already taken it up with some of the city magistrates, and the ones so far consulted have expressed enthusiastic approval. The object is to place in the hands of the judge an absolutely reliable record by which he can tell whether or not the offender before him has ever been in the police courts of New York before; and if so, how many times, on what charges, and what disposition was made of his case. It is pointed out that under existing conditions the most confirmed "repeater" may be convicted today, and tomorrow be haled into court again under a fictitious name and unless the judge or the police officer can remember him may pass as a first or infrequent offender. To prevent this hap-

azard classification it is necessary that the finger print be a court and not merely a police record. The police departments of many cities use the finger-print system of identification for the more serious offences, but New York is believed to be the only place where the impression becomes a part of the magistrate's record to enable him to detect a new offender from an habitual one.

It is in the night court for women that this use is made of the finger print. And it is the success of the system there which the advocates of its extension cite as one of their arguments. Introduced twenty months ago, the taking of finger prints of all prostitutes has enabled the judge, before pronouncing sentence, to determine beyond question the previous court record of the defendant and the disposition of each case. Figures obtained for the Committee on Criminal Courts show the success of the scheme in reference to the single matter of identification. Here is the record for women convicted of prostitution during the sixteen months ended January 1, 1912:

No. of Times Finger- Printed	No. of Persons	No. of Prints Taken	No. of Iden- tifications
1	1736	1736	
2	606	1212	606
3	293	879	586
4	164	656	492
5	81	405	324
6	42	252	210
7	8	56	48
8	4	32	28
9	1	9	8
10	2	20	18
	2937	5257	2320

In explanation Mr. Williams writes:

The above figures show that in taking 5,257 prints the finger-print expert identified 2,320 cases, or 44 per cent, as duplicates of former prints taken within the same sixteen months. They also show that of the total number of 2,937 individuals convicted and finger-printed, 1,201 or 41 per cent were back in the court and convicted once again or oftener within the sixteen months. Six hundred and six persons or 21 per cent of the total number were convicted twice; two hundred and ninety-three persons or 10 per cent, three times; one hundred and sixty-four persons or 6 per cent, four times; one hundred and thirty-eight persons or 5 per cent, five times or more.

When the system was inaugurated there were, of course, no finger-print records. Identification therefore could not be made

¹See THE SURVEY, April 20, page 119.

until a supply of records had accumulated. The fact that so many identifications of repeaters were made within these sixteen months speaks very well indeed for the success of the finger-print system.

THE BEST WAY TO SPOT "ROUNDERS"

With this experience to point to the question is asked:

Since the use of finger prints for all the other offences mentioned seems quite practicable why should we not have it?

The main advantage of the finger print is that the judge need not be racked with doubt in estimating a woman's character and past history. He is able to determine at once whether she is a fit subject for probation, for a reformatory, or for a long work-house sentence merely to keep her off the streets. At the present time the night court magistrates are releasing on probation a large portion of the women whom the records show to be new offenders. Another advantage is that lying in regard to former convictions is found by the prisoner to be useless. In the night court the more hardened offender often in the past made the plea of first offence in order to avoid a severe sentence, and the inexperienced young girl in court for the first time sometimes confessed to several previous convictions in order to be considered too hopeless for a reformatory with its longer term of commitment. These impersonal and impartial records show that nothing is gained from subterfuge. When asked her name, she may be Lulu Smith one time, Sadie Jones the next, and something else the next, but consultation of the records requiring less than two minutes demonstrates that in spite of her several aliases she is one and the same individual. The tendency to give various aliases has decreased. One of the two women shown in the above table as having been convicted ten times, and who has since been convicted for the twelfth time, gave the same name throughout.

Before finger-prints were used the magistrate could only guess whether the woman was a new or old offender unless she happened to be recognized by someone connected with the court. This is precisely the situation today with all the other kinds of offenders in the magistrates' courts.

In a study of inebriety made about three years ago, Bailey B. Burritt of the State Charities Aid Association discovered that men had been convicted in the magistrates' courts for intoxication and sentenced to the workhouse as often as forty, fifty, and even sixty-five times. Some of them really spent their lives as guests of the municipality. Nevertheless if one of these men was convicted again tomorrow and chose to give a fictitious name, which is a common practice in the criminal courts, there would be nothing whatever in the court records to distinguish him from a first offender. Without

some such reliable record on hand, how is it possible for the judge to make an intelligent disposition? The habitual vagrant should similarly be known to the judge and also the man whose conduct is chronically "disorderly." When a new offender is brought into court on one of these charges, nothing so much exonerates him from a severe punishment as the proof that he has never been in court before. What he needs is encouragement. With the confirmed offender the situation is very different. In fact were records on hand to permit more intelligent disposition of cases, fewer offenders would become "chronic." When the records show the defendant to be a hardened offender and therefore less amenable to reformation the magistrate can impose a lengthy term of workhouse incarceration with an untroubled mind.

Finger prints afford the most humane method of identifying. One still hears occasionally a reference to the stigma of finger printing, but fortunately its civil and commercial uses both in this and other countries are becoming so extensive that this prejudice is passing away. Finger-print records can never be read by the general public; in fact, only by the official expert. Having one's finger-print impressions on file does not by any means involve humiliation, as is the case with the picture in the rogues' gallery or a written record of one's bodily scars and deformities. It should be remembered, too, that while finger printing is useful in showing the record of the hardened offender it is just as useful in proving that from the point of view of the courts the new offender's life was heretofore blameless.

INSTALLATION NOT HARD NOR COSTLY

After argument comes a suggestion of methods for installing the finger-print system in the various magistrates' courts. The size of the problem is indicated by the fact that in 1909 in Manhattan and the Bronx 40,000 persons were convicted of intoxication, vagrancy, or disorderly conduct; in 1910, 34,000; in 1911, 32,355.

Of several possible methods for installing finger prints, the following seems the most practicable. A man may be arraigned for drunkenness or vagrancy on the Bowery one time and in Harlem the next. It would be entirely necessary, therefore, that all the courts keep complete finger-print files in order to know this man's record.

In Manhattan and the Bronx there are eight separate court buildings. When a person is convicted in any one of the eight day courts or two night courts his finger-print impressions will be taken, his record looked up and shown to the judge and sentence will follow according to the merits of the case. Then, if the person is a new offender the finger-print impressions will be sent to a cen-

tral bureau to be photographed and after numbering them properly the central bureau will forward to each court a copy of the finger prints to be placed on file. If the same man is convicted again in any one of these courts his previous conviction or convictions, together with the dispositions which followed, will be immediately available. The reproducing of the impressions by photograph for the several courts will be necessary only once because on later convictions each court will already have on file this person's finger-print impressions which can be referred to by number.

In estimating the cost of such a system allowance is made for six additional finger-print experts, two photographers, one supervisor for the central bureau, and for various supplies, including a permanent photograph equipment. The cost of installing and operating this system for one year is placed at about \$19,000. But the establishment of the system, it is argued, would cause a saving in another direction. In the study by Mr. Burritt it was shown that one "rounder" had cost the city more than \$1,300, another \$2,500, another \$2,800, and a fourth \$737. "It is safe to say," concludes Mr. Williams, "that the wiser dispositions made possible by having on hand the knowledge obtained by this system will result in an important saving to the municipality."

A CHANGED PROBLEM AND THE COMMITTEE OF 14

Although finger printing of prostitutes has simplified one, it has not touched another, difficulty in the Women's Night Court. The establishment of this court, the assignment of special magistrates to rotate in it, and the use of finger prints have combined to transfer the problem of street solicitation from the matter of conviction to that of proper disposition and punishment. This is one of the problems with which the reorganized Committee of Fourteen in New York will deal. Of the difficulties in the proper disposition of the cases of convicted prostitutes, the committee in a recent statement declares:

It is recognized by all that a workhouse commitment is but punitive and that such treatment in the twentieth century does not meet with approval. This is especially emphasized by the fact that our workhouse is

decidedly an institution of the last century and many efforts are under way to create substitutes for such commitments. The police have for more than a year past been making consistent efforts to keep the women off the streets, the number of such arrests averaging 300 a month during 1911, and 450 a month during the present year.

This question of dealing with street solicitation is part of the broadening of the work of the Committee of Fourteen which it recently announced. Organized in 1905 to suppress the disorderly (Raines Law) hotels which had increased throughout the greater city as a result of the new excise law, this committee, after completing the study of law enforcement and making its recommendations, continued its work. In its successful accomplishment of the task originally undertaken the committee came into possession of valuable information concerning the social evil in New York. As it declared:

It seemed immoral to allow such information to be lost and such force dissipated. Therefore in default of the adoption of its recommendation for the appointment or creation of a vice commission, the committee has widened its work to the suppression of commercialized sexual vice.

A guarantee fund has been secured for a minimum budget and several new members have been added. The Rev. John P. Peters has resumed the chairmanship held by him from 1905 to 1910 and Frederick H. Whitin and Walter G. Hooke will continue as secretaries in charge of the detail work.

This broadening of the committee's work is declared to be the result of the failure of Mayor Gaynor to act upon the recommendations contained in the report of the research committee of the Committee of Fourteen, made in April, 1910, and of the grand jury of which John D. Rockefeller, Jr., was foreman. The latter, it will be remembered, was charged especially to investigate white slave traffic. In a letter to Graham Taylor, written after the publication of the latter's article in *THE SURVEY* on police conditions in a number of cities¹ Mr. Whitin of the Committee of Fourteen said:

The failure of the mayor to accept these recommendations was not greatly disappoint-

¹See *THE SURVEY*, April 20, page 136.

ing for it was believed by many citizens that the work of such a commission would probably not justify the expense or labor involved. This opinion was strengthened by Chicago results. First, it was not believed that conditions differed essentially between New York and Chicago, and that a second comprehensive survey upon which to base recommendations was unnecessary. Second, the discontinuance of activity by the Chicago commission, without the general adoption of its main recommendations, strengthened the belief that a New York commission was inadvisable at present.

In New York as in Chicago the main factor has been the mayor. In Judge Gaynor the city has a rather remarkable executive. As judge of the highest local appellate court he had come to hold strong opinions with regard to what he designated as "personal liberty." This opinion has resulted in the police department being the weak spot in his administration. The main endeavor of the mayor has been to eliminate graft. To do this he has adopted various expedients, including the removal of plain clothes men from the control and direction of the district inspectors. It is believed he has been successful in stopping excise graft through his order that officers shall not enter licensed premises for the purpose of getting evidence. The mayor holds that doing so is to induce the saloon-keeper to commit the "crime." This may have successfully eliminated a large source of graft revenue but it has also resulted in a complete lack of enforcement of the excise law. The mayor's argument is that the first duty of the police is to maintain order upon the public highways and that the sale of liquor out of hours in the rear room of saloons may be a violation of law but it is not directly a breaking of the peace.

An attempt was made last winter to open up a row of disorderly houses which had been closed some years previous. The result was such a shocking condition upon that street that the police department ordered them closed, despite the general policy of Mayor Gaynor against the use of extra-legal methods. While these houses were open and running the belief was expressed in some quarters that the police authorities were trying out a segregation policy.

Some months ago the mayor with the approval of the comptroller issued an order that police officers should no longer accompany prostitutes to hotel rooms or rooms in disorderly houses, and pay money to them for the exposure of their persons. The purpose of this, of course, had been to prove their character as prostitutes. The mayor held that this action was not only injurious to the officers but was similar to the customary method of getting evidence in excise cases; that is,

it was inducing a person to commit a crime for the purpose of securing evidence against him.

AN EXECUTIVE RULING AND LAX ENFORCEMENT

Mr. Whitin deplores the civic consequences of this ruling. He writes:

The result has been a great uncertainty regarding the enforcement of the law against disorderly houses and disorderly hotels, a condition which must continue until a thorough test has been made of the action of the courts upon "observation evidence." This in the case of disorderly houses consists of counting the number of men seen entering and leaving during certain hours of the night and an actual visit to the house by two plain clothes men, who find women scantily dressed seated in a room, by whom they are urged to go to bedrooms for purposes of sexual intercourse. "Observation hotel cases" consist in observing the many women repeatedly taking men to a hotel upon the same night and proving the women's character from the finger-print records at the women's court upon their later arrest and conviction for loitering.

While there is a general sentiment in support of the action of the mayor in this matter of disorderly house evidence, his action has had a very bad effect. The order was issued before a definite trial had been made of the sufficiency of the observation evidence. Should this evidence fail the situation with regard to the houses and hotels will be similar to that regarding the saloons (a complete failure of enforcement) without the excuse which the mayor offers in the latter case that the duty of enforcing that law rests upon another official.

The police commissioner is constantly criticizing the judges for suspending sentences in far too many cases, thus making more difficult the maintenance of proper conditions. There may be foundation for his criticism but the greatest advance in the last year made in the fight against the social evil has been in the sentences imposed by judges and magistrates. As the result of indictments secured by the white slave grand jury employees of disorderly hotels were convicted in six out of seven cases and sentences of six to twelve months with fines of \$500 were imposed. Two proprietors indicted pleaded guilty but escaped with only heavy fines. In other cases, sentences of a year were given by the same court. In the lower court during 1911, 80 per cent of the cases were convicted with prison sentences averaging over thirty days each and the fines totaling \$14,000. The action of this lower court (special sessions) has been most satisfactory in special cases but there is some considerable difficulty in getting more than a fine in the cases from those houses located in districts which have long been occupied by them.

THE SCRUB WOMEN OF THE FINANCIAL DISTRICT

Pioneer work in behalf of the women office cleaners working in lower Manhattan has been carried on for four months by the Riverside Improvement Association of Brooklyn. The results of this campaign show what can be done by presenting to those who are directly concerned with an industry that is underpaid, a convincing collection of facts that had hitherto been neglected or unnoticed.

The Riverside Improvement Association is a group of men, everyday Brooklyn residents, some of them residing in the district adjacent to South Ferry in Brooklyn, some of them living on Brooklyn Heights. The organization is one of the activities of the Willow Place Chapel House, maintained by the Church of the Saviour. It is concerned in the welfare of the district of Brooklyn lying along the water front. Members of the association knew in a general way that there are about one thousand women in Brooklyn who journey twice daily from Brooklyn by Hamilton or South Ferry, by bridge or by subway, to do the cleaning work in the buildings of Manhattan. They make their first trip at five in the morning, returning at nine, and the second at four in the afternoon, returning at eight. Their home conditions were known to be distressing. Their average rate of pay had been for a long time \$5.00 per week, while the ferry rate has advanced within the last few years, to such an extent that they are compelled to pay eighteen cents per day instead of four.

Inquiry brought out that a large number of these women are widows with children and without other means of support. One such widow with six young children paid her income of \$5.00 a week to a neighbor. This good neighbor furnished her \$1.08 for ferriage, \$2.00 for rent, clothed one child, cared for the children while the mother was away, and furnished food for the family. Others are not so fortunate in having friends to fall back upon and their quandary was arrived at by the following simple computation. They pay out \$1.08

a week for ferriage. Deduct this from \$5.00 a week. Then subtract \$2.00 more for rent and 50 cents for fuel, and there remains about 20 cents a day for food and clothing, often for an entire family. That such a budget means undernourishment and lack of clothing, the Riverside Association found ample evidence in the physical conditions of these women and their children.

Two years ago an attempt which had been made to secure a special ticket for these workers was met by the Union Ferries Company with a refusal to discuss the matter. The ferry company later increased the fare.

This year at the suggestion of Philip J. Butler the effort was renewed and broadened, and the methods employed to bring the situation home to those who have it in their power to change conditions were so simple and salutary that they may well be told. A committee on conditions among office cleaners was appointed, and an investigation of six tenement blocks carried on under the supervision of F. E. Brooke of Chapel House. One hundred and forty-eight office cleaners were interviewed. These interviews were supplemented by visits to the superintendents of many of the buildings in which these women work, and their statements verified. In addition half a dozen typical buildings were visited to learn the general working conditions. Exact facts in regard to hours and wages were thus gathered for over fifty buildings.

A letter and report containing the important facts were sent to the person in charge of the buildings in which conditions seemed to warrant an advanced standard of pay. In eight buildings the pay ran from \$4.32 to \$4.75. In thirty-three the weekly pay was \$5.00; in two \$5.50; in six \$6.00. In one, wages were from \$5.50 to \$6.50, depending on the sort of service, the hard work of scrubbing being paid less than cleaning and dusting. In another building the pay on the basis of length of service ran from \$6.00 to \$6.50. This building had in addition a group of women who worked for ten hours straight, had but one fare to pay and received \$8.00 per week. In another building all the cleaners received

\$8.00 a week for a steady ten-hour period. One building stood out from the rest with a rate of \$8.00 per week for a two period day of from six to eight hours in all.

A DOUGHTY SHOWING AND A RAISE OF PAY

Now, viewed from the angle of the whole range of philanthropic and civic bodies in the greater city, the Riverside Improvement Association is a very obscure and modest organization. Looked at from the top of one of the tall skyscrapers, or from the powerful interests which control them, Willow Place Chapel House is an insignificant structure and its attendants people of no standing in the financial world across the river. But the Riverside Improvement Association has an impressive ring to it, and its letter-heads made a doughty showing when they found their way to desks high up in the big buildings. So far as some of the recipients knew, they were dealing with a formidable agency of public opinion. Moreover its membership had the impudence of a brave, good cause in their hearts, and their letters had an array of facts which it was hard to get around. In their mere enumeration, they struck answering chords where sheer ignorance had been at the bottom of neglect of the women who manned the corridors out of office hours.

The board of managers in four buildings immediately authorized a raise of pay, two from \$5.00 to \$5.50 and two from \$5.00 to \$6.00. In four others the superintendents expressed their intention of taking the matter up with the owners and were hopeful of success. Others felt that the employers should pay the excess fare and proposed to work to that end. In all, about 200 women have already benefited. Some superintendents asked for information about buildings offering better conditions than theirs. Still others were themselves much interested in the plan but were merely agents for real estate companies and could do nothing. The attitude of these agents was in striking contrast with that of superintendents who are themselves brought into contact with the workers.

From only two agents was there any response, the majority taking the point of view that the unreliable character of the women, their lack of permanence and the inferior quality of their work made them "worth" only the lowest rate of pay.

These points of view illustrated the fact that when it comes to scrubbing as in many another calling you can count on getting the quality of work you pay for. An inquiry among those superintendents who paid the higher rates brought out that they had adopted and found the higher rate profitable because it furnished them a more permanent body of women who found it worth their while to do their work well. The superintendent of the building which stands by itself for high pay for short hours bore witness to the success of his method in the simple words:

Most of our women have worked for us several years. They are good workers and we regard their pay as fair compensation.

A letter from the one real estate agent who in contrast to his fellows responded warmly showed such an intelligent appreciation that it is worth quoting pretty fully:

The hours and the salaries of the scrub-women in our employ are divided into two classes: All day cleaners, 6 A. M. to 4 P. M., salary \$8.00 per week. Double period cleaners, hours 6 A. M. to 8.50 A. M. and 5 to 7.20 P. M., salary from \$6.00 to \$6.50 per week depending upon length of service.

The above salary and time schedule was established about six years ago after an exhaustive inquiry into the salaries paid and the work required in other large office buildings. We decided to pay the maximum salary found by this study.

Periodically this matter has been investigated by us and we are pleased to know that other office buildings are gradually increasing the salaries of this very deserving class of employes. In the past few years, as you probably know, this class of help have been forced to move their residences from lower New York to Brooklyn and other more remote places, necessitating the payment of two car fares daily. In view of this we are now considering the advisability of changing the hours of the women now working on a double period to a straight period. This would require them to report at 5 A. M. but it would reduce their traveling time, cut their car fares in two, and give them their evenings to themselves.

We are much interested in this subject and would appreciate it if you would advise us of the good features brought to light in other office buildings.

OLD WINE IN NEW BOTTLES

The yearly meeting of Friends, held at Race street, Philadelphia, last year provided for the opening of a central bureau as headquarters for educational and philanthropic work already carried on in the territory covered by the membership. This territory embraces southeastern Pennsylvania, northern Delaware, western and southern New Jersey, and scattered members in almost every state of the Union. The bureau was officially opened in November. With some seven months of existence, its value still consists largely in the hopeful opportunity which it offers to systematize, direct, and correlate the expression of social interest and effort upon which the Society of Friends has always placed emphasis.

A committee of 120 members is the directing power of the bureau. It aids in planning and carrying out the work originated by this committee through such subdivisions as those devoted to the advancement of peace, temperance, equal rights, saner application of corrective agencies, the suppression of social vice, the promotion of suitable publications, the best interests of the Indians and colored race, the welfare of women, and the protection of children. Committees on education and legislation strive to inform the membership of the body of Friends concerning the evolution of social movements, to attend to the petitioning for suitable social legislation, and to protest against the passage of hurtful measures.

The work is carried into each neighborhood where Friends have organized meetings by local committees which co-operate with the central body. Philadelphia has a small Neighborhood House which an interested body of young people is developing. Co-operation with other organizations working in the same field is encouraged, though the long-time conservatism of the body prevents this from always being as thoroughly carried out as it is hoped will be the case in the future. All the sub-committees make a

contribution each year to the field of service to which they are appointed, though it is generally recognized that the contribution should be not only larger but constructively better. It was this feeling which overcame the persistent prejudice against employing paid workers and created the central bureau, in charge of a general secretary and equipped in the usual way for office work. The main working contribution to the field of social service will still be made by volunteer workers, and the bureau depends upon more highly organized and experienced social service organizations for co-operation and help.

EDITORIAL GRIST

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTE BILLS IN CONGRESS

ALLEN T. BURNS

Los Angeles, Lawrence, Paterson; Coal Miners, Railroad Engineers, Chicago Newspapers! Are these only newspaper headlines to be regretted, then forgotten? Or are they signs of the times the neglect of which means foolhardiness?

The Congressional Record gives evidence that this list is taken by congressmen as a serious portent. For its length is equalled by that of the group of measures introduced at this session for dealing with industrial disputes. The country is awake to the fact that interests of public, employes, and employers demand a method to establish just, industrial peace. The alternative is human and economic wrong, waste, annoyance, violence,—intolerable for any length of time to self-governing, justice-loving Americans.

Look at the list of these measures: The Wilson resolution on the Lawrence strike, discussion on which and inquiry in committee may be said to have brought the struggle to a close. But the damage had been done, hostilities deepened, lives sacrificed, suffering inflicted, wages and investment lost. This method of settlement was but a case of locking the barn

after the horse is stolen. It illustrates the folly of waiting till a strike has become unbearable and then finding a makeshift means of settlement, good only for the single case.

The Sulzer bill to establish a department of labor is a necessary recognition of the importance of the interests of labor in general.

Furthermore, it is important because it would give the department head power to appoint commissions of conciliation or to act as mediator himself in industrial disputes when he deemed it necessary. But no compulsion to act, or power, method, or limit of action, is prescribed. Commissioner Neill predicts that the first application of the provision would show its futility. Who would accept or could not find reason to reject interference from a powerless, politically partisan source?

The Lee bill would amend the Erdmann act and has been itself amended on lines suggested by Judge Knapp and Commissioner Neill. The bill provides for a commission of mediation and conciliation, composed of a commissioner presidentially appointed exclusively for this purpose, and of two other existing officials to be designated by the President. This commission would have the exact powers¹ of the Erdmann act, but extended to all employees of railroads and the mining of coal entering into interstate commerce.

Mr. Esch of Wisconsin has introduced a bill similar to ones formerly presented by Senator Townsend. His bill is for compulsory investigation of labor disputes through commissions appointed by the president, when in his judgment warranted because of labor disputes affecting interstate commerce. A specific commission would be appointed for each case with as full powers of inquiry and report as has the Interstate Commerce Commission in rate cases.

The last measure for dealing directly with strikes is a concurrent resolution of Mr. Littlepage. This creates a joint special committee of the chairmen and two members from both the house and the senate committees on interstate com-

merce. This joint committee would have practically the same powers as the commissions proposed by Mr. Esch's bill—compulsory investigation.

The Lee, Esch, and Littlepage measures have died in committee, say their authors, labor men, and house leaders, and this high mortality record for such proposals is credited to organized labor's determined opposition. The objections are that such bills are ill considered, based on too little investigation of industrial relations, practically compulsory.

But labor has also accepted the moral and logical obligation of such hostility. It recognizes that these bills represent a strong, irresistible, justifiable public demand for a method to prevent or settle industrial disputes, only the method must be based on adequate knowledge. So labor has joined heartily with employers, economists, publicists, and statesmen in demanding a full inquiry into industrial relations and conditions as proposed in President Taft's message to congress and as provided in the Hughes-Borah bill. Socialists, railroad brotherhoods, the American Federation of Labor, as well as chambers of commerce and similar associations of business men, have all gone on record in favor of this measure, which would conserve larger interests than those of either employed or employer—the interests of all the nation.

GETTING AHEAD OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

Secretary National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity

[THE SURVEY is in receipt of the following communication and turned for an answer to Mr. McLean, himself at one time a resident on the Pacific Coast and a frequent carpet-bagger in those parts in the cause of constructive philanthropy.]

TO THE EDITOR:

I should like to ask information, from anybody who knows, as to what large plans, if any, are hatching among eastern or western social workers to forestall the problems which are bound to develop rapidly on the Pacific Coast along with the opening of the Panama Canal and even previous to it. Capital and population are bound to rush in there, and rapid development is likely to be accompan-

¹See THE SURVEY, May 4, 1912, p. 188.

ied by all the evils which are already being fought so desperately in the East: congestion, segregation of foreign population, and exploitation of the wage-earner. This means, to me, that the watch-word of 1915 for the Pacific Coast must be "Social workers to the front!" We must be alive to this need, and very soon, if we are to keep pace with the less altruistic foresight of commercial enterprise.

THOMAS D. ELIOT.

Perhaps it would be better stated to say that the problem before the Pacific Coast is to forestall a very considerable intensification of social problems as a result of the industrial revolution which is certainly coming with the opening of the Panama Canal. The writer in his travels over the country has not yet found a section which does not possess in one way or another all the more important social problems. There is no better criterion of the presence of such problems than the presence all over the country of neglected and dependent families. These are found everywhere. Those who imagine that the problems come only with an influx of foreign immigration are not acquainted with the simply desperate family problems which are found even in the smallest of cities in the Middle West, in the trans-Mississippi sections, and on the Pacific Coast. Certainly social workers on the Pacific Coast would be the last to deny the fact that there is great need already of a far more consistent development of social agencies.

It is encouraging, however, to realize, as one does realize if he has met these workers upon their own ground, that they are fighting for a better hold upon the conditions which now exist. They are rapidly awakening to the possibilities of forestalling the intensification of evil conditions which may come in a few years.

The first concrete development in this direction is the present campaign to induce the National Conference of Charities and Correction to come to the Pacific Northwest in 1913. The Pacific Northwest is the strategic point of attack because the California cities, or a few of them, have reached a profounder realization of what is before them. The Pacific Northwest, growing rapidly, needs to be awakened out of its sleep.

Not that many things have not been attempted there, but they have not been properly supported to any large degree. I am speaking, of course, in general terms. It can not be denied, for instance, that the playground movement has had a splendid growth all over the coast. But taking the whole field, there has been no consistent development.

The situation is complicated by too great readiness to leave the whole social development in the hands of public authorities. There is need of impressing upon the many who hold this view that without the experimentation of private agencies and their education of public opinion to better and still better standards, public authorities can not go a very great distance. The official through his administrative and legislative machinery and the private citizen working through his private agencies are absolutely two equally necessary essentials for a proper development. The Pacific Coast has too much independence of spirit and virility ever to accept a straight out official policy. Some of its people must go along with that policy and, indeed, keep ahead of it.

It seems to me that the first number on the program of prevention should be a Pacific Coast national conference, and that if ever it was the duty of the National Conference of Charities and Correction to go to a particular part of the country, it is its duty to go to the Pacific Coast in 1913. Detachments of the conference will undoubtedly visit the other larger cities on the coast. In each one the beginnings of a co-ordinated plan may be worked out, to be filled in later with the assistance of those experienced in different fields who will be able to acclimate themselves to such a degree as to realize and appreciate the splendid spirit on the coast, somewhat impatient and suspicious of eastern methods and yet willing to take the best there is in them and possibly improve upon them. That they have a splendid opportunity to forestall evil in their social conditions has already been realized by many of them. Once let them get a grip upon a consistent and comprehensive program and boundless achievement will follow.

BOOKS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

MY STORY

By TOM L. JOHNSON. Edited by Elizabeth J. Hauser. B. W. Huebsch. 328 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.20.

As we turn our faces toward Cleveland, where we shall pay three-cent fares on the street cars for a week, we can hardly fail to think of Tom Johnson, and it would not be a bad idea to put his "story" into our bags to read on the train. Written in the last five months of his life, when he knew the active fight was over, because his friends urged that in this way he might continue to be of use, it has a certain quality of detachment, and it leaves the impression of sincerity and single-mindedness. During the civil war, when newspapers were at a premium, a conductor on a southern train said to a small boy, "How would you like to sell papers, Tom? I could bring 'em in for you on my train and I wouldn't carry any for anybody else, so you could charge whatever you pleased." In the five weeks that this deal lasted the boy made \$88.00, and thus learned the lesson that money comes "most easily through privilege." Though he gave his later years to a fight against privilege, it was through privilege that he made his fortune. How he made the fortune, in street railways and the manufacture of steel; how, at the height of his prosperity, he chanced to read one of Henry George's books and became his foremost disciple; how as a member of congress he worked against that very class legislation which he took advantage of as a business man; how, when he became mayor of Cleveland in 1901, he entered upon his long and bitter fight against privilege,—all this makes a thrilling narrative. Behind the record of events may be read the still more thrilling story of the development of a man's character, by the influence of a master purpose.

FOLK FESTIVALS

By MARY MASTER NEEDHAM. B. W. Huebsch. 244 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

An informal account of how festivals of many different types have actually been organized and successfully produced, many of them by the author herself and her pupils in Kalamazoo. It arouses enthusiasm for the educational and social value of pageants and all sorts of simple festivals, and is so full of practical suggestions that it may serve as a text-book for anyone who becomes inspired by it to undertake one.

A PAGEANT FOR INDEPENDENCE DAY

By KENNETH SAWYER GOODMAN and THOMAS WOOD STEVENS. The Stage Guild. 35 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 38 cents.

This is the pageant which was produced at Jackson Park, Chicago, before an audience of twenty thousand people, on the evening of last

Fourth of July. It is intended to be played in the evening, out of doors, by from one hundred to five hundred persons; and its theme is the events leading to the Declaration of Independence and its significance.

AROUND THE FIRE

By HANFORD M. BURR. Association Press. 238 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 83 cents.

Stories of men of Britain in the early days, intended for boys around the camp-fire, when "the flames die down and the half-burned embers fall into ashes." The illustrations are from old wood-cuts. The First Gang, The First Chief, The Call of the Great Water, How Man Found the Great Spirit, are some of the attractive titles. The last-mentioned story had been told at many camp-fires before it was put into print.

INDOOR GAMES AND SOCIALS FOR BOYS

By G. CORNELIUS BAKER, B. H. Association Press. 200 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 82 cents.

A collection of over two hundred games, besides suggestions for charades, refreshments, and for fifty or sixty varieties of "socials," by a man who has had experience in entertaining boys in connection with the Y. M. C. A., and who believes that "every social gathering should be planned with a definite object in view, and as far as possible there should be an element of education and culture in it."

THE LABOR MOVEMENT IN FRANCE

By LOUIS LEVINE. Ph.D. Columbia University. 212 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.58.

In this study of the leaven of revolutionary syndicalism which has given the French labor movement its distinctive characteristics, Mr. Levine brings together, for the first time in English, material which in view of recent developments toward industrial unionism in the English and American labor movements is becoming of interest all over the world. The fourth estate, which in the French Revolution was used and then repudiated by the middle class democracy, appears in the French *syndicat* attempting so to organize in the industrial field as to be able to hold its own against all other classes without aid in the political field. The historical relations of this class conscious industrial organization, which like socialism aims at the collective ownership of industry, to political socialism in France, and its reaction on the internal history of the socialist party, are clearly told. The philosophy of syndicalism is well outlined and the development of this philosophy and of the tactics of syndicalism, not from the reasoning of *intellectuals* but from the practical deliberations of working men, gives a profound conviction of the power of

the working class to think for themselves. The practical results gained for the workers by the pressure of the syndicalists on the government, which are told in the last chapters, give some idea of the political effectiveness of this philosophy and tactics. Since France has long been the leader in revolutionary ideas it seems quite natural that syndicalism should have gained a hold on more of the laboring population there than in other countries. But it is almost startling to learn that two of the fundamental ideas of the syndicalist philosophy are of British origin. These are the general strike and sabotage—this latter according to Mr. Levine meaning not so much destruction of property as temporary interference with the processes of production, with an attempt to exclude injury to persons—an attempt which is certainly not always successful. It is equally interesting to find that there is no difference in either tactics or philosophy between the French and the English or American industrialist movements, but that the syndicalist economic movement, like the socialist political movement, is international.

THE SPECIAL CLASS FOR BACKWARD CHILDREN

Reported by LIGHTNER WITMER, Ph.D. The Psychological Clinic Press. 275 pp. \$1.50 postpaid.

This is "all about eighteen backward children who were taught in a special class for six weeks during the summer of 1911, at the Psychological Laboratory and Clinic of the University of Pennsylvania," and all of it is none too much. Dr. Witmer believes that Dr. Montessori's personal experience is typical of the way in which we shall work out improved educational methods: "The backward child will show us the educational way for all children." Because the minds of backward and defective children are less complicated and move more slowly than the mind of a normal or gifted child it is possible to learn more about them, and it is their teachers who "will without doubt inspire the most brilliant educational advances of the near future." The special class which is the subject of this book was at once a laboratory for instruction in clinical psychology for the students attending the summer school, a demonstration of a well-conducted public school class, and a part of the clinic's investigation into the causes of backwardness and of its educational experimentation, to say nothing of what it meant to the eighteen individual children. Miss Farrell, inspector of ungraded classes in New York city, had charge of the educational work with the children and conducted conferences with the summer school students, which are reproduced in the book. A description of each child is given by Dr. Holmes, assistant director of the clinic, and many other specialists contributed to the conduct of the class and the contents of the book. It is not too much to say, with Dr. Witmer, that "you cannot be interested in any child, mentally defective, backward, normal, or a genius, without finding in this volume points of view and methods of treatment which may be of service."

ELIMINATION OF STUDENTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK CITY

By JOSEPH KING VAN DENBURG, Ph. D., Teachers College, Columbia University. 206 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

To find out why 10,000 pupils drop out of the New York city high schools in one year, why the graduating class contains not more than one-fifth as many pupils as the entering class four years earlier, was the object of this study. The main part of the material consisted of card schedules filled out by a thousand pupils who entered the high schools in February, 1906. Taking these as representative the author finds that age, younger brothers or sisters, nationality, choice of occupation, and general estimation of the value of a high school course, seem to be factors in explaining elimination; but that on the other hand poverty (as indicated by low rents) and eye strain do not have any appreciable influence. Russians show the greatest "staying power," with Americans second. Boys are eliminated faster than girls. On the basis of the range of rentals, which are low, and the showing that "the great majority even of our most promising pupils do not remain to graduate," Dr. Van Denburg urges "a shorter, more reasonable, more popular course" which "will attract and hold the pupils from start to finish." The statistical material is elaborated in greater detail than its character warrants, and the report thereby loses considerably in effectiveness.

THE STATUS OF THE TEACHER

By ARTHUR C. PERRY, JR. Houghton Mifflin Company. 78 pp. 35 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 41 cents.

Taking into account the entire teaching body of the country, not merely those in the larger cities, the present status of the American teacher is summarized as follows: "He has limited but rather definite legal authority with its attendant responsibility; he has practically no official standing; he is but poorly remunerated financially; and his social and professional standing depend almost wholly upon his personal qualities and little upon the legal recognition of his calling." It is the teachers themselves, Mr. Perry thinks, who chiefly must bring about the advance in their own status, just as it is the physicians and the lawyers who have raised their professions to their present standing. Prof. Suzallo, editor of these Riverside Educational Monographs, points out in an introductory note that the social and legal status of the teacher is an important and rather neglected factor in his power "to influence children toward better social ideals and to lead the public into the appreciation and support of better educational policies."

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

By BENJAMIN MARSHALL DAVIS. The University of Chicago Press. 163 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.12.

In this book we have a survey of the branch of vocational education which has been "most widely and energetically cultivated" in this country. Prof. Davis describes what is being

done in the way of providing instruction in agriculture in the elementary and secondary schools of the United States, and what part is played in the development of this movement by the federal department of agriculture and bureau of education, state departments of education and state legislation, farmers' institutes, educational journals, agricultural societies and clubs, and other agencies. There is a carefully annotated bibliography of 202 titles.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION

By IRVING KING, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company. 425 pp. \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.71.

A useful book for the teaching profession. It is intended to serve as a text for a course in normal schools and consists largely of "sources and original discussions" in the shape of selected chapters from books or magazine articles, several of the latter being taken from this journal. Introductions and connecting sections are supplied by the author, and many a topic, in lieu presumably of a suitable "source," is discussed by him. "Problems for further study" and selected references are a conspicuous part of each chapter. Such a course as the book contemplates would be a valuable addition to the normal school curriculum. It would be perhaps even more useful and more appreciated in summer schools and teachers' institutes. Until such courses are generally available, and for teachers already practicing their profession, the book itself would be an excellent substitute.

THE MONTESSORI METHOD

By MARIA MONTESSORI. Translated by Anne E. George. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 377 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.87.

The many Americans who have become interested in Dr. Montessori's educational system through recent articles in *McClure's Magazine* and discussion in professional circles will welcome this translation of her book by an American disciple. Dr. Montessori worked out her system in trying to teach feeble-minded children. Her methods with them were so successful that her pupils were able to compete successfully with normal children in a public school examination. To her the significance of this "miracle" lay in the possibilities it suggested of improvements in the education of normal children. The opportunity to try the experiment came in 1906 when she was invited by the Roman Association for Good Building to undertake the organization of the infant schools in its model tenements. The plan was to have a "Children's House" in each large tenement, in which all the children under school age would be gathered together, during a long day, under the care of a directress, a physician, and a caretaker. (An important incidental feature is that the Children's House is really self-supporting, as the cost of maintaining it is covered by the saving it effects in the amount necessary for repairs.) In these "Children's Houses" Dr. Montessori began to apply the theories she had

already developed and to add to them by painstaking and loving observation of the children in her care. The foundation of her system is liberty of the pupil and a scheme for sense training. There are no benches or desks or class work. The teacher by individual direction helps each child to educate himself, through playing with the carefully devised "didactic material," physical exercise, eating and serving his regular meals, learning to dress and take care of himself. The results have been that when her children go to the public schools they shoot far ahead of their fellows. Even more important, perhaps, is the serenity and happiness of the children in their school, to which the photographs included in the book are eloquent testimony. Prof. Holmes of Harvard in a critical introduction, examines the system from the point of view of its adaptability to English speaking children and American schools. He notes that much of the material used by Dr. Fernald at Waverley is almost identical with the Montessori apparatus, and that Dr. Fernald has long maintained that it could be used to good effect in the education of normal children.

RAVENEL'S ROAD PRIMER

By SAMUEL W. RAVENEL, C.E. A. C. McClurg and Company. 159 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.

The staunchest advocate of the educational method of coping with social evils and meeting social needs might excusably be taken unprepared by this application of his theory. The idea of the book is that the surest way to provide for good roads is to instruct the school children of to-day in their value, and also in the elementary principles and technique of road building, so that when they grow up they will constitute an informed public, competent not merely to demand good roads but to go out and make them in person. It is difficult to agree that the average child of ten or twelve years would be best employed in school in learning the significance of such terms as "berm ditch," "seepage-water," "spauls," "plus stations," "voids," "irregular cross sections," "a 1-2-5 mixture," or in considering what happens "if the scraper-filler is constantly idle," or what is the best time to use "the split-log drag." The poetry of the road, to be sure, and its economic and social importance, might well be presented to the child at school. We should doubt whether the quotations chosen by Mr. Ravenel from the Bible for this purpose would be convincing: e. g. "Spiritual: Hold up my goings in thy paths, that my footsteps slip not. Commercial: Whither have ye made a road to-day? Educational: With whom took he counsel, and who instructed him, and taught him in the path of judgment, and taught him knowledge, and showed to him the way of understanding?"

THE HOME-MADE KINDERGARTEN

By NORA ARCHIBALD SMITH. Houghton Mifflin Company. 117 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 80 cents.

A delightful little book running over with practical suggestions to busy mothers—and

fathers—for directing the play of their children. The simple suggestions demand very little money, and not much time from supervising adults. They are based on sound educational principles and a long experience with children's needs. While intended primarily for parents whose children cannot go to kindergartens, they would be helpful in many ways to any one responsible for little children in a restricted city home or in an institution.

OLD AGE DEPENDENCY IN THE UNITED STATES

By LEE WELLING SQUIER. The Macmillan Company. 361 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

Every practical insurance man, says Mr. Squier, sooner or later wonders why working people do not purchase annuities, "the simplest, surest, and safest means of providing against want in old age." In trying to answer this question Mr. Squier has been led on to an extensive inquiry into the general problem of old age dependency, of which this book is the outcome. The most valuable part of it is the survey of efforts which have been made in this country to provide for old age: by labor organizations, fraternal benefit societies, industrial establishments, transportation companies, municipalities, teachers' retirement funds, and government pensions. Much of this information was collected by correspondence and is nowhere else available. The writer's conclusion is an argument for a national old age pension scheme. An appendix contains the text of the bill introduced into the House of Representatives by Mr. Wilson of Pennsylvania in 1909 for establishing in the Department of War an "Old Age Home Guard of the United States Army," and also the text of Mr. Berger's bill of last summer "to provide old age pensions."

DEMOCRATIC ENGLAND

By PERCY ALDEN, M. P. The Macmillan Company. 271 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

Americans must be especially grateful to Mr. Alden for this clear and simple account of the pressing social problems to which "the democracy of Great Britain is now addressing itself," and the sweeping legislative enactments of the last few years through which the rising interest in these problems is manifested. Most of the book appeared in *The Chautauquan*, in a series of articles a year or so ago, but the whole has been brought down to the date of publication, and a chapter on state insurance against sickness has been added. Among the other subjects treated are "the child and the state"; the problems of sweating, unemployment, old age, housing, and "the land and the landless"; municipal ownership; and the labor movement. Frequent reference is made to experiments in New Zealand and the other Australasian colonies. Mr. Alden describes all this new social legislation as an effort to secure "a high standard of comfort for the masses of the people."

BOOKS RECEIVED IN MAY

INDOOR GAMES AND SOCIALS FOR BOYS. By G. Cornellius Baker, B. H. Association Press. 200 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 82 cents.

THE UNITED STATES BEET-SUGAR INDUSTRY AND THE TARIFF. By Roy G. Blakey. Columbia University. 286 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.11.

AN ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE DARK AGES: ISIDORE OF SEVILLE. By Ernest Brehaut, Ph.D. Columbia University. 274 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.10.

AROUND THE FIRE. By Hanford M. Burr. Association Press. 238 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 83 cents.

SYNDICALISM AND LABOUR. By Sir Arthur Clay. Second Edition. E. P. Dutton and Company. 230 pp. \$2.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.33.

THE POLITICS OF MICHIGAN: 1865-1878. By Harriette M. Dilla, Ph.D. Columbia University. 258 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.10.

THE BURDEN OF POVERTY. By Charles F. Dole, B. W. Huebsch. 124 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 55 cents.

FATIGUE AND EFFICIENCY: A STUDY IN INDUSTRY. By Josephine Goldmark. Introduction by Fred. S. Lee, Ph.D. Charities Publication Committee for the Russell Sage Foundation. 890 pp. \$3.50 postpaid. Reviewed under Social Forces, in THE SURVEY of May 4.

A PAGEANT FOR INDEPENDENCE DAY. By Kenneth Sawyer Goodman and Thomas Wood Stevens. The Stage Guild. 35 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 38 cents.

THE VICE BONDAGE OF A GREAT CITY. By Robert O. Harland. The Young People's Civic League. 200 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

CHINA'S NEW DAY. By Isaac Taylor Headland, D.D. The Central Committee on the United Study of Missions. 263 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 58 cents.

WISCONSIN: AN EXPERIMENT IN DEMOCRACY. By Frederic C. Howe. Charles Scribner's Sons. 202 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

THE REGULATION OF MUNICIPAL UTILITIES. By Clyde Lyndon King, Ph.D. D. Appleton and Company. 404 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

MORMONISM. By Bruce Kinney, D.D. Fleming H. Revell Company. 189 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 56 cents.

FALSE MODESTY THAT PROTECTS VICE BY IGNORANCE. By Dr. E. B. Lowry. Forbes and Company. 110 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 55 cents.

THE CITADEL. By Samuel Merwin. The Century Company. 409 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.

THE INITIATIVE, REFERENDUM, AND RECALL. Edited by William Bennett Munro. D. Appleton and Company. 365 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

THE SUPER RACE. By Scott Nearing, Ph.D. B. W. Huebsch. 89 pp. 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 55 cents.

FOLK FESTIVALS. By Mary Master Needham. B. W. Huebsch. 244 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

THE WORKING PEOPLE: THEIR HEALTH AND HOW TO PROTECT IT. By M. G. Overlock, M.D. Second Edition. Massachusetts Health Book Publishing Company. 293 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

CHANGING AMERICA. By Edward Alsworth Ross, Ph.D., LL.D. The Century Company. 236 pp. \$1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.31.

THE GOODLY FELLOWSHIP. By Rachael Capen Schaeffer. The Macmillan Company. 325 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.

A HOOSIER VILLAGE. By Newell Leroy Sims. Columbia University. 181 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.58.

PENAL SERVITUDE. By E. Staggs Whitin, Ph.D. National Committee on Prison Labor. 162 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

THE TREND OF THINGS

"No one can say just what central principle the next great newspaper will incorporate," says Hutchins Hapgood, writing in the *New York Globe* on Journalism and the People, "but several details seem clear to me. The next great newspaper would see and explain the meaning of events such as those happening at San Diego, Cal., to-day, events largely ignored by all eastern newspapers. It would follow and explain the meaning of the detention of the labor leaders at Lawrence. It would interpret the social meaning of a picture that somebody might unexpectedly paint; of a novel or a play that somebody might unexpectedly write; of a small group of people gathering themselves about an unpopular and progressive idea.

"Such a newspaper would carry Dana's idea further on the side of form. It would react against routine habits of reporting. It would not make the *Sun's* mistake of thinking that all things should be written in the same style, in the same way. It would recognize, as Rodin recognizes, that form should spring out of the subject, the event, and the feeling. It would recognize the fact that the personality of the reporter and of the editorial writer is a means, of getting at the news rather than an obstacle to it; that in news, the element of interpretation is always present. The best reporter would on such a paper be he who could best understand the meaning of everything that came before his eyes or to his ears, and in his story suggest that meaning.

"The history of journalism shows a progressive including of more and more social news, of more and more of the people. A great newspaper is necessarily democratic. Unless it makes a profound step in that direction it cannot become a great institution. To crystallize it must crystallize about the expression of newly recognized social movements."

* * *

The leaflet *Children's Charities* of Chicago, is now appearing in enlarged form—a magazine of sixty-four pages—under the title of *The Child*. In this form it is hoped by its promoters that this magazine of child welfare will gain a national circulation among the 100,000 and more men and women engaged in work for children as well as among those who sympathize with their work. The first issue, for example, contained illustrated magazine articles by Charles Richmond Henderson, Sherman C. Kingsley, S. W. Dickinson, Woods Hutchinson, Alexander Johnson, and others. The succeeding issues offer as wide a bill of fare. *The Child* will offer regular departments on dependent children, delinquent children, Juvenile Courts, juvenile probation, big brothers and sisters, playgrounds and recreation, infant welfare, child labor, truancy and humane movements. The address of *The Child* is 23 S. Clinton Street, Chicago. Hastings H. Hart is on the editorial staff.



Courtesy of Everyland.

A BROTHER FROM ANOTHER LAND.

While several new publications about the child are announced this year, *Everyland* of West Medford, Mass., a quarterly publication with a social view-point published for children, is now in its third year. As its name implies, it is world-wide in the breadth of its interests and stands for international brotherhood. It has a peace department, is a genuine peace paper, and bespeaks the support of all the friends of peace who have children whom they desire to bring up to peaceableness.

The last issue contains stories—not all fiction—of Dutch, Scotch, Hindu, and Hawaiian young people, and departments—the postmaster from France, Germany, or whatever the country may be—designed to interest children in actual conditions under which children live in other lands.

* * *

The *American Leader*, the new official organ of the American Association of Foreign Language Newspapers, a corporation in which 508 foreign newspapers hold stock, is announced as a "new magazine with a new American purpose,—to unite in English the pick of the foreign language Americans on the common ground of American citizenship. It will aim to "act as a mouth-piece between the American and foreign-born population in America, with the idea of making our foreign population more welcome, better citizens, better friends, and better acquainted with the great efforts of the American people in advancing American institutions." Its subscription list

is said to represent twenty-nine nationalities. Oscar S. Straus, late ambassador to Turkey, ex-secretary of commerce and labor, contributed the leader to the first issue. Other contributors were the secretaries of state, of the navy, of the interior, and of agriculture and ten governors of states—all, of course, newly landed immigrants! But that sort of appeal to officialism is a sound old American habit, and now that the paper has made its bow, we can expect it to bring into the English language and into American publicity striking material from the various racial papers with which its publishers are identified. The editor is Louis N. Hamerling, 702 World Building, New York.

GIVE US A PLACE TO PLAY

John L. Shroy in the Journal of Education

"Git out!" yells the cop, "r' I'll soon put a stop to y'er nerve rackin' din by runnin' you in. You won't play on the street when I'm on this beat, So chase y'urself hence. Git away from that fence!"

An' the cop, he's the law, an' we've got to obey, But he don't tell us what'r where we can play.

"Git out!" yells the man when we kick his ash can. Then he calls us vile toughs, an' villains and roughs,

An' names if I said would knock mother dead.

We run all our might to get out of his sight,

An' bump into people, who kick us away

An' growl, but don't mention a place we can play.

"Git out of the way!" yells a man with a dray,

As he nearly runs down my chum, Billy Brown;

He raises his whip, and then all of us skip,

But we only change streets, for where else can we go

To escape cops and drivers—does any one know?

The Index to Dates (R. R. Bouker Company, New York City), should be useful to the investigator and the writer, though it would be still more so if it contained references to the principle sources of information. The publishers' announcement of the first issue tells of its objects and antecedents.

"The Index to Dates," says the announcement, "is the successor of two independent previous lists: the annual Index to Dates, published since 1895, in the Annual Library Index, and the quarterly Current Events Index, begun by the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, and published since 1910 by the H. W. Wilson Company as a feature of their Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.

"The side use of these two publications, not only for date reference *per se*, but as an index to the daily newspaper press—an immense mass of material otherwise almost inaccessible bibliographically—has suggested the enlargement to separate periodical form of this feature of the two former periodicals.

"The Index to Dates is intended for the trained literary worker, the library of every grade, and those newspaper offices unable to carry the enormous expense of newspaper indexes of their own. It will aim to cover thoroughly all the news of the United States as a whole which is of permanent importance, such of its local news as has more than local appeal, and such news of the world at large as would be of interest to the American

reader—and this so far as possible even in the specialized fields of endeavor. The scope of the index is necessarily elastic, and will be enlarged in immediate response to the financial support it meets."

* * *

The Iowa Journal of History and Politics is not often more up-to-date in its chronicling than the events of a generation or so ago. A recent article, however, gives the history of lynchings in Iowa during the last seventy-five years, bringing them up to three years ago and giving a detailed study of the 161 lynchings involving 216 persons. The cause of mob action ranges from "speaking against Lincoln and the Union" to murder, horse stealing being the most frequent. The punishment ranges from whipping to hanging, and the character of the lynch party from a judicially conducted trial by self-constituted judges, at a time when there was little or no regular machinery of justice in the state, to hysterical outbursts of mad cruelty by respectable citizens, suggestive of the temper of Indian braves.

* * *

In this connection *The Crisis* for May gives the total number of recorded lynchings of Negroes alone since 1885 as 2,521. *The Crisis*, official organ of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (20 Vesey Street, New York) edited by W. E. Burghardt Du Bois and devoted to sustaining the manhood rights of the Negro, is now half way through its second year, and reports a monthly sale of 12,000 copies, three-quarters of its subscribers being Negroes.

* * *

THE POORHOUSE

Sara Teasdale in the Century

Hope went by, and Peace went by,
And would not enter in;
Youth went by and Health went by,
And Love that is their kin.

Those within the house shed tears
On their bitter bread;
Some were old and some were mad,
And some were sick abed.

Gray Death saw the wretched house,
And even he passed by.
"They have never lived," he said,
"They can wait to die."

* * *

A Sun representative claims the intimate confidences of "Chuck Connors," mayor of Chinatown on truly constructive social work. "What c'd they a done with all that money?" he is reported as saying in comment on a recent philanthropic gift. "Well, they c'd a got excursion boats couldn't they? Two on the East river, and two on the North river. And they c'd a give excursions for the kids, couldn't they?

"Well, they c'd a had music on them boats, couldn't they? Course they could. An' they'd a got hold o' the roots when they was young. You take 'em when they're young an' you can pull 'em an' stretch 'em an' make 'em any shape you want. But when they get old you can't. They're too strong. Try to bend 'em when they're old?" Ach, Louis! I tell you they're too strong."

JOTTINGS

THE CLEVELAND MEETINGS

As a convention city in mid-June Cleveland, Ohio, will outdo the political storm centers between which she occupies middle geographical ground. In addition to the National Conference of Charities and Correction, no fewer than thirteen organizations—nearly all national in scope—will tax the patience of hotel waiters and the capacity of public halls. The sessions of several are now in progress.¹

The interests of childhood are represented by the Playground and Recreation Association of America, among others. The program divides emphasis between rural recreation and recreation for cities and towns, with chief stress upon the former. Discussion has been centered not upon the need of enlivening country life with play, but upon what has already been done to this end and what should be the program of the future. To a thorough consideration of various aspects of institutional care the conference on the Education of Dependent, Truant, Backward, and Delinquent Children will add discussion of public menaces to child welfare, of the moral and legal aspects of the abandonment of children and of institutional vocational training. Forty speakers from fifteen states, called by the National Probation Association, will present a national mosaic of the probation movement. The need of a federal probation statute will be urged by William R. Day of the United States District Court for Northern Ohio. Among the other speakers will be Judge Ben B. Lindsey, Bernard Flexner, Julia C. Lathrop, and Dr. William Healy. Under the auspices of the Federated Boy's Clubs, Thomas R. Marshall, governor of Indiana, will make an address. It has been the aim of this body to secure speakers "who have done the things they will undertake to tell others how to do." Other speakers will be George A. Belamy of Hiram House, Cleveland, E. W. Krackowizer and Joseph Lee.

Among the bodies representing the charity organization movement the National Conference of Jewish Charities will hear a report from its national desertion bureau which is expected to throw new light on the handling of desertion cases. The Palestinian committee will submit the first authoritative report on Jewish institutions in the Holy Land, and the report of the investigation now being made in regard to the report of local institutions to national bodies will also be made public. Alice L. Higgins and Mary E. Richmond are announced as speakers before the National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, their topics being respectively medical and social experience in diagnosis and treatment and schemes vs. standards.

¹For dates and secretaries of these organizations see Calendar of Conferences in THE SURVEY of May 25.

Papers to be read before the National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations will deal with local situations in Detroit, Chicago, and Cincinnati. A backward glance will be taken over what has been in some respects a remarkable year in the fight against loan sharks. Intense interest will center about the report of the membership committee on what is known as the Norfolk, Va., plan of organization of a remedial loan association. Public relief problems in the United States and the public care of the insane and mentally defective are two main topics announced by the National Association of Public Relief Officials. W. E. B. DuBois, Mrs. Florence Kelley, Julian W. Mack, Charles F. Thwing, Charles W. Chestnut and Mary W. Ovington are among the speakers who will discuss the Negro's status in the United States before the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. The National Federation of Settlements, which had its inception in Boston last year, will devote attention to the problem of the adolescent girl, the federation of local settlements for united legislation, and to practical methods of neighborhood work. The American Red Cross, still bearing the brunt of an unusually heavy spring's work, will hold one meeting at which short addresses will be made on the Red Cross Christmas seals in the fight against tuberculosis, first aid as conservator of life and efficiency among industrial workers, and the relation of the institutional member of the Red Cross to the social agencies of its community. At the meeting of the commission on the church and social service of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America the whole work of the commission will be taken under review and further plans blocked out.

The alumni association of the New York School of Philanthropy will hold its annual meeting at noon, Friday, June 14, at the Hotel Euclid.

TALES FROM A FAMINE WITNESS

Charles W. Harvey of the Young Men's Christian Association of Tientsin gives a graphic description of what he saw on a recent journey through the famine district of China. His report has been forwarded to the American Red Cross. The Red Cross has sent to the relief committee in China over \$150,000 since January 1. The committee pleads for \$200,000 more to enable it to carry on its great task until the harvest ripens. At present the committee is employing 90,000 men on public works and earnings from these men are saving 500,000 persons from starvation. Meanwhile about 2,000,000 more are suffering, many of whom will doubtless die.

Mr. Harvey says:

"No children were seen at play. No grain, meat, vegetables, or foodstuffs of any kind except the bark of trees, dried grass, wild garlic, and roots were seen. We found no sign of clothing anywhere, except the rags on the backs of the people, no bedding,

. . . few farming implements, nothing that could possibly be turned into money except an occasional piece of furniture and the doors of the houses or rafters in the thatched roofs. In many places we noted the absence of doors in the homes and saw the mud walls of houses stripped of roofs which we soon found had been used for fuel or exchanged for food.

"On the first morning out of Ching Kiangpu we met a man pushing a wheelbarrow containing a low flat basket in which were huddled the starving forms of his wife and child and beside them a few charred pieces of wood which he hoped to exchange in the city for food . . . I shall never forget one little mud hut without door, window or furniture, on the mud floor of which sat a young woman of twenty-two with a child of two years lying on its face moaning. When I asked her why he moaned she replied without comment, 'I cannot get him to eat any more grass. He is starving to death.'

"I visited two of the stations for famine relief carried on by the central China famine relief committee. These were at You Kou and Sun Chia Wei Tsu; the first was conducted from a village of about 1,000 and the latter in a farmhouse of one of the local gentry. We thoroughly investigated the relief work in operation, talked over the plans of the Chinese and the foreigners in charge, and with those being relieved, and I am convinced that the relief is sanely and economically conducted; effective in relieving the suffering of the people; in helping to prevent the repetition of famine conditions; does not pauperize those helped but rather encourages self-help, and that every dollar is honestly administered."

CITY FATHERS TO FOREGATHER

With delegates from New York, Buffalo, and Rochester in attendance the third annual conference of mayors and other municipal officials of New York state will bring together for the first time accredited representatives of all the cities in the Empire State for the discussion of improvements in municipal government. The conference is to be held at Utica June 10 to 12 and among the subjects to be discussed are:

Home rule for cities, Robert S. Binker, secretary of the City Club of New York; aldermanic activities in municipal government, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, secretary of the National Municipal League; the social evil in municipalities, George J. Kneeland, formerly director of investigation Chicago Vice Commission, now serving in a similar capacity with the American Vigilance Association; testing the efficiency of public schools, Paul H. Hanus, director of the New York City School Inquiry; municipal lighting, George E. Van Kernen; readjusting a city for greater efficiency, Arnold W. Brunner; is it practicable to discontinue emptying sewage in streams? George W. Fuller; a model health department, Selskar M. Gunn, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

PERSONALS



THOMAS J. RILEY.

On August 1, Thomas J. Riley, founder and director of the St. Louis School of Social Economy, will become general secretary of the Bureau of Charities of Brooklyn, N. Y., as the successor of William I. Nichols.¹ In taking this position Mr. Riley enters a more or less new field. Ever since he graduated from Baker University in 1900, he has been associated with university faculties: from 1904 to 1906 as professor of mathematics in the State Normal School at Kalamazoo, Mich.; 1906 to 1909 as assistant professor of sociology in the University of Missouri; 1909-12 as professor of sociology in Washington University. Six years ago Mr. Riley founded the St. Louis School of Social Economy, which under his direction has enlarged its curriculum from a single three-hour course through the school year to a two year's course including work in research. With this school the Russell Sage Foundation has co-operated for five years.

Mr. Riley is author of the *Higher Life of Chicago*. He has conducted special investigations of the poor law in Missouri, of county outdoor relief in Missouri, and of the standards of living of workingmen's families in St. Louis.

¹See THE SURVEY, March 23, 1912.

As announced in *THE SURVEY* of March 23, 1912, Edward T. Lies, formerly secretary of the Associated Charities of Minneapolis, recently succeeded Sherman C. Kingsley as general superintendent of the United Charities of Chicago. The statement made in *THE SURVEY* of May 11 that Mr. Lies had succeeded Mr. Wacker as president of the Chicago United Charities was a slip.

part of the problem must be the same in other cities. Who will help us solve it?

ELLEN A. FREEMAN.

Troy, N. Y.

[Since this letter was written one women's furnishing store in Troy has agreed to close Saturday afternoon during the summer and has so advertised in the newspapers.—Ed.]

A CASE OF LÈSE MAJESTÉ

TO THE EDITOR:

Kindly give space to the following statement in reply to W. G. Cowles' criticism of my article, both of which appeared in *THE SURVEY* for May 4. In the first place, Mr. Cowles reproaches me for using certain "chosen" publications. I admit, that I neglected the yellow and sabre-rattling publications of Herr Scherl or the *Kreuz Zeitung*, etc., and have limited my study to the scientific and technical literature which was available to me, my primary intention being to reproduce the opinion of "well-informed and accomplished opponents" of Dr. Friedensburg in Germany. Mr. Cowles charges me, furthermore, with a mischievous attempt to cut Dr. Friedensburg's period of service in half by stating that Dr. Friedensburg had left the bureau in 1897. This is, however, not my fault, but merely a typographical error. Mr. Cowles made his conclusion from reading the first proof of my article which in its final proof reads differently, viz: "Up to the time he left the *invalidity* bureau in 1897," etc. (See *THE SURVEY*, May 4, 1912, p. 237, line 9). Again, the questioning of Dr. Friedensburg's competency in the matters of invalidity insurance is not the work of my own imagination but arose in the mind of Dr. Weymann who is an expert in invalidity insurance and as such is acknowledged by Dr. Friedensburg himself. (See p. 34 of *Practical Results of Workmen's Insurance in Germany*.) Other shortcomings and charges Mr. Cowles raises against me, as well as his own statements, will be taken up with greater detail in an enlarged article which is in preparation. As to his personal remarks, comparisons, and ingenuous classification of the sociological populace into three groups, viz: Group A, "people who know things which are not so," Group B, the apprentices, including my humble self, and Group C, the savants of Dr. Friedensburg's calibre, little, if anything, can be said. Evidently here is a case of *lèse majesté* on my part. The portentous fact of that great savant's production remains that none of the French nor of English liability men who likewise are confronted with the agitation for state insurance, could have been induced to incur extra expenditures for the translation of his pamphlet. Since, however, the American public, through the courtesy of the Workmen's Compensation and Information Bureau, is in possession of this literary treasury, I would suggest that readers of *THE SURVEY* make every effort to secure its particularly precious passages.

R. J. BRODSKY.

New York.

COMMUNICATIONS

A HALF HOLIDAY: AN APPEAL

TO THE EDITOR:

This letter is an appeal for help. Perhaps you will publish it and some kind reader of experience will come to the rescue, or perhaps you will help us some other way. We want our shops to close Saturday afternoons in summer and our merchants refuse about as emphatically as anybody could. They are probably not unlike merchants in other cities. How have other cities brought it about? One man tells us that no other city in the state has our conditions except Utica. I do not know Utica's conditions. Ours are—a very large population of working people, thousands of them being girls in the collar shops; men employed in iron foundries, stove works, brush factories, machine shops. I am told that we have no transient trade, such as Albany's position affords her; that Saturday is market day and brings in not only farmers but their wives and daughters; that Saturday is a half holiday for the factory girls, and that people will spend their money as soon as they get it (which appears to be Saturday). I think that the men in the foundries have a half holiday on Saturday. Someone suggested that the owners be asked to pay on Friday. To that one of the manufacturers replied that many of the men would not return for Saturday morning's work, if paid on Friday.

On one street where nearly all sales are for cash, we had such replies as these: "I depend on what I take in Saturdays to pay my clerks"; "I could better afford to close four other days in the week than Saturday." One encouraging feature was the willingness of most of the merchants to discuss the matter, even at length, and I was impressed by the fact of how they themselves feel the strain of Saturday and Saturday evening and of what a relief from personal weariness it would be if they could do away with it. More than one said: "If you could shut up every other shop in town, I would not be the only one to stay open." But they will not sign an agreement to close if the others close. Large food shops complicate the situation. The poor buy their Sunday supplies Saturday afternoon and evening. Even if we could force these to close, it would be a hardship to those with inadequate means of keeping food in hot weather. And the presence of these food shops brings trade that other merchants are unwilling to lose. Yet this

Classified Advertisements

Advertising rates are: Hotels and Resorts, Apartments, Tours and Travel, Real Estate, fifteen cents per line. "Want" advertisements under the various headings, "Situations Wanted," "Help Wanted," etc., five cents each word or initial, including the address, for each insertion. The first word of each advertisement is set in capital letters without charge. Other words may be set in capitals, if desired, at double rates. Replies will be forwarded by us to the advertiser. Orders and copy for Classified Advertisements must be received with remittance ten days before the Saturday on which it is intended the advertisement shall first appear. Address Advertising Department, The Survey, 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

HOTELS

LADIES ATTENTION Are You Going to Boston?

If so, do you know what the Franklin Square House is? If you do not, you ought to. It is a home-hotel in the heart of Boston for young women. It has a transient department for all women traveling alone, who may need to stop for a few days in the city, or who may be coming to the city for purposes or study. It is **SAFE**, it is **CLEAN**, it is **COOL**, it is **COMFORTABLE**, its rates are **REASONABLE**. If you are coming to Boston for a few days or a few weeks write to Supt., 11 E. Newton St., Boston. Ask for particulars and prices.

SUMMER CAMPS

CAMP GILEAD. A camp for a limited number of boys at Dana, Mass. Conducted by two college graduates under the supervision of Dean Johnson of New York University. Systematic physical and mental training. Canoeing, sailing, fishing, tennis, baseball, etc. Medical attendance. July 1 to August 31. Systematic instruction in physiology, first aid, life saving, etc. References, F. A. Vanderbilt, National City Bank, L. P. Powell, Northampton, Mass. Address Paul C. Cook, Cornell Medical School, New York city.

SCHOOLS

Preparation for executive positions in the **YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION** is offered at the **NATIONAL TRAINING SCHOOL**. Address: 125 East 27th Street, New York city

HELP WANTED

WOMEN for welfare work in quarry, mine, railway, and other labor camps. Nursing, domestic and teaching experience required, and ability to speak Italian, or Polish, desirable. Opportunity for original constructive work. Address C. L., SURVEY.

WANTED—In September, Headworker for Italian neighborhood center in Providence. Great possibilities for constructive work. Reply, stating full particulars, to Mrs. Gerald A. Cooper, 148 Congdon Street, Providence, Rhode Island.

SITUATIONS WANTED

WANTED—Woman with experience to organize and run a summer camp for fifty children near Yonkers. Camp opening July 5, for ten weeks. Salary \$50 a month. Address Mrs. W. G. Carlton, 596 Warburton Ave., Yonkers, N. Y.

COMPETENT, Experienced Physical Director and Instructor in Athletics—Baseball, Football, Basket Ball, and Track Athletics; also expert instructor in boxing and wrestling—desires new charge. Free in September. Apply 1007, SURVEY.

HIGHLY educated literary man, of force and personality, with experience in literary and sociological work, and with widest literary tastes, seeks a position as private secretary or assistant to busy author, or business man, with public interests, or as a writer on special subjects. Apply 1006 SURVEY.

LEAD WORKER at present in charge of large settlement, in important city, desires new charge. Trained Sociologist, efficient lecturer, good organizer. Free in June. Address Box 22, SURVEY.

EXECUTIVE

I have 14 years experience in social and educational work, in Europe and America, juvenile courts, children's institutions, playgrounds, and special investigations.

Am the author of several text books. Have good legal and literary training and special training in publicity work.

Good public speaker and lecturer. I hold an important executive position but now seek a wider field and bigger opportunity. Prefer position in large city, eastern or southern states.

Alpha, c/o THE "SURVEY."

COURIER Mald, attendant, any locality, full charge travelling; practical nurse. Good references. A. T., SURVEY, Chicago office.

YOUNG woman wishes position as kindergarten or girls' club leader; trained: four years' experience in settlement work. Address A. B., SURVEY, Chicago.

YOUNG woman with social training, four years' settlement experience, wishes position as welfare worker. Address N. H., SURVEY, Chicago.

MISS KELSEY of the *Employment Exchange*, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York, will be at Headquarters in Cleveland on Friday, Monday and Tuesday mornings of Conference week.

THREE

THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION IM-PRINT stamps the thoroughness, accuracy, fairness of three recent studies of Women in Industry.



BOOKS

FATIGUE AND EFFICIENCY. By Josephine Goldmark. Summarizes the world's experience on relation of hours of work to fatigue, health, efficiency, the coming generation. Draws upon the scientific study of fatigue for aid in reducing the long working day in industry. Contains the briefs prepared by Miss Goldmark and submitted by Louis D. Brandeis in the famous 10-hour cases for women. Interpretive introduction of 250 pages. Large 8 vo., 890 pages. *Postpaid \$3.50.*

ON

WOMEN

WOMEN AND THE TRADES. By Elizabeth B. Butler. The first general survey of the occupations open to wage-earning women in an American city. One of the Pittsburgh Survey volumes. *Postpaid \$1.72.*

WHO

WORK

SALESWOMEN IN MERCANTILE STORES. By Elizabeth B. Butler. Careful observation and fair analysis of physical conditions, wages, hours, overtime, unemployment, cost of living, of retail clerks in a city of medium size (Baltimore). *Postpaid \$1.08.*

The three, postpaid, for \$5.

CHARITIES PUBLICATION COMMITTEE
PUBLISHERS FOR THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION
105 East 22d Street, New York

THE COMMON WELFARE

SECOND WESTERN COURT ON WOMEN'S 8-HOUR LAW

In 1911 two American states enacted eight-hour laws for women. In April, the Supreme Court of Washington handed down its decision upholding the Washington eight-hour law. Almost within a month—on May 27—the California law has been sustained by the California Supreme Court. Thus the way seems to be open for the other commonwealths to get into line.

The California law provides that no female shall be employed in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment, laundry, hotel, restaurant, telegraph or telephone establishment or office, or by any express or transportation company for more than eight hours in one day or more than forty-eight hours in one week. The provisions of the act do not apply to the harvesting, curing, canning, or drying of any variety of perishable fruits or vegetables. Employers shall provide seats for their female employes and shall permit them to use them when not engaged in active duties.

The law came before the court on the appeal of Frank A. Miller, proprietor of the Glenwood Hotel at Riverside, for a writ of habeas corpus to release him from custody on the charge of having violated the law by requiring a female employe in his hotel to work nine hours in one day. The appeal was made on the ground that the law impairs the freedom of contract; that it is special in nature, and that it embraces two distinct subjects.

The court held that the constitutional guaranty of freedom of contract was subject to restrictions under the police power of the state. The application of the law exclusively to women was justified on the ground of physical differences, and that the public health must be presumed to be enhanced by protecting them. Allegations of the special nature, non-uniform operation and arbitrary discrimination of the act were met,

by showing that work in hotels is different from that in boarding and lodging houses, and that it is of a more exacting nature. The exemption of women employed in the harvesting and canning of fruit was justified because of the temporary character of the work, and because of the perishable nature of the products handled. The invalidity of the act because it embraced two distinct subjects was also denied by the court which held that it had but one general subject, the regulation of female employment.

The decision marks another step forward in the progress of labor legislation in California.

It stimulates interest anew in the decision awaited from the Supreme Court of Illinois on the validity of the Illinois ten-hour law, amended in 1911 to include a wide range of employments. In the Illinois case, as in the California case, a hotel owner was arrested for employing women in excess of the legal number of hours. The case was argued at Springfield last January.

FLOOD RELIEF AT CAMP CRUMP

One of the camps for the Mississippi flood refugees was established at Memphis. When the situation began to be serious hundreds of homeless people flocked into the city and on April 8 the old Memphis race track, now the Tri-state Fair Grounds, where Tennessee, Arkansas, and Mississippi hold their annual fair, was opened as Camp Crump—named for Mayor Crump of Memphis. The work of relief was undertaken with most effective co-operation from various agencies. The Memphis relief committee, with R. O. Johnston as chairman and James P. Kranz, secretary of the Memphis Associated Charities as secretary, raised \$18,000. The United States government supplied daily rations. The state militia placed an emergency hospital tent and equipment at disposal and manned it. The city



SEVEN OF THE OLDEST REFUGEES AT CAMP CRUMP

Their combined ages total about 519 years

hospital reserved beds for the seriously ill and about fifteen cases, nearly all pneumonia, have thus been handled. The board of health provided a sanitary squad with one nurse for the whites and one for the Negroes. And the Memphis mounted police rendered most valuable service, the versatility of which was shown when one policeman proved himself a capable head cook. The refugees

did all the work themselves under the direction of departmental superintendents.

Camp Crump has provided shelter and clothing and food for about 2,000 refugees of whom 400 were white and the rest Negroes. Nearly all of the 2,000 have been at the camp since it opened, and practically all came from within

twenty miles of Memphis—chiefly from the Arkansas side of the river. But one case of contagious disease developed. This was spinal meningitis. By prompt action and persistent spraying of 2,000 throats three times a day for two weeks, the disease was kept from spreading. Not one of the 300 babies under two years of age died, this remarkable record being partly due to the co-operation of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company which furnished milk



COOKING FOR 1700 FLOOD REFUGEES AT CAMP CRUMP

The head cook was a member of the Memphis mounted police and his helpers are all refugees



BOOTHS AT TRI STATE FAIR GROUNDS, EACH BOOTH PROVIDING SHELTER FOR A FAMILY
There is ventilation through the roof

and a baby milk station.

In the Memphis district the government has been supplying rations to 20,891 people including those at Camp Crump, and has been feeding 7,933 heads of stock. It is estimated that the number of people thus fed in the entire Mississippi valley is 200,000.

TRAINING FOR NEW COTTAGE MOTHERS

The cottage mother is of crucial importance in a children's institution; she must be educated, tactful, experienced, and of motherly instincts. Too often a new cottage mother is given a half-hour's instruction by the superintendent, a list of the things expected of her, perhaps a chance to hear the story of her predecessor, who was probably either discharged or overworked, and is then turned loose to work out her own salvation. Geniuses succeed under this arrangement, but many who would make excellent matrons with a little initial coaching fail dismally.

To meet this situation Dr. L. B. Bernstein, superintendent of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Orphan Asylum of New York, has carried on a ten weeks' training course for cottage mothers who are later to receive employment at the new institution in Pleasantville, N. Y. This has a capacity of 510 children. Those who take the course receive full compensation during their training period. Only Jewish women between twenty-five and thirty-five years of age are at present admitted. In a letter to cottage mothers Dr. Bernstein thus describes the duties of the mother,

as he sees them, and the qualities which she ought to possess:

The cottage mother will be held responsible for the physical and moral welfare of thirty-odd children under her charge and for the cottage home spirit which is to prevail in each individual home.

There will be in each cottage some few children (perhaps five or six) who will be fully competent to assist the cottage mother in the conscientious performance of her duties, and who will co-operate with her in every way. I am emphasizing this phase of mutual co-operation particularly since I expect to have a modified form of self-government among the children in each cottage; in which method of government you will receive proper training in due time.

I would expect the cottage mother to be by nature and disposition sociable, motherly, and kindly-disposed towards children, without being sentimental. If possible, she should be a lover of music and art, and of singing in particular, and should encourage the latter as a valuable factor in the development of proper home life and home atmosphere.

For all practical purposes, such as a very thorough knowledge of details in the management of a household, where cooking, serving, and general housework is done by the



EMERGENCY HOSPITAL AT CAMP CRUMP
Furnished and manned by the state militia

children in each cottage, the cottage mothers will receive a careful training during a preliminary period of a few months, at the hands of expert teachers in domestic science and economy.

In order to bring the cottage mothers into harmony with the prevailing self-government features of the institution, it was deemed wise to organize them into a council of cottage mothers with a separate constitution and by-laws, and with its own president, vice-president and secretary. Dr. Bernstein's idea is to throw upon the cottage mothers a considerable amount of initiative and responsibility in the organization of the various activities, he himself acting merely as a guide and leader in this work.

PROSPECTS FOR A DEEP-SEA HOSPITAL

Congressman A. P. Gardner has introduced in Congress a joint resolution providing for a hospital ship for American deep-sea fishermen, along lines suggested by Dr. Thomas W. Salmon, and authorizing the surgeon-general of the United States Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service to maintain such a vessel for the benefit of the 6,000 fishermen who ply their dangerous calling on the stormy North Atlantic. If the resolution is acted upon favorably it will be possible to have an efficient sea-going hospital on the fishing banks by next winter, for the physicians of the Marine-Hospital Service have been making a close study of the requirements, tentative plans for the vessel have been prepared and a mode of operation has already been outlined. The only objection which supporters of the bill think can possibly be raised in congress is the need for economy; but the cost of a vessel, such as the one desired, will not exceed \$30,000 and the annual cost of maintenance will not be more than \$15,000. More than two hundred such vessels could be built for the cost of one of our latest naval engines of destruction, while the annual cost of maintenance of the little schooner designed to save life and relieve suffering on the distant fishing banks is less than the cost of the coal required to drive the battleship Florida from New York to Key West. The cost is a mere pittance.

Nor will the project fail because of doubtful feasibility. More than two years of painstaking investigation have been devoted to the subject by those best qualified to know the actual needs and those most familiar with practical difficulties to be encountered. Masters and owners of fishing vessels, shipbuilders, and government naval experts have co-operated with the surgeons of the Marine-Hospital Service in this study and it is believed by all that a plan has been prepared which will enable the hospital ship to render efficient medical and surgical aid to a large proportion of the deep-sea fishermen from "the Georges" to "the Grand Banks."

Notwithstanding the present state of decline in American shipping, the approaching completion of the Panama Canal has recently brought about an unwonted interest in maritime affairs. What can be done to restore American shipping to the place it once held is being asked so frequently that its mere repetition suggests that American merchant vessels may soon again be seen upon the ocean lanes of commerce. The coastwise trade and the deep-sea fishing industry are about all that is left of our former maritime activities, but the masters and crews of the famous clipper ships of the past could wish no more worthy successors than the Gloucester deep-sea fishermen,—simple, brave and self-contained sailormen. In what esteem they are held by their countrymen will soon be learned from the action of Congress upon this proposal to benefit the workers in a calling which involves much greater loss of life in its ordinary hazards than anthracite coal mining, which is counted one of the most dangerous of all trades.

EDITORIAL GRIST

WITH THE LAW-MAKERS OF MARYLAND

HORACE E. FLACK

Executive, Department of Legislative Reference,
Baltimore, Md.

Reflecting a nation-wide state of public mind, industry was well toward the top in the list of subjects claiming attention from Maryland's law-makers during the

session just closed. A ten-hour law for women, a child labor law (with a compulsory school law), and a workmen's compensation statute were among those passed. Other measures dealt with occupational diseases, courts, "loan sharks," bastardy, and registration of midwives.

The ten-hour law provides that no female shall be employed or permitted to work in any manufacturing, mechanical, mercantile, printing, bakery, or laundering establishment more than ten hours in any one day nor more than sixty hours in any one week; that none shall work more than eight hours in any one day if any part of her work is done before six o'clock in the morning or after ten o'clock in the evening; nor shall any woman work more than six hours continuously without an interval of at least one-half hour. To this last section there is a proviso that she may be employed for not more than six and one-half hours continuously if not permitted to work during the remainder of the day. The law does not apply, however, to canning factories.

The child labor law follows very closely the uniform child labor law recommended by the National Child Labor Committee. It goes into effect December 1, 1912, and is regarded by social workers as a great victory.

The compulsory school law requires children in Baltimore from eight to fourteen years of age to attend some day school regularly during the entire school session. The previous law applied only to children from eight to twelve years of age. The greatest triumph, however, in connection with this law is that it may be applied to seventeen counties of the state, only six counties being omitted. With the school boards of these seventeen counties is left the option of applying the law, but since many of the school officials supported the law, it will no doubt be adopted widely.

The workmen's compensation law is voluntary on the part both of the employer and employe. It legalizes for both the making of an insurance contract against an accident resulting in personal injury or death. By this the employer is relieved from liability which he would

bear but for the contract. The insurance must be effected in some casualty company authorized to do business in Maryland, unless the employer has at least 1,500 employes. In that case he may establish an insurance fund from the sums contributed by himself and his employes. If that be done, however, the employer must agree to make up any deficiency which may arise from the inadequacy of such fund. The insured employes also have the right to elect an advisory committee which is to be kept informed regarding the state of the insurance fund, with the power to examine the books. The insurance commissioner is to have the same power to examine the books of such funds as he now has regarding the books of insurance companies. In fact, the commissioner may become the depository of the securities in which such funds are invested.

The accident insurance provided for in the law covers the risk of personal injury by accident resulting in death, provided death occurs within twelve months, or resulting in disability, whether it be total or partial, permanent or temporary. It is provided, however, that no one shall be entitled to benefit where the injury is the result of the employe's intoxication or there is a deliberate intention to produce such injury. The insurance, in case of death, is for the benefit of the widow, widower, father, mother, son, or daughter, who is dependent wholly or in part upon the earnings of such employe.

The benefits provided in case of death equal the wages of the employe during a period of three years preceding the accident but not less than \$1,000. If not employed for a period of three years, then the benefit shall be 156 times his average weekly earnings during the period of such employment. The above benefits go to those dependent wholly upon his wages. Other arrangements are made for those only partly dependent. As to injuries resulting in total disability, a weekly payment is to be made during such disability equal to at least 50 per cent of his average wages during the previous twelve months. Where the injury results in partial disability, weekly payments shall be made during such period equal to the difference

between the weekly benefit payments during the period of total disability and the average amount which the injured person is able to earn.

The magistrate and constable system in Baltimore has been an object of attack largely because both justices and constables were dependent entirely upon the fee system. It has been urged that there should be a substitution of fixed salaries paid by the city for the fees paid by the litigants themselves to officials. The new People's Court is an answer to this demand. It consists of five justices of the peace, appointed by the governor from among the body of magistrates appointed by him. The presiding justice of the People's Court will receive an annual salary of \$2,500, and the four associate justices will each receive the same. All magistrate cases will either be made returnable before the presiding justice or may be removed by any party to the presiding justice, whose duty it is to apportion all cases for trial before himself and the associate justices, in such manner as will best expedite their trial and promote the ends of justice.

All justices other than those of the People's Court will receive a salary of \$10 per annum, for the performance of all civil judicial duties. Fees are required to be paid to the chief constable and by him covered into the treasury of Baltimore. As a consequence, civil justices' cases will inevitably be tried in the People's Court. The necessity for resorting to these devices arises out of the fact that the constitution of Maryland seems to provide for not less than twenty-four justices of the peace for Baltimore, a considerably greater number than is needed. The payment of adequate salaries to all of these would impose a heavy burden upon the tax-payers. The five justices of the People's Court will, it is believed, be able to try all civil magistrate cases.

The law regulating "loan sharks" requires every person, firm, corporation, or association engaged in making petty loans to secure an annual license, the charge for which is \$10. The license must state fully the name or names of the person or corporations and of every member of the firm or association authorized to do

a petty loan business and to give the location of the office or place of business. It is also provided that no person, firm, corporation, or association shall transact or solicit business under any other name or at any other place of business than that named in the license and only one place of business shall be maintained under the same license.

Provision is made that no petty loan broker shall receive, in addition to legal interest, any sum in the way of bonus, commission, or fee, for loans exceeding \$500. For loans less than \$500 the following charges are permitted in addition to legal interest, these charges to cover the examination of property, registration of papers, affidavits, etc.: on a loan not exceeding \$10, a total charge of not more than \$3; from \$10 to \$30, not more than \$5; from \$30 to \$50, not more than \$6; from \$50 to \$100, not more than \$8; from \$100 to \$500, not more than \$8 plus 5 per cent of the excess above \$100. If the loans are made payable within less than four months, the charges shall be a proportionate part of the above, that is, if the loan is for one month the charge shall be one-fourth of the charges mentioned above.

Under the new bastardy law, the mother of a child may file complaint against the father, who is required to give a bond of \$500 for his appearance at the next term of court. If he is convicted, he is required to give a bond not exceeding \$500 for the support of the child until it reaches the age of twelve years, at not exceeding \$15 per month as the court may direct. Under the old law, he was required to pay only \$30 a year until the child was seven years old and it was not necessary to pay the \$30 until the end of the year.

Provision is also made that a justice of the peace having criminal jurisdiction shall, upon written information given under oath, order the arrest of a woman who is the mother or about to be the mother of an illegitimate child and, if she refuses to disclose the father, shall be required to give a bond not exceeding \$500 that she will save the county or city from any charge for the support of the child.

NEW THINKING ABOUT FLOOD PREVENTION

MORRIS KNOWLES

Pittsburgh Flood Commission

The recent devastating flood of the Mississippi Valley has caused thinking people to wonder whether the present means of attempted protection against this danger has been a solution along right lines. Incidents giving a secondary interest to the question are the recent issuance of the comprehensive report of the Pittsburgh Flood Commission, which is a real contribution to the thorough study of such problems in this country, and the convening a short time ago of the Twelfth International Congress of Navigation at Philadelphia. Here the question of the regulation of navigable streams was discussed in all its ramifications, one of the topics being improvement of rivers by regulation and dredging and if needs be by reservoirs.¹

May we not wonder after all these years of continuing construction and vast expenditures of public funds—national, state, and corporation—whether the present method of confining the Mississippi river within the artificial banks of levees, is really a proper object of such expenditure? It is, of course, done under the guise of improving the navigability of the rivers under the interstate commerce clause of the

constitution. Yet we are reminded that public funds can not be expended upon navigable rivers for any purpose, however good, unless it be for this one improvement. Up to the present time, with one exception, such expenditures have always been upon the rivers themselves and within the navigable stretch, and the endeavor has been to prove that no other form of expenditure is either possible, legal, or prudent from an engineering or public point of view. This one exception of recent event has been the appropriation of public moneys, under the Week's Appalachian bill, for the acquirement and development of national forests in the southern Appalachian and White Mountains. This was for the very evident purpose that proper work upon the upland drainage areas might accomplish, at much less expense, much more good than vast expenditures upon the lower streams themselves.

The whole question has been given new impetus by these recent floods, which have devastated whole counties, stopped great trunk lines of railroads, rendered scores of thousands of people homeless and brought about a financial loss running into hundreds of millions of dollars. The recent investigations by the Pittsburgh Flood Commission, covering a period of four years and an expenditure of about \$124,000, raised entirely from local contributions, has demonstrated for one large portion of the Mississippi Valley, of about 19,000 square miles in area, what may be accomplished in retarding such floods and making the water available for a period of low flow for increasing the navigable stage, improving the character of the river for carrying away the public wastes, affording ample water supply and creating increased flow for development of water powers. That there is likely to be a new regime in the national consideration of such problems is evident by the interest given to the Newlands river regulation bill, which proposes to establish in the national government, under one head, a department which shall have charge of all of the engineering and public works of the country. The engineering forces

¹ It is interesting to note that the conclusions finally adopted by the first section of the International Navigation Congress include the following:

"1. Absence of any exclusive method.—The navigability of rivers having but one current can be improved, as it has been stated many times at the Navigation Congresses, by various methods, such as: Regulation of the bed by permanent works; regulation of the bed by mechanical dredging; increase of depth by an additional water supply furnished by storage reservoirs; canalization of the bed; combined action of two or more of above processes; construction of a lateral canal. The use of one of these methods rather than another depends upon the special circumstances of each particular case.

"2. While stating that the different methods used for improvement of river navigability have given satisfactory results and reached their purpose under special conditions, in which they have been applied, the Congress finds that it would be premature to try to establish at the present time fixed rules determining *a priori*, the method to be preferred in any given case, inasmuch as the classification of rivers from the standpoint of their nature and of their navigation is yet to be accomplished.

"(a) That scientifically organized special studies be undertaken, by sundry nations, on rivers with different regimens, in order to observe the degree of navigability which it is possible to attain by the applications of various methods of improvement and to determine the factors which govern the cost of the corresponding works."—[Ed.]

for building harbors and improving rivers, irrigating arid areas and draining wet lands, and other similar forms of activity are planned to be carried out under harmonious action, instead of having such work done by bureaus, many times working at cross purposes.

A recent telegram from the New Orleans Flood Relief Committee and Progressive Union, sent broadcast to chambers of commerce throughout the country, is indicative of the public feeling along this line:

New Orleans, because of its peculiar defensive strength, is the safest city in the Mississippi, Ohio, or Missouri Valleys, despite the fact that Louisiana must protect herself from the flood waters of some thirty other states. This should be the duty of the national government by a broad and sane system of conservation at the head waters, such as contemplated in the Newlands river regulation bill. Why should Louisiana spend millions of dollars annually to protect herself from the waters which come from nearly two-thirds of the union? Louisiana has spent fifty millions of dollars out of the public treasury, and private individuals and railroads millions more for levee protection, since the Civil War. We earnestly urge the citizens of the United States and particularly the newspapers to give us the only outside aid we ask: that is, discredence of false and alarmist stories and support of the Newlands river regulation bill, which will harness the floods and force them to serve instead of to destroy.

This is really a social question, and social workers have a great interest, not only because of the great amount of deserving relief work having been necessitated by the recent devastations, but because the fundamental solution of this problem is so like many of those affecting our social and civic welfare. The true solution of mendicancy and dependency, does not consist mostly in rendering help to the needy, but in so studying the causes of such contributing evils and wrongs that we may most fundamentally eliminate the necessity for charity. So, after all, in this flood problem, the most important work, the most far-reaching effort, the best solution, is not to temporize and endeavor to prevent when happening—to build Chinese walls around our cities—but to study the causes and effects, and seek how to harness this mighty natural force and cause it to do good instead of harm.

SNATCHING LIFE FROM THE FLOOD

ERNEST P. BICKNELL

In the midst of one of the fiercest storms in the history of western Kentucky the levee protecting the low-lying part of the town of Hickman broke recently with a roar which roused the entire population. More than a hundred cottages occupied the flat land behind the levee. It was eleven o'clock at night and intensely dark except when the frequent lightning showed terrifying glimpses of the rushing water, the driving rain, and the people hurrying in panic through the rising flood toward the hill. They carried their children and such valuables as they had time to seize.

Up on the hill in warmth and safety Rev. J. H. Geiger heard the deep roar and understood. Suddenly he remembered that in a little home in the flat below, a baby had been born only a few hours before. The baby's father was absent from home and the helpless mother lay alone with the little one, almost directly in the path of the current where it swept through the broken levee.

As swiftly as he could run Mr. Geiger dashed down the hill and into the water, which in a moment had reached his waist. He pushed on. In the darkness he met a man fleeing toward the hill with arms loaded with household goods from his flooded house. Hurriedly, Mr. Geiger explained the peril of the mother and baby alone in the path of the water. The man dropped his load without a word and, as it floated away in the blackness, turned and joined the preacher.

They broke into the cottage, lifted upon their shoulders the cot on which lay mother and child and started toward the hill about a quarter of a mile distant. The flood swirled about them, now up to their arm-pits. Stumbling, waiting now and again for the lightning to show the way, at times in water to their shoulders they struggled and fought, and finally exhausted set their load safely on solid ground.

And it was only when the woman told the thrilling story that this tale of modern heroism became known.

CIVICS

THE RENAISSANCE OF PLAY

Never before since the days of Plato and Aristotle have cities given such conscious thought to play as last week, when more than 300 delegates from every part of the United States, from Canada, Hawaii, China, Brazil, England and Ireland, gathered at the recreation congress held in Cleveland, June 5 to 8, under the auspices of the Playground and Recreation Association of America. The first play congress gave special attention to the necessity for playgrounds. Little was heard at Cleveland of this need. Nineteen cities by voting \$4,500,000 for playgrounds in the last year show that this want is recognized. A few years ago discussion hinged on play centers for children. Now it is taken for granted that grown people must play.

In the last year the movement has grown so rapidly that Rowland Haynes, Francis R. North, L. H. Weir, T. W. Woodward, and Julia Schoenfeld have been secured as field secretaries, Mrs. Charles H. Israels as commercial recreation secretary, and J. C. Boyers as assistant secretary. Yet it was announced that the National Association could not keep pace with the demands for expert advice.

Nearly half the time was given to the problems of rural recreation. Pastors in rural communities, country school teachers, members of the grange, county Y. M. C. A. workers, told of the experiments which had been tried. Hamilton county, Tennessee, has arranged for a county secretary who goes from school to school supervising recreation. Dr. C. A. Earle told of the state-wide plan for rural recreation centers proposed for Illinois. This scheme will be considered at the next session of the Illinois legislature. Sufficient information regarding various experiments in rural communities has been received to make it possible for the association to prepare a special handbook on rural recreation.

That the responsibility of the recreation secretary is not merely for those who come to the grounds and buildings but for the whole community was generally agreed upon. Joseph Lee advocated dramatics, story telling, reading aloud, and other recreation for the home, that it may continue to be a play center for the family. Dr. Blaustein stated that the adult immigrant is serious-minded, looks upon play as a frivolity, and upon play

time as a waste. Hence a conscious effort must be made to show immigrant parents the value of games.

Those who heard Dr. Luther H. Gulick describe the Camp Fire Girls realized that in taking the things of every day life and showing their beauty and attractiveness, making them really play for girls, a large and important service had been rendered. A full exposition of this new movement has already been published in *THE SURVEY*.¹

Widespread interest was manifested in the discussion of dramatics for the playground, an activity which is in its infancy in many cities. For young and old, for rich and poor, from simple story playing to such concerted efforts as the Shakesperian Festival recently held in Chicago or the seasonal festivals which have aroused so much interest in the Henry Street Settlement in New York, dramatic play was upheld as a means of exalting ethical standards, broadening experience, and opening the gateway to the realms of fancy. Anna Lilly in her paper on the rural pageant showed how often, with small funds and faint co-operation, a festival with real meaning in the hearts of its participants can be worked out.

Seumas MacManus's suggestion for story-telling contests in America met with favor, and as the delegates told of the story-telling in their own communities from Canada to Brazil, one felt that if the beauty, romance, and vision of story-telling be lost to modern America, it will not be for lack of recognition of its value by the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

Suggestions for adequate regulation of dance halls, motion-picture houses, theaters, and vaudeville houses as to fire protection, ventilation, lighting, chaperonage, restriction of liquor selling, censorship and police protection, were given by Julia Schoenfeld. Miss Schoenfeld said twenty-six cities had passed dance hall ordinances and twelve others are working to the same end.

Just before adjournment speakers told of the help they had received in meeting men and women from other cities. The next meeting will probably be held in the South.

¹See *THE SURVEY*, May 18, 1912, page 320.

CITY PLANNING AS A LIVING FACTOR IN MUNICIPAL DEVELOPMENT

W. TEMPLETON JOHNSON

A number of indications seem to show that city planning is no longer a movement, but a great living factor in the development of cities, and that instead of confining city planning schemes to civic centers with a few radial streets, serious surveys are made by architects or landscape architects working in conjunction with traffic experts, health officers, engineers, and social workers, so that every phase of a city's well being is considered in making recommendations for its betterment.

Two years ago letters relative to the conference on city planning sent to a large number of chambers of commerce produced replies from about 20 per cent. of them; last year the replies had jumped to 40 per cent., and this year but few letters were sent from which answers were not received. The breadth of interest in the subject is indicated by the fact that among the members at the Fourth National Conference on City Planning, held at Boston, Mass., May 27 to 29, were a number of mayors, park commissioners, city engineers, school superintendents, professors, clergymen, representatives of city planning commissions, civic associations, playground associations, the National Municipal League, National Child Labor Committee, National Housing Association, of boards of trade and real estate exchanges, to say nothing of architects and landscape architects.

The conference was opened with a luncheon given to the delegates at the Lenox Hotel by Mayor John F. Fitzgerald, after which automobiles conveyed the party to Cambridge and Harvard University, to Revere Beach, or through South Boston and the beautiful park system to the Middlesex Fells Reservation.

The conference sessions were held in the Boston Public Library, where also were shown numerous city planning drawings including those for the development of Copley Square. The magnificent collections of the Harvard Museum of Social Ethics were at the service of the members, and there was an interesting exhibit of city planning and landscape work by students at Robinson Hall.

On the first evening papers were read on the meaning and progress of city planning by Frederick Law Olmsted of Brookline, Arnold W. Brunner of New York, and Prof. George F. Swain of Harvard. These addresses were intended in part to introduce and explain the phases of city planning to those unfamiliar with the most technical aspects of the subject. The question for discussion the following morning was paying the bills for city improvements. Nelson P. Lewis, chief engineer of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of New York, delivered an admirable address, outlining the methods used in New York in

the assessing of property for the benefits received in the opening or widening of streets. Mr. Lewis expressed the utmost confidence in the method of excess condemnation in street widenings which has been so successfully demonstrated in the opening of the Kingsway and Northumberland avenue in London, and in street widenings in Frankfort and Stuttgart. Mr. Lewis' paper was so clear and scientific that an immediate request was made that a large number of copies be printed at once for circulation. As Frederick C. Howe expressed it in discussing the paper, "We now have a foot rule and guide to help us in problems of the assessment of property for street improvements." Mr. Lewis was followed by James A. Gallivan, street commissioner of Boston, who gave rather a pessimistic impression of various street improvement schemes which have been agitated for years in Boston, prophesying that the projects would not pay for themselves in greater assessed valuations for the property benefited. The discussion of these papers brought out the opinion that, although in some cases the use of excess condemnation may not wholly pay for improvements, cities are really decided gainers in greater efficiency.

At the next session J. Randolph Coolidge of Brookline presented an able address on blighted areas in cities. This problem is one of the most serious which affects American cities, and it can be directly traced to lack of foresight in planning. Such districts are pest holes or blots on otherwise attractive cities, and assessed valuations are greatly affected by their condition. There are various remedies for districts in this predicament, as opening boulevards through such areas, a common practice in Paris, the establishment of playgrounds, schools or other municipal buildings, etc. Papers were also read at this session on the street system of Boston and vicinity by Arthur A. Shurtleff of Boston, and by the city engineers of Brookline, Waverlytown, and Newton.

The general discussion on the third day developed great interest in the problem of limiting the height of buildings and proportioning their height to the width of streets, and eager inquiry as to the norm of proper housing. These questions were dealt with in an address by B. A. Haldemann of Philadelphia, who explained how these matters are regulated in German cities.

The conference ended with a banquet tendered to the members by the Boston City Club, at which addresses were made by Mayor Fitzgerald, Dr. Newell Dwight Hillis of Brooklyn, Frederick C. Howe of New York, and ex-Mayor Reyburn of Philadelphia. The dominant note of these speeches seemed to be a realization of the tremendous force that intelligent planning will be in the future growth of our cities, and that, while forethought in city building will not accomplish the millennium, it will exert a constantly greater influence in bettering the living conditions and promoting the efficiency of all the people.

ROUSING TWO HUDSON RIVER TOWNS

"My people are destroyed from lack of knowledge," said the prophet Hosea two thousand years ago. Believing that this statement is as true today as then and that lack of knowledge as to preventable crimes, tuberculosis, infant mortality, housing evils, waste and corruption are barriers to efficient municipal administration, two Hudson river communities held budget exhibits in the month of May.

For years many people looked upon Jersey City as the ugly home of New York's railway terminals, but a new and popular interest has been aroused by a big exhibition given in the city armory, which for the first time brought home to citizens in a definite and impressive manner the complexity of their civic problems and the work of the agencies organized to cope with them. This exhibition, which was of unusual scope, successfully combined, according to Winston Paul, chairman of the preliminary citizens' committee, a budget exhibit, an exhibition of the work of the city departments prepared by municipal officials, and an industrial exhibit. Mr. Paul continued:

"The know-your-city week began with civic day on May 28. The three following days were devoted to the interests of business men, welfare organizations, and the municipal departments.

"The various charitable and philanthropic organizations of the city were given booths without charge, and many of them took opportunity to show how their work compared with that of other cities, pointing out in what respects it is superior, and what features of their activity need extension.

"The Women's Clubs gave a pure food exhibit, and by reason of certain investigations they made into the conditions of dairies and bakeries, and the photographs of these places which were shown at the exhibit, they so stirred up negligent city officials that the latter took prompt action. The social workers have taken new hope and enthusiasm and public officials have been aroused from lethargy into activity."

Almost at the same time, a little way further up and across the river, at Dobbs Ferry, the New York Bureau of Municipal Research, under the auspices of the Hudson River Equal Franchise Society, was conducting another budget exhibit. "Ten weeks ago," says J. Harold Braddock of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research, "before the exhibit aroused the historic old town from its lethargy, Dobbs Ferry was self-satisfied, as are most Hudson river municipalities." Mr. Braddock went on:

"The exhibit was opened in the village hall May 18, after a period of preparation in which the village president and most of the other local officials went out of their way to help. A village clerk left over from a former administration withheld information as long as he could, and the newspaper owned by the



Bowers in the Jersey Journal.
FOR A BETTER JERSEY CITY.

local political boss printed weekly diatribes. At first the public came cautiously and with suspicion. Attendance, however, grew by geometric progression.

"In preparing the exhibit pains were taken to include only activities clearly within the jurisdiction of the local officials. At the entrance were cartoons showing the need for deeper public knowledge of public affairs, together with graphic charts of the increasing cost of the local government and the sources of revenues. Charts pointing out the relationship between the cost of schools and loss from retardation and elimination, together with statements of the needs of the kindergarten, library, and playground, were a prominent feature. Other charts proved the necessity for medical inspection and dental treatment, adequate supervision of the milk supply, and the elimination of bad housing conditions. Forward steps in other communities were contrasted with backwardness in the village.

"Besides seeing the ways in which his village might be made to approximate more nearly the highest American standards, the visitor saw a dozen examples of administrative extravagance. They raised the question whether these instances did not give presumptive evidence of other forms of misadministration. The culminating feature was a comprehensive program of the needs of the community in school affairs, health matters, and general administration. Thus the entire exhibit was tied together with suggestions of funds not well spent, and these in turn were united with statements of the processes necessary for raising the local government to a loftier plane.

JOTTINGS

ROCHESTER FIGHTS 200-ROOM TENEMENT

A six weeks' fight has been waged in Rochester against a proposed "model" tenement, the chief sponsor for which is Elgin R. L. Gould, president of the City and Suburban Homes Company of New York. Toward the end of March the newspapers of the country announced that a plan to build, at a cost of \$1,000,000, a big four-story, 200-room "model" tenement was to be financed through George Eastman, the wealthy camera manufacturer. At once opposition developed. Rochester has some bad tenement conditions, but it is still predominantly a city of small houses, and those who have studied its needs most carefully, feel that it would be a great misfortune if anything were done which would give the impression that a tenement is better than a small house, or that would give an impetus to tenement building. In their opinion that which is most needed is the strengthening of the present weak tenement house law of the city. If houses are to be built on a partly philanthropic basis, or from philanthropic motives, they should be small houses not barracks.

Yet, scarcely had the issue been joined, when it was proposed that the present law should be weakened in two important respects, the requirement for fire-escapes and the minimum size of rooms. These proposals have been formally made to the Board of Aldermen and there have been several meetings to discuss them as well as the question whether Rochester should welcome the proposed tenement. According to the newspaper accounts the argument which seems to carry the most weight is the very practical argument—we are ready to do something to better what are admittedly very bad conditions. Are you, who object to our proposal, ready to do something better?

Late advices indicate that the tenement plan is in abeyance. Small houses, such as those in Philadelphia, or better, a model village similar to Letchworth, England, have been urged as alternatives. Their advocates find encouragement in the fact that a city like Rochester, which a short time ago accepted without protest a diluted imitation of the New York Tenement House Law—the smaller city should, of course, set much higher, not lower, standards than the metropolis—is beginning to realize that no tenement house can be a model in a community which should consist of homes.

SAN FRANCISCO'S CIVIC CENTER

A few weeks ago the people of San Francisco, by a vote of ten to one, authorized an issue of nearly \$9,000,000 in bonds, to build a new city hall and provide a civic center. The first question which most civic improvement workers ask is whether this civic center is the one designed by the late Daniel H. Burnham in his plans for San Francisco. It is not.

Making use of some of the same land which Mr. Burnham included in his scheme the location is approximately the same, but the whole plan of development is different, and the effects contemplated under the two projects are as unlike as if they had been devised for cities a hundred miles apart. This does not mean that the accepted arrangement will lack impressiveness or grandeur or be unsatisfactory from an artistic point of view. Mr. Burnham's plan was not a grouping of public buildings so much as a connection and balancing of them by the use of short stretches of imposing street.

The new drawings call for a park or plaza about which the public buildings are grouped in a spacious and effective manner. The bond issue provides money for the purchase of land, and for the construction of the City Hall. A previous bond issue furnished funds for a public library, which will be one of the buildings in the group. Popular subscription is now raising money for the opera house, which will be a third building, and the exposition authorities have agreed to erect a million dollar auditorium on the site allotted in the civic center plans. A fifth public building will be the art museum. Altogether the total investment will represent about thirteen million dollars.

MUNICIPAL EXPERTS TO CONVENE

Los Angeles, the home of progressive municipal experiments, will be the Mecca of municipal students, publicists, and officials this year, as the National Municipal League will hold its annual meeting there July 8 to 12.

A unique feature of the meeting will be a long session devoted to the discussion, by municipal experts attending the meetings of the league, of a proposed new charter for the city. For weeks and months a local committee has been busily engaged in drafting a new concise charter.

In the new charter to be submitted all the powers of the city will be vested in a commission of seven men. The only other elected officials will be the auditor and the Board of Education, which is to consist of three.

Chester H. Rowell, the editor of the *Fresno Republican*, is to contribute a paper on the elimination of the boss in California cities, which will be a record of the recent political history of a state which has given proof to its claims to progressiveness. Taxation, franchises, finances and budgets, in fact, all the municipal problems, are to come in for a share of attention. Census bureau and municipal research experts, along with the university authorities, are to discuss the question of efficiency in municipal administration.

The annual address of William W. Folk, president of the league, will be on expert city management. This meeting of the National Municipal League will be the first to be held on the Pacific Coast.

HEALTH

MEDICINE AND A MILLION LAYMEN

For sixty-three years the American Medical Association has been holding annual sessions, many of the various sitting places being as distant from each other as the dimensions of the country. A year ago it met on the Pacific slope; this year—a week ago—it brought 3,500 physicians from more than forty states to the hotel solariums along the boardwalk at Atlantic City,—the fourth time it has met there; and next year the session will go to Minneapolis. Started a dozen years before the Civil War, with the purpose, among other things, of raising the standard of the medical education of the profession in the United States, the association has broadened its aim until within the last two years it has entered upon a deliberate campaign to increase the medical knowledge of the public; in other words, to educate, medically, one hundred million laymen,—a task so stupendous as to be both fascinating and enviable. “The development in chemical science in the last thirty-five years,” to quote an executive officer of the association, “the results of studies into the natural history of disease, the growth of knowledge regarding the spread of disease, and regarding the means of prevention have shown us that many diseases are community problems and that the physician cannot protect the community alone. This means that the public must know what we know. We do not expect to make physicians of all, but all must be given a general knowledge of hygiene, including the reasons for things.” Thus, instead of an organization that existed four days in the year, when sitting in annual conference, the association has become an all-the-year-round activity, doing consecutive constructive work in ways that can only be summarized and hinted at in what follows.

The annual conference program has grown, too, until it had to be split into fourteen sections, meeting simultaneously, to read, hear and discuss over 400 papers this year, ranging from what, to a layman, seems little more than a catalogue of unpronounceable Latin and Greek names to the less technical phases of preventive medicine and public health work. It would be impossible to report them here

even by title, much less to attempt a summary.¹

The growing emphasis which is being placed by leaders, at least, in the medical profession upon the social bearings of disease and health, some indication of which is here suggested, was further exemplified in the presidential address delivered by Dr. Abram Jacobi, Nestor of the profession, at the one general meeting of all sections, which opened the annual session. Dr. Jacobi chose to devote practically all of his paper to the problem of infant mortality. It was such an address as could very naturally have fitted into the program of a national conference on charities and correction, so effective a plea was it for lifting the weights that press down upon those handicapped by poverty; it could have fitted effectively into the program at a national civic gathering, so clear was its call upon physicians, to view their special training for solving disease problems as an extra equipment and responsibility for efficient citizenship; into the program of a national conference on labor problems, because of its declaration that “the least that could be done (toward reducing infant mortality) would be a reduction of hours of woman’s work during pregnancy,” and because of such typical statements as, “She needs less work, less hours, and more sanitary conditions,” and “Which of the poor is not overworked?”; it could have had a logical place at a conference on sex hygiene because of its emphasis upon a clean bill of health to precede matrimony; at a conference on the social causes of infant mortality because of its statistics that 93 per cent of breast-fed babies can be saved, and its groups of cases showing where poor women who could not nurse their babies were enabled to do so when sufficiently fed and cared for; or at a conference on national educational needs because of its plea for 200 schools for midwives in the United States in the next few years, and so on. In other words, it was a plea similar in vein to that of Governor Woodrow Wilson, who, in welcoming the doctors to New Jersey, hoped that

¹A summary of the joint session with the American Association for Labor Legislation to consider industrial disease is included in the report on the second national conference on industrial diseases page 448 of this issue.

the day was fast passing when a man; whatever his calling, could "mind his own business" in following his profession.

That physicians in general are beginning to see some of the many sides of public health problems—including economic and social factors—would seem to be indicated by the favorable reception accorded the reports made to the legislative body of the association by committees on medical ethics, health and public instruction, public health education among women, and medical education.

A revision of the principles of medical ethics was adopted at this session, and among many significant improvements was a more positive and explicit phrasing of the paragraphs relating to fee-splitting. This is stated by an officer of the association as indicating no change of attitude by the profession, but rather an attempt to get specific rules for handling cases that may arise. It has been difficult heretofore to apply general principles effectively.

In the preamble to the report on health and public instruction is this statement: "To bring together the people and the profession, to restore that confidence in the scientifically trained physician today that was in former years given to the family physician and to unite the public and the medical profession in an intelligent and irresistible campaign for better health conditions is one of the most important duties which now confronts this association." Accordingly, the committee on health and public instruction, among other things, organized and developed a press bureau, which sent out every week to a large group of newspapers abstracts of articles on health and other items of public interest; it organized a speakers' bureau, through which thirty-seven public health meetings were held last year, and the service of which next year will be given to the public not only through medical societies, but through women's clubs, local health leagues, teachers' and farmers' institutes, high schools, colleges, and universities; it compiled a handbook for speakers giving essential facts about preventable diseases, quotations from recognized authorities, tables of figures, etc.; and organized a bureau of literature which has distributed pamphlets on nostrums, quackery, and general topics in the medical field.

The committee for health education among women took the initiative among women's clubs and similar organizations in public edu-

cation for the prevention of disease. To quote from this year's report of the committee:

In accordance with the resolution of the council, as far as possible an effort has been made to secure committees on public health education in the state societies with the state chairman under this committee as members and similar committees in the county societies, making the chairman of such committees the county chairman under this committee. A few more states than last year and many more counties are now so organized, and the question will be discussed at more state meetings this spring. At the same time an effort has been made to secure committees on health and hygiene, with physicians as members or advisors, in the women's clubs, Young Women's Christian Associations, Young Men's Christian Associations and similar organizations of men and women. This committee, by assisting in the arrangement of programs and securing speakers, then becomes the medium of communication between the people and those physicians who are willing to give public instruction in matters pertaining to health. For this purpose 10,000 leaflets presenting for consideration fifty-nine topics have been distributed.

Finally, the committee on medical education had just completed its third tour of inspecting medical colleges. Using as a standard of measurement the Outline of the Essentials of an Acceptable Medical College, which was prepared during the second tour of inspection, they were able to report forty-seven medical schools meeting the necessary "essentials." The list is published in the committee's report, together with a list of nine state examining boards that have adopted preliminary college entrance requirements in advance of a four-year high school education, since the committee's second report.

It is needless to point out that the educational influence upon the immediate communities visited of such a congress of medical experts should be counted as no small part of its year's showing.

THE MEDICO-PSYCHOLOGISTS

EVERETT S. ELWOOD
New York

The American Medico-Psychological Association, the oldest medical association of national scope in America, just completed its sixty-eighth annual meeting in Atlantic City. The keynote of the convention was struck by the president in his annual address on applied eugenics; and it is highly significant

that a convention made up of those who have had extensive experience in the care of the insane should come out so emphatically in favor of preventive measures. It would seem that a new era in the history of psychiatry is dawning.

This representative group of experts has been giving years of study to the discovery of the causes and nature of mental disorders. Now the president of the organization comes forth with a call to apply this knowledge for the benefit of society. It is most gratifying to note this social trend,—a beginning, in the field of psychiatry, of the same motives which are inaugurating successful preventive work in other branches of medicine.

The papers presented at this convention might be grouped under three general headings: First, scientific studies into the origin and nature of mental diseases; second, institutional care and treatment of the insane, and the therapeutic value of occupation and diversion; and third, the wider sociological and political aspects of the problem of the care of the insane and the prevention of mental disorders.

Much valuable discussion followed a report of hospital social service work with mental cases in Boston. Several members reported the success of this work at state hospitals and its rapid development wherever it has been introduced. The consensus of opinion was that hospitals for the insane offer a field of greatest usefulness for social service and after-care work.

The president appealed for the application of the principles of eugenics to the problem of lessening the number of mentally diseased and defective in the future. He advanced as the most effective prophylactic measure the prevention of procreation by segregating and sterilizing the mentally unfit. Dr. James V. May of the New York State Hospital Commission brought forcibly to the attention of the meeting, the fact that this country has a great opportunity to apply, immediately, the principles of eugenics by making a more careful selection of the immigrants. The annual increase in population in many states is greater from immigration than it is from birth. The interest aroused by Dr. May's paper and the discussion that followed led to the adoption of special resolutions; and these are the more valuable since they express definite provisions and do not simply indicate

a general attitude. The resolutions, in brief, are as follows:

1. Congress is urged to provide for a more thorough mental examination of immigrants by trained alienists in the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service.
2. The baffling question as to whether or not the causes of dependency in the recent immigrant existed prior to landing is solved by making aliens, who become public charges within three years, deportable, unless it is shown that they are public charges from causes arising after landing.
3. The present method of deporting insane and mentally defective aliens without proper attendants is deplored and considered a reflection upon the humanity of this country.
4. Congress is asked to impose a fine upon ship companies bringing insane persons to this country.

These should have great weight. Their importance is enhanced by the fact that they were unanimously adopted by the men who are best qualified to speak with authority upon the relation of immigration to insanity.

THE YEAR'S TREND IN THE PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS

PHILIP P. JACOBS
New York

While the program of the eighth annual meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, held in Washington, May 30 and 31, included a considerable variety of subjects, the central thought that ran through practically all of the discussions was the need of adequate provision for tuberculosis cases. This was the largest gathering the association has as yet held. In one session of the sociological section, the entire program related to this general theme. Dr. B. H. Waters advocated, among other things, sufficient hospital accommodation for tuberculosis cases; the enactment of legislation for compulsory removal of cases who failed to observe proper sanitary precautions, and an educational campaign to induce consumptives to enter hospitals. F. Elisabeth Crowell spoke of the work of the New York Association of Tuberculosis Clinics and emphasized the necessity for more co-operation between clinics, the districting of cities to prevent duplication of effort, and the development of children's clinics.

"The aims which should be fundamental in any adequate and purposeful educational campaign against tuberculosis," said Dr. H. E. Dearholt, "are that it should arrest attention, excite curiosity, create and hold interest, stimulate desire, and compel action, sacrifice and competent effort." He urged that specific objects be emphasized and agitated for in the

educational campaign, such, for instance, as a visiting nurse, a hospital, or a dispensary.

The session of the advisory council also emphasized the necessity for more adequate provision for the consumptive and urged general responsibility in securing it. Dr. John H. Landis, speaking from the viewpoint of the health officer, urged the duty of the health authorities in learning the extent of tuberculosis, through adequate registration, and in seeing that sufficient care is to be had. Speaking of the physician's responsibility, Dr. James Alexander Miller said: "In all this change, the campaign against tuberculosis has led the way and in the necessary readjustments it must continue to do so. Physicians, in the various phases of their work, whether in private or in hospital practice, in the research laboratories, as public health officers, or as members of voluntary civic organizations, have remarkable opportunities to mould public opinion in matters of health, along sound and scientific lines. In the past we have been very busy each with his own work, which, to be sure, is most exacting and engrossing, but the memorable traditions of our profession guarantee that we will not fail to broaden our horizon and meet these new and brilliant opportunities to serve the commonwealth."

Col. J. L. Ludlow of Winston-Salem, Mass., speaking for the laymen, called also for an awakening to civic responsibility in attacking the tuberculosis problem. "The degree of prevalence of tuberculosis in a community or city," he held, "does not measure the standard of medical practice. But it is a correct and infallible index of the private and public hygienic habits and conditions of the community. It is the disease barometer of wrong living and defective sanitary environment. Only to a small degree may we hope for its solution by the physician or by the most aggressive public health officers, without the active co-operation and support of other municipal officials and the general public as well."

Professor Irving Fisher showed how we lose a half billion dollars annually in this country from tuberculosis because we neglect proper precautions for preventing the spread of the disease. Frederick L. Hoffman spoke on the treatment and care of tuberculous wage-earners in Germany, and contrasted the inadequacy of our American system for attacking this problem. Dr. Theodore B. Sachs of Chicago outlined a plan for the examination of employees in large industrial concerns for the detection, prevention, and treatment of tuberculosis. The papers of Dr. Henry L. Shively, John A. Kingsbury, and Lillian D. Wald presented interesting phase of an attempt to provide adequate care for the consumptive in his home.

Another phase of the tuberculosis problem which received considerable emphasis was that of the permanent value of sanatorium and other forms of treatment. Dr. H. M. King of Loomis Sanatorium gave an analysis of over 400 cases which have been away from that sanatorium for from six to nine years.

In his conclusions he stated that "among the patients included in this inquiry more women than men, in all groups, have survived from six to nine years subsequent to treatment. The percentage of deaths after six to nine years subsequent to discharge in the various groups as classified upon admission shows the natural prognostic advantage in favor of the earlier cases; thus, in the 'incipient' class, 19.23 per cent died; in the 'moderately advanced' class, 45.97 per cent died; and in the 'far advanced' class 82.03 per cent died. In the present inquiry the prognostic advantage is shown to have been in favor of such groups as have enjoyed the better economic conditions after discharge."

The experience of Dr. H. R. M. Landis, medical director of the clinic at the Henry Phipps Institute in Philadelphia, and that of Dr. W. J. Vogeler of the Sprain Ridge Sanatorium in Yonkers with regard to the employment of patients after leaving the sanatoria led them to believe that their patients would be better if sent back to their former occupations in factories and shops. Dr. S. A. Knopf argued against the prejudice which tuberculosis patients hold toward entering sanatoria, showed how in many cases the fact of tuberculosis makes employers needlessly fearful of taking back former workmen, and urged for more education to remove such groundless fears.

Among the several important resolutions adopted was one endorsing the program of the Southwestern Conference on Tuberculosis to check further migration of indigent consumptives into the Southwest and endorsing the program of care of those already there. Other resolutions provided for the appointment of committees to study methods for standardizing hospital work, dispensary records, and the form of the double red cross, as the emblem of the National Association.

CANADA AND THE TUBERCULOSIS PROBLEM

GEORGE D. PORTER
Ottawa, Can.

That the crusade against consumption in Canada is no mere evanescent fad, but something that has gripped the attention of a large number of Canada's best men and women was evidenced by the character of the twelfth annual convention of the Canadian Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis held in Toronto on May 20 and 21. Among those who gave papers were the president, Professor Adami of McGill University; Dr. Hermann M. Biggs, of the New York City Health Department; Dr. Frank Wesbrook of the University of Minnesota, Sir James Grant, and a number of active workers in this field in the Dominion.

The Duke of Connaught, who is honorary president of the association, honoured the convention with a personal letter stating his interest in the thousands of native and immigrant children in Canada who "are doomed

simply for the lack of fresh air and pure milk."

The general policy of the association, as pointed out by the president, has always favored local responsibility and local institutions rather than large and widely scattered ones. In this movement the Province of Ontario has led the way in Canada, and has materially assisted by granting one-fifth of the initial cost of building, up to \$4,000, and an additional maintenance grant of \$3 a week per patient. Two other provinces, Nova Scotia and Alberta, are now following this method.

The report of the executive council showed a considerable advance all along the line throughout Canada during the year. Although there is as yet in Canada but a "five per cent equipment" it is far better than the "one-half per cent equipment" of ten years ago, and this improvement is due in a large measure to the interest created in the subject by popular education. Ten years ago there was but one institution in Canada for the tuberculous with accommodation for less than 100 patients; now there are over twenty institutions with a total accommodation for over 1,000. Ten years ago there were but two societies, now there are over 100 local societies in Canada. Then there were no dispensaries or visiting nurses; now there are over a dozen of the former and visiting nurses in many towns and cities throughout the Dominion. It must not be supposed, however, that hospitals, sanatoria, and dispensaries, however necessary, are sufficient weapons against tuberculosis; for while the proper care of the tuberculous is of the utmost importance, and the segregation of advanced cases imperative, yet consumption cannot properly be controlled until those conditions favoring the spread of the disease are improved.

The tuberculosis problem which must be faced in Canada is much the same as that in the United States. Owing to the longer winters, however, rural housing conditions are somewhat worse, while Canadian cities have not as yet been able to show the "luxury" of slum conditions prevailing in the larger cities of the States. Skyscrapers and congested districts are fast creeping in, however, and effort to avoid the conditions sure to follow in their wake is being made.

IMMIGRATION AND MEDICINE

The influence of immigration upon public health in the United States was the general subject of addresses and discussion at the annual meeting of the American Academy of Medicine held in Atlantic City during the last few days of May. As the session drew to its close it became evident, as one of the speakers suggested, that the subject had been turned inside-out and had in reality been, what conditions in the United States do to the health of our immigrants. This, of course, was only another indication that the medical profession represented in this organization is seeing the social roots of disease and premature death,

—that it is in fact, as its descriptive circular states, "specializing in medical sociology."

Before cataloguing briefly a few of the main points made in the papers, a further quotation from this circular may be of interest in distinguishing the field of the academy from that of the American Medical Association. Following a résumé of the academy's activities for requiring medical students to have a "liberal" education culminating in a bachelor's degree as preliminary to a technical training in medicine, the circular continues:

"Then it became evident that other problems in addition to questions concerning education were of interest and warranted study and discussion by physicians. These subjects received but desultory and superficial attention until the academy undertook their consideration under what has come to be designated by the trite term 'medical sociology, the field in which this organization is said to specialize. These studies may not enable the fellows to write a more efficient prescription, nor to collect more or larger fees for medical services, yet by enabling them better to understand social conditions, their faults and the most effective methods of bettering these, physicians become better diagnosticians and more competent advisers. The academy affords an unusual opportunity to physicians whose public spirit prompts them to investigate and report their findings in any department of sociology."

Among many points made on the related problems of immigration and public health, it was shown that many of the older theories of the means of transmitting infectious diseases have been shattered, and in numerous cases this has reduced the danger of disproportionately increased morbidity because of alien arrivals within our borders. The case of tuberculosis was cited as in point, and incidentally a telling appeal was made to discourage the too prevalent terror of associating with careful tuberculous persons. The discussion of increased insanity bore on this point by indicating that some of it at least was unquestionably due to the complexity of new occupations taken up after arrival, distressing work and living conditions, and the increased consumption of foods and drinks containing poisonous preservatives and stimulating drugs. Better quarantine facilities were favored as well as better provision for medical inspection at the immigration stations; but it was argued that these alone will not solve the problem of excluding dangerous diseases. As a supplement an international plan to stop diseased persons at their embarking points and a better organization of our internal public health service was urged. The latter improvement was shown to be contingent upon the securing of trained men for public health work, and that in turn is dependent upon the development of our inadequate medical and technical school facilities along this line.

Statistical studies were brought forward comparing death rates of native and alien

populations in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia; and, while in some cases they were not altogether convincing, they seemed to indicate higher rates for some diseases among the foreign-born. In answer, it was stated that much of the excess must be charged up to work and living conditions here. "Things happen to immigrants," said one speaker, "in the first two or three years while here that are worse than anything they bring in." "Moreover," said another, "it is with small pride that we may look at the lower death rate of our native-born when we know that some of those alien deaths must be counted as part of the price paid for increased profits."

From many other view-points health problems were seen to be related to industrial conditions. One speaker saw in it all a call "for the medical profession to feel some responsibility in teaching indifferent employers humanity."

Finally, one member of the academy, in a summary of his impressions of the sessions, said in the closing hour: "I have listened attentively to all of the papers and discussions and there seems to me to be at least one big practical move toward solution, and that is the organization of a national department of health." A resolution favoring such a department was adopted.

The complete proceedings will be published in the *Bulletin* of the American Academy of Medicine.

JOINT MEETING ON FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTIC

HENRY H. GODDARD

Stern insistence on more complete segregation of the feeble-minded and epileptic, with sterilization in suitable cases—and yet the consciousness that neither these methods nor any others so far evolved meet the problem of normal individuals in defective families, who are certain to be carriers of degeneracy to the next generation; the value of mental tests in diagnosing cases of epilepsy, with a plea for the wider use of these scales by school teachers and other intelligent persons not expert in psychology; the probability that the great majority of children whose mental defects are pathological can achieve no improvement in mental capacity, though they be specially trained toward that end; and the appearance of increased physical abnormality with lower and lower grades of intelligence: these were the major points of interest to laymen in three days of discussion last week at Vineland, N. J., where a hundred specialists gathered for conference from all parts of the United States. The occasion was a joint meeting of two National Associations, one for the Study of the Feeble-minded and the other for the Study of Epilepsy and the Care and Treatment of Epileptics.

Following a report by Dr. Ralph Spangler of Philadelphia on eight instances in which the crotalin treatment had been resorted to for

epileptics, with remarkable results, came the discussion of compulsory segregation and sterilization. As an alternative, the placing-out of high grade defectives was pretty generally condemned: this, on the ground that it was unsafe, both from the eugenics standpoint, and also because the inefficiency of such persons constitutes a real menace to society. In a later paper by Walter E. Fernald, emphasis was laid on the fact that normal people in defective families may be the carriers of defectives in the next generation, and that none of our present laws or methods at all grapple with this condition. Dr. Fernald thought that great difficulty will be experienced in attacking this phase of the problem of the defective in society. Obviously, he said, we cannot segregate them or sterilize them, or interfere in any other way with their marriage and procreation; and yet, he pointed out, it is biologically certain that some of their children will be mentally defective. In view of these facts Dr. Fernald held that sterilization and segregation are inequitate to a solution of the whole problem of the feeble-minded.

Some difficulty in applying mental tests to epileptics was reported by E. Katzen-Elleben. He showed, however, that they were of value in diagnosing the cases, or in discovering individual peculiarities in epileptics. In discussion, he was commended for having used the Binet tests as a basis and for having concluded that peculiarities, when found, were individual peculiarities of significance, rather than that the Binet tests were false. It was further pointed out that these tests possibly furnish a valuable means of showing the difference between the class of feeble-minded upon whom epilepsy has been grafted and the other group who are primarily epileptic and have become mental degenerates as a result of the ravages of the disease. Another valuable use of the Binet tests was shown by Grace M. Böhne who gave a résumé of some statistical findings in the Rochester public schools. Rochester, Miss Böhne said, is going systematically through its schools, selecting those children who are behind grade, testing them with the Binet scales, and placing them with the ungraded classes.

In his report of the medical research work done in the Vineland laboratory, Dr. Walter S. Cornell showed the results of physical examination of children at the New Jersey Training School, the results of the Wassermann tests, blood pressure examination, urine analysis, flat-foot and cranial measurements. In general, these results showed an increasing abnormality of the patient hand in hand with the drop in the scale of intelligence.

In telling about the mental improvement of cases in the Vineland institution, Dr. Henry H. Goddard, director of research, showed that as the result of two year's observation and testing, 66 per cent of the children had made no change in their mental capacity; of the rest, the great majority had made so slight

a change as to be relatively insignificant; a very few had made considerable improvement. The latter were nearly all special cases, four of them having been treated with pineal gland extract. While pointing out that the credit for this improvement may possibly be due to the treatment used, Dr. Goddard warned his hearers that further study would be required to confirm this theory. The speaker further emphasized that this lack of improvement in intellectual capacity was not to be confused with the improvement of these children in their ability to do a great many things. For example, a child who is arrested in his development at the age of seven and who remains at that mental capacity for some years may during those years learn to do a great many things, provided none of those things calls for more than a seven year old intelligence. In discussion, Dr. Fernald thought that this view, although somewhat discouraging, was probably true. It was pointed out, however, that this conclusion, if it proved trustworthy, was in no way an argument for discontinuing our training of these children; it is rather a strong argument for training them in the things they can do and will result in the saving of much time and energy because we would not attempt to teach them those things that require a higher intelligence than these children possess.

AMERICAN FEDERATION FOR SEX HYGIENE

MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN
Plainfield N. J.

An open meeting of the American Federation for Sex Hygiene was held in Atlantic City June 3. The first part of the program dealt with methods of teaching sex hygiene to children; and the two papers on the subject, one by Dean Balliet of the New York University of Pedagogy on sex instruction as determined by age, and the other by Dr. Edward Jackson of Denver, supplemented each other. They agreed that the delicate problem must be dealt with differently for the different ages. Two main suggestions were: First, that the curiosity of children in sex matters arising naturally at different ages must be satisfied by truthful answers, with this understanding, however, that there is no need of telling them more than that involved in direct answers to specific questions. Even the young child wonders about its own origin, but will be satisfied when told that it grew from its mother. The relation of the sexes need not be alluded to then; it will need to be explained only as the time of the consciousness of sex approaches—that is, in the prepubertal years. Warning against venereal infection can be postponed until the adolescent age. Second, the speakers agreed that this teaching must in every instance be preparatory to each stage of development in the child; in other words, it should be given before the critical stage is reached so as to forestall wrong ideas or evil tendencies. In addition every effort should be made for the proper physical and character training so that the

child may have a sound body, controlled by his will, and have the ability of self-direction and self-denial.

In that way he will meet the new physical and emotional dangers and temptations with knowledge and strength.

In the second part of the session Assistant Health Officer, Dr. Snow of California, gave an interesting talk on the difficulties of regulating the spread of venereal infection. He detailed the three different methods employed by three different cities in California in dealing with vice. In Los Angeles an effort is being made to stamp out prostitution entirely. In San Francisco it is more or less officially segregated and supervised. In Sacramento a system of reporting cases of venereal infection has been introduced, which gives the local health board an opportunity to follow up the sources of these infections, to place the women under treatment, and to placard the premises with warnings against infection to possible frequenters. The Sacramento plan was particularly interesting because it does not treat the women as transgressors, but as patients.

A paper by Dr. Ernest J. Lederle, health commissioner of New York city, described the plan for reporting venereal diseases which went into effect in New York city on May 1.

The final address was made by Dr. Talbot Williams, the new head of the School of Journalism of Columbia University. He showed that when all was said it must be admitted that vice was much more boldly rampant thirty and forty years ago than it is now, and that the modern, scientific, and moral methods of attack are certainly bringing about a regeneration. He showed further that the main weapon in this fight will be that idealism which sanctifies love.

It was generally emphasized that the fight against vice is also in a great measure a social problem. Better wages and living conditions, so that early marriages would be possible to young men, and so that young women would not be tempted to add to their starvation wages by the wages of sin, it was brought out, would go a great way towards eradicating prostitution.

CHURCHMEN FAVOR SEX EDUCATION

At the recent convention of Episcopalians of Massachusetts, held in Boston, the report of the committee on morals dealt straight from the shoulder with regard to the sex education of children. An excerpt from the report which was unanimously adopted follows:

"We call upon parents to feel their sacred responsibility for judicious instruction of children as to sex and the relation of personal purity to health and happiness. Mothers especially should instruct their daughters, for young women are strangely ignorant in these matters. They should tell their daughters the fearful risk they undergo if they marry men who have led immoral lives. Parents should know the companions of their children, especially the young men with whom their daughters are acquainted."

INDUSTRY

SECOND NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON INDUSTRIAL DISEASES

SHELBY M. HARRISON

On many counts one of the most interesting and significant of the dozen gatherings of national organizations, which met in the lee of the annual meeting of the American Medical Association at Atlantic City last week, was the second national conference on industrial diseases of the American Association for Labor Legislation. Only one such conference had been held before in the United States—an indication, incidentally, of how tardy America has been in giving attention to this heavy drag upon industrial efficiency and the well-being of workers, a matter that has long since enlisted scientific study and wide co-operation abroad. An industrial hygiene exhibit, the first one in this country, illustrating industrial processes dangerous to health, ventilation problems, and the effects of the peculiar work hazards, such as lead poisoning, compressed air illness, arsenic poisoning, "phossy jaw," etc., was shown. This was supplemented by stereopticon illustrations, made by the new process in color photography, which made it possible to show realistically and effectively right and wrong methods of handling paints, Paris green, and other chemical products containing dangerous poisons. Moreover it was the first meeting after the passing of the Esch bill, which will prevent the use of poisonous phosphorus in match making; and the success of that campaign was undoubtedly one reason for a clearly hopeful note that was struck throughout all the sessions. That these diseases can and will be wiped out and prevented seemed no longer debatable; the immediate problem was how to get together and do the thing most effectively.

And that leads to another significant thing. The meeting rallied new forces to the program of co-operation, which has been deemed so essential in fighting occupational affections. One of the most important sessions was held jointly with the section on preventive medicine and public health of the American Medical Association—the first time occupational diseases as such have been taken up by that body—and as a part of its official program, the papers and discussions of the ses-

sion will be published in the medical association's proceedings and circulated among its membership of nearly 40,000 physicians throughout the country. Advocates of better labor conditions have long felt the need of the physician's aid, particularly because of his scientific equipment, in the kind of intensive study in this lamentably unexplored field which must precede the proposal of remedial measures. Many physicians have felt their responsibility and have contributed time and energy heavily, but the number of these must be more than quadrupled in every state, if the right kind of progress shall be made. And almost simultaneously with the labor reformer's reaching out for the doctor, doctors who have attacked the problem at all have begun to feel the need of the economist, the public official, the employe, the employer, and the social worker.

The complexity of the problem and the paucity of reliable data upon any phases of it make them feel the force of the statement of Prof. Henry R. Seager, president of the American Association for Labor Legislation, in his address at the conference, that "finally to bring physicians, employes and employers together in a united effort to lessen the ravages of occupational diseases, the zeal and enthusiasm of social workers is required." As if immediately to answer Professor Seager's appeal, the sessions were attended by practicing physicians, state and federal public health officials, medical inspectors, investigators and statisticians, college professors, medical directors in industrial plants, insurance experts, efficiency engineers, social workers, labor leaders, philanthropists and representatives of independent organizations dealing, directly or indirectly, with labor conditions.

Limited space forbids an attempt to summarize the papers and discussions. A few points, however, were made so often from so many angles, as to stand out in important perspective. The lack of accurate knowledge in this country concerning occupational diseases was stated, emphasized, and regarded as a first challenge to action. Action will need to take

several forms. First, the adoption of a standard nomenclature for both occupational diseases and industrial hazards, simple enough so as not to fail of its chief purpose—to interest physicians in humanitarian, scientific and legislative work—and yet elaborate enough to furnish accurate statistics which can be made the basis of legislative or other measures. The difficulties arising from present classification of occupations involving disease hazards were aptly illustrated by Dr. W. Gilman Thompson, as follows:

If a workman be classed merely as a "potter" he may be employed in glazing or polishing and acquire lead poisoning; or, as in the Limoge works in France, he may be a grinder subject to inhalation of silica dust, and may acquire fibroid phthisis and subsequently tuberculosis; or as a moulder, he may be exposed to constant humidity and may suffer from rheumatism or chronic bronchitis. Obviously, to class him solely as a potter supplies information so incomplete as to be almost useless. Other terms are still more ambiguous. For example, a "hatter" may be engaged in the non-hazardous occupation of selling hats, may be a maker of straw hats, associated either with no hazard or with the minor one of using some bleaching substance or inhaling straw dust, or may be a man who is employed in making felt hats. This latter industry is so subdivided that the man may rank as a blocker, blower, pouncer, flanger, curler, shearer, stiffener, singer, trimmer, coner, dyer, dryer, feeder, hardener, mixer, welter, or finisher. In about half of these labors he would be subject to no hazard whatever; but if he be a fur-cutter, "maker," or sizer he is very susceptible to bronchial irritation and liable to add to the tuberculosis mortality.

The adoption of an authoritative guide to disease and occupation classification was advocated as leading to at least three things: the elaboration and standardizing of record and reporting blanks; more efficient inspection of industrial plants; and intensive investigations of specific occupations and diseases.

There was no division of opinion as to the importance of such an investigation. It was pointed out to be fundamental to the education of inspectors, medical directors, physicians, and teachers in medical schools. Diseases, like these resulting from new production processes, have not yet got into the medical journals and text books; there are practically no hospital clinics dealing with them; and most physicians, it was stated, do not recognize even the few occupational diseases that are clearly defined. Many illustrative errors were cited, among them a man who was being treat-

ed for rheumatism who later was found to be suffering from lead poisoning; and a case diagnosed as apoplexy which later proved to be wood alcohol poisoning, finally resulting in blindness and death. Many of the speakers believed that not only the pure scientists but the public at large would insist upon the gathering of sufficient data so that these errors be reduced to the minimum. The speakers thought they could read the future even farther than that; in the unmistakably growing public demand for comfort and safety among workers they saw the demand for an investigation of the facts of these diseases which must be heeded. As a result of the discussion on the scarcity of scientific data a resolution was adopted, to be sent to the house of delegates of the American Medical Association, asking that a joint committee of that association and of the American Association for Labor Legislation be appointed to study industrial diseases; and there were indications that it would receive favorable action.

Finally, it was shown that new ways of co-operation for preventing these industrial maladies would develop with the securing of this information. Pamphlets on prevention, and placards and circulars warning of disease dangers could be prepared; and, in both papers and discussions, the urgency of circulating such literature broadcast was stated and restated. In this, government officials, reform organizations, medical scientists, employers, labor unions, and others could unite their forces; and it was believed that the unions could render especially valuable service to their own members by bringing home to them with graphic and picturesque clearness their own vital interest in religiously observing whatever authoritative health directions are now, or may soon be, available. In this connection it was suggested that effective study and prevention would not be accomplished until the workers are made to have a material interest in them in some such way as that inspired by the compulsory sickness insurance system of Germany. Several thought that remedies are to be found in convincing employers that it is money in their pockets as a purely business proposition to prevent disease among their employes. Others emphasized the importance of legislation in working out these problems; and still others would employ all of these means plus the building up of a public opinion that would not only insist upon compliance

with the spirit as well as the letter of the laws but that would demand a vigorous grappling with work diseases in an effort toward greater social justice.

All of the papers will be printed in full in the proceedings of the American Association for Labor Legislation and in the same issue will also appear the first extensive bibliography on industrial hygiene published in the country.

WORKING GIRLS' INSURANCE SCHEME

MARY BROWN SUMNER

Parallel, on a small scale, with the modern tendency toward federalization, the National League of Women Workers has adopted a national plan of insurance for its 15,000 members scattered throughout the nine eastern states where its one hundred affiliated clubs are situated. The league has been hitherto, as it were, a federation of independent states, with no functions but those of educating by the interchange of experience between working girls' clubs, of spreading the club idea and of organizing new clubs. The new insurance plan is a distinct contribution of the federal body itself to its membership. The advantages of the league's insurance plan as at present worked out are its cheapness and absolute security against loss to the insured even if insurance is dropped. A reliable insurance company of New York has agreed to write special insurance policies for those club members who care to insure. For these policies the league will pay yearly premiums, instead of the usual weekly or monthly premiums, thus cutting down almost half the expense of insurance, the whole saving to go to the individual insured who can pay monthly or weekly but at the yearly rate and who would under any other circumstances be forced to take out the ordinary weekly industrial policy.

Each club will appoint its own insurance secretary who will collect premiums to pay the first year's premium at the end of the year. Not till then can a policy be written.

If during the first year a girl has failed to make payments sufficient to cover one quarter of the period she can either drop out, her money being returned to her by an arrangement peculiar to the league's plan, as in regular insurance plans she would suffer a dead loss, or she can take out a smaller policy than that on which she had been paying. If an insurer falls short in her second year's payments after meeting her first, the league will take a mortgage without interest on the policy and advance the money for payment of the premium. The policy is marketable at the end of the second year for a sum in proportion to the amount paid in. By this method the league insurance plan secures its insurers against the usual death rate among insurance policies which is usually reckoned, in

industrial policies, as seven out of every ten. Girls rejected by the medical examination at the end of the first year or for other reasons giving up their policy before the end of the second year will also have their payments returned to them. Saving for old age and not simply life insurance is the object of the league. The forms of insurance offered under the plan are endowment policies, a fixed payment of \$250 or over after a specified period of years or at death if it occurs before that time, which the league expects to get at the same rates usually paid for larger policies or deferred annuities, supplemented by a small burial policy. The league hopes also to encourage savings and has prepared a list of the best savings banks in different club centers.

Beginning with the pioneer work of Grace Dodge in forming girls' clubs almost thirty years ago in New York city and the agitation of the New York State Charities Aid Association for social and elementary educational opportunities for young girls, especially young wage-earners, the League for Women Workers, which was formally organized in 1897, has become the largest body of working girls' clubs, not labor organizations, in the country. Though its primary object has always been to provide for the social and recreative side of life where social opportunities were wanting, by the co-operation of working girls and broad-minded philanthropic women willing to act as leaders as well as share the financial burden of club support, the league has done its part toward furthering important social movements by educating both the public and its own membership. In New York the work of the clubs affiliated with the league drew attention to the need of night schools in the public school system. The league clubs were also in part responsible for the founding of the Manhattan and other trade schools. Another phase of social work on which the clubs have helped to focus attention in various communities is recreational activities. In Pittsburg for instance as these facilities developed, the clubs have been called upon to contribute organizers' experience toward making the best use of them for the benefit of the young working girl. Other lines of general work that the clubs have co-operated in, in different localities, are the movements for the early closing of shops for working girls, for working girls' homes and vacation houses. But primarily the work of the clubs has been intensive, to develop the possibilities of self-government and self-improvement by classes in subjects elected by the club members, and to promote social intercourse. Social intercourse has of late years been interpreted to include in its scope healthy social contact between the young of both sexes. To promote this the New York Club in 1910 presided over the opening of a free-for-all dance hall where club members and others might have the same advantages offered by the saloon dance hall without its dangers.

BREWERY COMPENSATION PLAN REJECTED

In THE SURVEY of January 20 there was reviewed the compensation plan that had been worked out jointly by a committee of brewers belonging to the United States Brewers' Association and a committee representing the International Brewery Workmen's Union. The plans had been worked out with great care and at that time had just been submitted to members of the association and of the union for ratification. It is now reported that the plan has been rejected by the unions by an overwhelming vote of 22,936 to 12,888.

In a statement issued from the headquarters of the brewers' association to its members, the situation is explained as follows:

"For the past two months the matter has been debated in the columns of the *Brewery Workers' Journal*, and the opponents have based their objections on the theory that such a plan would tend to weaken and disorganize the unions by impairing their fighting character. It was argued that the older members would become weak-kneed in the case of a protracted strike, because of the fear of losing their pensions. Some of the objectors have declared that the scheme was simply a 'sugar-coated pill,' which was prepared by the employers for the purpose of controlling their employees, and the men were warned that 'nothing good can come from capitalists.' A number of the members advocated the establishment of an insurance system by the men themselves, in which employers should have no part. Others insisted that this kind of mutual insurance would only delay state insurance, which will in a short time give the men all the protection which they would have under the proposed plan, and that 'men should not bind themselves to an agreement which will be replaced by a better one through political action.' . . . It is not likely that the action of the employees in rejecting the plan will change the attitude of the employers' committee, which was indicated in a proposal that was acclaimed as eminently fair and liberal by all the thoughtful leaders in the field of compensation for industrial accidents. But it would seem that the next step in that direction must be made by the employees. They will find the employers receptive to any advances that are made in good faith."

THE INDOOR LABOR OF THE HARVEST

The report of the International Harvester Company for the year ending December 31, 1911, contains some interesting information in regard to labor. Information is given in regard to the pension fund, the industrial accident fund, the employees' benefit association, and regarding the work that is being done by the company designed to promote safety and health.

The average number of employees in 1911 was 41,690. The amount of wages paid is not given, but the statement is made that

since 1903, the first year of the company's operation, "average wages paid works' employes in the United States have increased 27 per cent." \$21,172.75 was distributed in the form of pensions among 108 employes. There were ninety employes on the pension roll at the end of the year who had averaged nearly thirty years of service. Their average age was sixty-seven years.

Since May 1, 1910, the company has maintained a fund for compensating injured employes, regardless of legal liability. From the date of the institution of the plan to December 31, 1911, \$168,000 has been paid out from the fund as compensation. Besides the industrial accident fund, there is an employees' benefit association, to which the company contributed in 1911 \$50,000; 29,546 employes were members of this association, which pays sickness, accident, and death benefit to its members; \$265,561.14 was paid out by this association in 1911.

It is announced that gratifying results are accompanying the campaign of accident prevention which has been in operation for several years. The company is now undertaking a crusade against tuberculosis. It has a doctor and a nurse on its payroll, who are endeavoring to discover cases of tuberculosis among the employes. These are cared for at their homes if possible, or given light outdoor work where the disease is not far advanced. For cases requiring further attention, the company has erected a ten-bed building at the Edward Sanitorium, Naperville, Ill.

QUARRIES AND ORE MINES

Almost unnoticed by the press at large, the House of Representatives has been considering at great length and in great detail the Foster bill to amend the organic act of the federal Bureau of Mines. At this writing the bill is still under discussion, but the general opinion in Washington seems to be that it will pass unless the session should be suddenly cut short.

The purpose of the bill is to give enlarged powers to the bureau, to widen its jurisdiction so as to include metal mining and quarrying. In the debates over the measure the principal opposition has been the same as that shown the original bill, namely, the opposition of those who do not like to see the powers of the federal government extended.

Mr. Miller of Minnesota, in speaking for the bill, brought out clearly the necessity for it so far as the metal mining industry is concerned. He stated that he came from a county in which is mined one-half of all the iron ore mined in the United States, and then said:

"After some investigation I find that the number of men each year who fall in the industrial army by fatal accidents in iron mines is a greater total in proportion to the men engaged than those who fall in the same way in the coal mining industry."

Mr. Palmer, of Pennsylvania, testified that he had investigated through the coroner's office in one county of Pennsylvania and discovered that every death on which the coroner had sat was a slate quarry death. He also said that an officer of the International Union of Slate Workers has said that the proportion of casualties and injuries in the slate business is larger than in the coal mines of Pennsylvania. "I have a list," the speaker added, "prepared by the men themselves, in which they name two-thirds of the accidents as easily preventable if proper precautions had been taken."

Mr. Fitzgerald, chairman of the Appropriations Committee, objected to certain features of the bill, notably that which allows the federal government, upon request, to make extensive investigations for the benefit of particular interests. He instanced the fact that the Frick Coal Company of Pittsburgh used to conduct certain investigations which it has now abandoned because the Bureau of Mines does the work instead. "You might as well," said Mr. Fitzgerald, "confer on some bureau the power to investigate methods of great department stores."

JOTTINGS

PROGRESSIVE MAYORS AT CLEVELAND

A new feature of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, meeting now in Cleveland, will be the mayors' luncheon arranged by the Committee on Standards of Living and Labor. Three of the progressive Ohio mayors, a battery which other states would have difficulty in matching—Newton D. Baker of Cleveland, Brand Whitlock of Toledo, and Harry W. Hunt of Cincinnati—are to be guests of honor, together with Mayor George R. Lunn of Schenectady, one of the group of Socialist mayors elected within the last two or three years. The subject for discussion will be the responsibility of the city for local industrial conditions, and the luncheon will be held on June 17.

Large responsibility for the annual meetings of the conference falls on the local committees of the cities in which they are held. The local committee of the Cleveland conference consists of James R. Garfield, chairman; Douglas Perkins, treasurer; James F. Jackson, secretary; chairmen of sub-committees, Rev. Francis T. Moran, E. M. Williams, George B. Kennerdell, Mrs. M. A. Fanning, Belle Sherwin, George S. Addams, Prof. J. E. Cutler, Mrs. R. L. Ireland, and W. B. Fish.

RURAL PROBLEMS IN MASSACHUSETTS

Rural community leaders of Massachusetts will discuss social and educational problems at their third annual conference at the Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst, June 28 to July 3. Teachers, superintendents, cler-

gymen, officers of village improvement societies, grange officers, librarians, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. workers, town officers, boards of health, and others interested in rural development have made this body a real factor for growth. Among the speakers will be Josiah Strong, president American Institute for Social Survey; T. N. Carver, Harvard University; G. W. Tupper, Boston; and Edward M. Parker, bishop of New Hampshire.

This conference has the co-operation of the Federation of Churches of Massachusetts; the State Board of Education; the Free Public Library Commission; the Massachusetts Civic League; the State Board of Health; the County Work of the Y. M. C. A.; the National Board of the Y. W. C. A.; the New England Home Economics Association; the Russell Sage Foundation, and Town Administration. For further information address: Prof. W. D. Hurd, director, the Extension Service, Amherst, Mass.

PHILADELPHIA'S NIGHT COURT

Since the establishment of a night court in Philadelphia through the efforts of Director of Public Safety Porter and Magistrate Thomas W. MacFarland, an effort has been made to deal more intelligently with the women prisoners who come before this court. A small commission, consisting of Director Porter, George Wharton Pepper, Dr. Edward Martin, Roy Smith Wallace, Martha P. Falconer, Georgiana Hopkins and Constance Bidle, has engaged Nellie J. Ryder, formerly an agent of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, to be present at all the hearings of the night court, and to try to be of assistance to the women prisoners. The magistrates and the police are interested in the experiment, and are working in the heartiest co-operation with Miss Ryder as an unofficial probation officer. It is hoped that the movement may lead to the establishment of a probation service for the night court, and to some more rational, helpful treatment for the women of the streets who come before it.

OPPORTUNITY !

What is it ? A home site in the Westchester Hill Country, with same air, same view, same altitude, same restrictions, same refinements as are features of the Briarcliff Region.

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THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC



POLITICS AND PHILANTHROPY

EIGHT REASONS why health reports, housing pamphlets, settlement year books, monographs, theses, tracts, and addresses on all manner of social, charitable, and civic conditions will be put to it to gain the beleaguered public ear during the next four months.



Donahey in Cleveland Plain Dealer.

UNCLE SAM:—"Hurry up, all you fellows that want to get in on this campaign."

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105 EAST 22D ST., NEW YORK

31 WEST LAKE STREET, CHICAGO

THE PITH OF IT

THE commission idea stamped the Rhode Island legislature this session. Five permanent boards and twelve temporary commissions were created. A workmen's compensation act and a large grist of other social legislation made the session a notable one. P. 460.

SOME of Governor Dix's conservation policies, in practice, seem to keep up the party fences better than they does anything else. P. 462.

CHICAGO'S juvenile court may have a woman as assistant judge. P. 455.

NEW YORK will have a permanent civic museum at Lexington avenue and 23d street if plans launched by the City College go through. With the new Russell Sage Foundation building going up diagonally opposite, the United Charities Building a block away, the United Hebrew Charities nearby and the Metropolitan tower with its lofty offices of various national movements, the "105 East 22d street" region will become more of a ganglion of social agencies than ever before. P. 453.

AFTER all, how much civic grit is there in the Men and Religion Forward Movement which the Protestant churches have been exercising themselves over the past year? Pittsburgh has some evidence to offer. P. 463.

ST. LOUIS has been trying its hand at a child welfare exhibit. "Poverty, child labor, unskilled labor, and low wages," form a circle which rounds back upon itself and must be broken up. So said the placards. P. 457.

MASSACHUSETTS' new minimum wage bill, duly enacted into law, recalls the years when the Bay State was experimenter and pioneer in all manner of labor legislation. P. 454.

BUT, hey dey, it's the Canadian Northwest that ere long may be leading the other provinces, to say nothing of the states. Manitoba's new family desertion law calls to mind William H. Baldwin's intensive work in this field of social control. P. 456.

SPEAKING of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, its president-elect is Frank Tucker, of New York City. P. 453.

JEAN GORDON and her new mission among the working women of the South for the National Consumers' League. P. 465.

THE Saturday half-holiday in summer. P. 460.

THE SURVEY

EDWARD T. DEVINE,
EDITOR

GRAHAM TAYLOR, JANE ADDAMS,
ASSOCIATES

A JOURNAL

OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY

PUBLISHED BY

THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

ROBERT W. DEFOREST, PRESIDENT

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HOTELS

LADIES ATTENTION Are You Going to Boston?

If so, do you know what the Franklin Square House is? If you do not, you ought to. It is a home-hotel in the heart of Boston for young women. It has a transient department for all women traveling alone, who may need to stop for a few days in the city, or who may be coming to the city for purposes of study. It is **SAFE**, it is **CLEAN**, it is **COOL**, it is **COMFORTABLE**, its rates are **REASONABLE**. If you are coming to Boston for a few days or a few weeks write to Supt., 11 E. Newton St., Boston. Ask for particulars and prices.

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THE SURVEY, 105 East 22d St., New York



THE COMMON WELFARE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

After a year in which new lines were drawn in the struggle of the nation with the immigration problem, new forces gained headway among industrial workers, and new standards were set for our courts and prisons, the National Conference of Charities and Correction met last week and this in the city of Cleveland. A report of its deliberations together with those of the other affiliated bodies which assembled in the same city, will appear in a later issue of *THE SURVEY*. Seattle was chosen as the place for the next meeting, and the Committee on Organization named the following officers and committees for the conference of 1913:

President, Frank Tucker, New York; first vice-president, F. A. Nibecker, Glen Mills, Pa.; second vice-president, James R. Garfield, Cleveland; third vice-president, O. K. Cushing, San Francisco; general secretary, Alexander Johnson, Angola, Ind.

Committees, Children: chairman, W. J. Doherty, New York, vice-chairman, Henry W. Thurston, New York; Church and Social Work: chairman, John M. Glenn, New York, vice-chairman, Frederic Almy, Buffalo; Distribution and Assimilation of Immigrants: chairman, Julius Rosenwald, Chicago, vice-chairman, Lillian D. Wald, New York; Families and Neighborhoods: chairman, Alice L. Higgins, Boston, vice-chairman, John A. Kingsbury, New York; Health and Productive Power: chairman, Dr. Livingston Farrand, Chicago, vice-chairman, Lee F. Hanmer, New York; Probation, Prisons, and Parole: chairman, James F. Leonard, Mansfield, O., vice-chairman, George B. Robinson, New York; Public Supervision and Administration: chairman, W. T. Cross, Columbia, Mo., vice-chairman, Alexander M. Wilson, Philadelphia; Relation of Commercial Organizations to Social Welfare: chairman, Harry A. Wheeler, Chicago, vice-chairman, Munson Havens, Cleveland; Standards of Living and Labor: chairman, John A. Ryan, St. Paul, vice-chairman, A. J. McKelway, Atlanta.

MUNICIPAL MUSEUM FOR NEW YORK

Lying practically fallow since 1907 is the old building of the College of the City of New York, located in the business section of the metropolis at the corner of Lexington avenue and Twenty-third street. Dedicated by its donor to the city for educational purposes the property, now used by students in the preparatory department of the college, is to be put to a new service.

Several months ago \$60,000 was apportioned by the city authorities for remodelling the old buildings on the understanding that the trustees of the college should set aside space for a permanent budget exhibit. Those interested intended to make the exhibit more accurate, better proportioned and correlated, and of more scientific value for students than the hastily gathered collection for temporary purposes that has been displayed by the city the last two years. Drawing inspiration from this practical laboratory of municipal administration work, of which effective use could be made, the college planned to modify, develop, and systematize its present courses in municipal chemistry, school management and administration, municipal sanitation, political science, politics and sociology until New York should have a school fitted to prepare citizens educated in its schools for capable service to the city in the various departments. The courses now offered by the college are but a nucleus to be supplemented by others in branches not touched by them.

From this point the scheme began to broaden in scope. The suggestion was made that the best of the material presented in child welfare exhibits, congestion exhibits, and social surveys, could be edited, digested and applied to New York so as to form a laboratory not only of municipal activities but of all effort, public and private, directed toward the benefit of the individual citizen. To sup-

plement this the plans call for a municipal and social service reference library in the same building, though its size may be somewhat limited if the city decides to have an up-to-date library at city hall. In the immediate neighborhood is the United Charities Building and the School of Philanthropy, while the new building for the Russell Sage Foundation will be nearby. Half the social service bodies of the city will be close at hand and their workers will be invited to come for special reference work.

Some at least of these larger dreams growing from the original idea are now measurably within reach, for the Chamber of Commerce has decided to father a proposal to raise \$500,000 to build a seven-story building, provided the city will offer a series of carefully devised courses to fit young men for the higher and more specialized positions in the commercial world. The \$60,000 already appropriated for remodelling the old building, it is hoped, will be made available for the equipment of the new by a transfer. The business men who have advanced this idea have practical suggestions which they wish to have incorporated in some form in the management and curriculum of the school. A plan to give them representation is being arranged that will not conflict with the charter obligation that rests upon the trustees of the college. An available site, a board gauge plan developed by President Finley of the College of the City of New York and his associates, combined with unfulfilled needs of the city and its business enterprises, all enter in as creative factors in this new institution to advance the welfare of New York.

MINIMUM WAGE LAW FOR MASSACHUSETTS

Massachusetts has passed an act establishing a Minimum Wage Commission with power to organize wage boards in any industry in which it shall appear that the wages received by women are insufficient to supply the necessary cost of living and to support them in health. The law is based on the report of the commission appointed a year ago to investigate the subject, but in several par-

ticulars the bill which has been enacted differs from that which the commission recommended. The chief item of difference is that the commission, following the precedent of other countries, favored making compulsory such "determinations" of wage boards as were adopted by the central authority. The bill which has been enacted empowers the commission to simply recommend a wage scale and to publish in at least four newspapers in each county of the commonwealth, in a type not smaller than that used for the printing of news matter, the names of employers who fail to comply with their recommendation. Further, an employer who files a declaration under oath in the Supreme, Judicial, or Superior Court to the effect that compliance with the schedule of the commission will endanger the prosperity of his business, may procure exemption from compliance with the wage scale which the commission has promulgated.

In view of the fact that the value of wage boards is expected to lie chiefly in the element of publicity, rather than in their power to effect a radical rise of wages, these amendments of the original bill were not opposed by the investigation commission. The act will not go into effect until July 1, 1912,—nor was this opposed by the friends of the measure, as it is anticipated that in the interval employers who are sensitive to public opinion will presumably take steps to establish a better standard in the trade than prevails today.

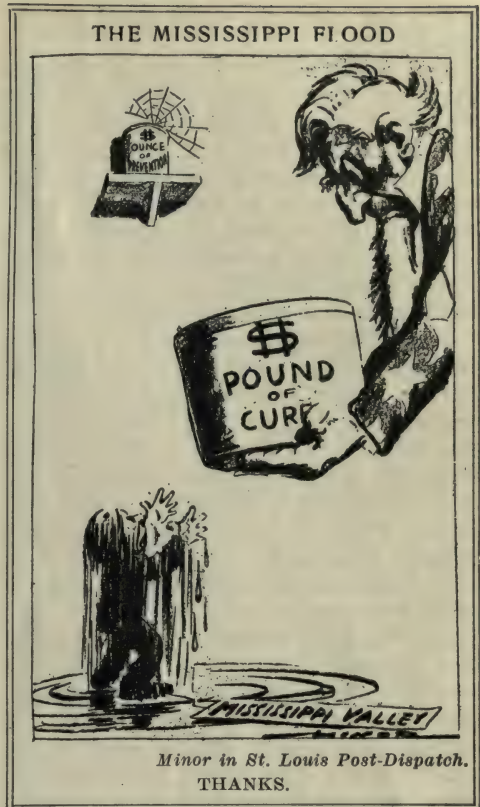
For some months prior to the enactment of this bill an active publicity campaign has been carried on throughout the state, both on the platform and by the press. The plan was sufficient of a novelty in this country to attract much attention. The discussion aroused served apparently to demonstrate the need of some action and to allay apprehension of employers. When the bill came up in the legislature it met with a surprising lack of opposition. In the House not a voice was raised nor a vote passed against it, while in the Senate just one senator spoke against the bill and his was the only negative vote passed. In the words of a member of the investigating com-

mission, "Massachusetts in this respect has repeated the experience of other countries where wage boards have been recognized as so far from radical measures that they have not encountered opposition from the employing class."

THE CANADIAN INQUIRY INTO OLD-AGE PENSIONS

Some time since a resolution was moved in the Dominion Parliament by Mr. Burnham, the member for Peterboro, for the appointment of a committee of the House to take into consideration the problem of old-age pensions, their advisability from a Canadian point of view, and the possibility of elaborating a scheme that would meet with the approval of the country. When the matter came before the House various shades of opinion found expression, some being in favor of the scheme and others strongly against it. The minister of finance, on behalf of the government, while expressing doubts as to whether or not the time had arrived for Canada to give legislative effect to such a scheme, expressed the hope that good would come from the appointment of such a committee and authorized its appointment. A committee has been selected and has the matter under review. W. F. Nickle, M. P., Kingston, who urged the advisability of immediate inquiry, compares the proposed field of legislation with Sir Richard Cartwright's annuity scheme which was elaborated with the idea of meeting the requirements of old age:

Under the Cartwright plan it is only from the savings of those who have been able to save that annuities can be had, and if conditions are met in which the worker may have done his utmost and done it well and still found himself unable to lay by anything for the purchase of an annuity, be the amount ever so small, nothing is to be had. The old-age pension scheme recognizes the worth of character and industry, even although the opportunity has not permitted of saving, while the annuity plan only gives to him who has had the opportunity of laying by something. One recognizes the right of the toiler, provided his character is reasonably good, to receive something from the state when the journey is about over; the other recognizes no such right unless the toiler has on his way been able to save. Of course the old-age pension scheme is much broader social legislation than the annuity plan.



CHICAGO CHILDREN'S JUDGE TO STAY WITH THEIR COURT

It will be remembered that some weeks ago Judge Merritt W. Pinckney of the Juvenile Court in Chicago announced that he desired to be relieved of these duties and wished another judge selected for service in the Juvenile Court. Those who have shown the deepest concern for the welfare of delinquent children urged the imperative need for his continued service, particularly at this period of vicissitude in the history of the court work.¹

The Circuit Court judges, whose duty it is to choose one of their number the latter part of June each year to preside over the Juvenile Court have urged Judge Pinckney to remain in the Juvenile Court service. This he has agreed to do on two conditions—that the Juvenile Court room be improved, and that he be given a woman assistant to help, partic-

¹See THE SURVEY, March 30, page 2003.

ularly for cases in which girls are involved.

The committee of judges is confident that both these conditions can be met. The court room is most inadequate as to size and ventilation, and the Board of County Commissioners is urged to remedy these defects, by adding to the present building if necessary. An effort will also be made to provide play space and better school facilities for children who are kept in the detention home.

Judge Pinckney's request for a woman assistant is based upon his plea that he can no longer endure having stories of degradation dragged from little girls in the publicity of the open court room. Although legal difficulties stand in the way of creating a new position and providing a salary before the next county budget is adopted in December, it is hoped that some arrangement may be made whereby an assistant of the sort Judge Pinckney desires may be added to the probation force, her salary—or a portion of it at least—to be met through the contribution of private funds. If such an arrangement can be made in the near future it is of course expected that, when the next county budget is prepared and adopted, provision will be made for this special position. Mary M. Bartelme, who for sixteen years has acted as public guardian for the probate court and whose appointment would be respected by all social workers has been mentioned for the position.

These plans for the continuance of this pioneer Juvenile Court's work on a high plane of efficiency and devoted service are reassuring to those who have a working understanding of the human service it renders and who have watched with anxiety during the past year the unscrupulous efforts to undermine the court's work.

FAMILY DESERTION IN MANITOBA

Work with dependent families has shown the large number of cases in which distress is due to the man's desertion or failure to support his wife and children. The act, which seems at first a private matter, "becomes a public offense when

society is obliged to furnish support for the family, or when the lack of it destroys the home and demoralizes the children." Action through the courts then becomes necessary and most states have statutes providing for legal action in such cases. The latest and one of the best has recently been passed by the legislature of Manitoba.

The criminal code of Canada provides for a maximum sentence of three years' imprisonment, but the courts have decided that desertion or non-support is a criminal offense only when it has resulted in permanent injury to the wife or child; otherwise, redress may be secured only by civil action. Finding, through its dealings with deserted families, that this provision was most unsatisfactory, the Winnipeg Associated Charities helped to secure the passage of a new act by the Manitoba legislature. This provides that the man may be released under bond to support his family and that if he fails to do so he may be sent to jail for forty days. The complaint may be made by the wife or by any charitable society acting on her behalf. It is felt that this law with its lighter penalty will prove more effective than the statute in the criminal code.

Those who are seeking improved legislation in this field will find practical and detailed suggestions in William H. Baldwin's paper on the present status of family desertion and non-support laws, which he presented at the National Conference of Charities and Correction last year and which has since been reprinted. Mr. Baldwin points out that in offenses of this character the question of punishment is complicated by the fact that the interests of the offender and the injured party are not separate as is the case in most crimes. Consequently, the punishment of the offender by a long jail sentence, for instance, may simply increase the injury which the family has already received.

Because of this fact the treatment of the case in court demands special care. Mr. Baldwin believes that this can best be attained by a special court with as few changes as possible in the judges presiding. In many cases men should be released on orders to support, often mak-

ing payments to their families through the court. This presupposes, of course, an adequate force of probation officers both to investigate cases and follow up the men released. When men are sent to jail the punishment, he holds, should always be hard labor, for which a reasonable compensation should be paid to the family. By such a system the burden of the man's punishment falls on him and not on his innocent family.

Of special importance is the discussion of the relative advantages of making family desertion a felony or of making it a misdemeanor. The chief argument in favor of constituting it a felony, that it makes extradition possible when a deserter goes outside the state, Mr. Baldwin demonstrates to be fallacious, since extradition has actually been secured in a number of states in which it is only a misdemeanor. If the offense is a felony, on the other hand, it is difficult to get women to prosecute and juries to convict. When the preliminary trial is before a magistrate who has no power to punish, the man is often simply released on promise to support. To quote Mr. Baldwin's conclusion:

It is important that we take a reasonable view of this subject, and that we do not let the impulse to punish make us forget the true purpose of the law, which is to overcome the evil. This can best be done by making the offense a misdemeanor, with an adequate punishment by hard labor and a reasonable but certain compensation for the family, so that all non-support cases, whether accompanied by desertion or not, can be tried in one of the lower courts, which shall have full jurisdiction in working promptly, patiently, and steadily for the best results to the family and to the community.

PLANS FOR Y. W. C. A. SUMMER CONFERENCES

The numerous meetings listed in the Calendar of Conferences published recently in *THE SURVEY*¹ under the Young Women's Christian Association indicates a networking of the country by these gatherings of young women. Two of the most significant and interesting of these were: the Pacific Coast conference, just closed, which was entertained entirely this year by Mrs. Phoebe Hearst, at Hacienda, her estate in the San Francisco

foothills; and the first conference for private school girls, to be held in June at Eagle's Mere, Pa., and conducted by Jessie Woodrow Wilson, daughter of Governor Wilson and a member of the national board of the Young Women's Christian Associations.

In all 4,000 or more women will be brought together this summer for ten days of study and recreation by the conference department of the national board, which plans for programs, attendance, and accommodations from its headquarters in New York city. This is too large a number of young people of formative age not to be reckoned with as a power. Not only will Bible and mission study be taught by clergymen and missionary educators of the country, but in the presentation of allied welfare movements, and the personal contact with well-known social workers, it is felt by those planning the conferences that many a college girl will receive the first personal shock of her social responsibility, and many a leisured woman will see beyond the city Young Women's Christian Association of which she is a board member to the general community needs and the organizations, of which this is one, which can work effectively and without duplication only when they work together. To quote a conference leader:

The third and by no means least important class reached, the girls from factories, offices, mill villages, and shops, will not only find that a vacation spent in this camp life may literally mean re-creation, but will find the gulf between themselves and the college girls bridged for this time at least, never again to be quite so impassable. For the wise psychology of balanced work and fun at these conferences proves that those who play together can study together, and that those who study together can see together below the surface issues to the spiritual values of their human relationships.

A CHILDREN'S EXHIBIT FOR GROWN-UPS

The fourth of the large child welfare exhibits of the country was held in St. Louis in May, with an attendance of slightly over 158,000. One of the ways in which it marked an advance upon the others, was the "summary," placed at the left of the entrance, which summed up, on twenty screens, the main

¹See *THE SURVEY*, May 25, page 350.

conclusions of the exhibit. These were grouped under three headings, and included suggestions to parents and recommendations for city and state-wide programs.

The immediate needs of St. Louis, as shown in this summary, are:

Wider use of schools—to be obtained through a constitutional amendment which will be voted on next November—

Supervision of commercial amusement by the Public Recreation Commission—

A board of children's guardians with power to place children in private homes—

An isolation hospital, for which the city already has the land—

Trade schools, a system of vocational guidance, and continuation schools—

A child hygiene division in the board of health—

Amendments to housing law, requiring abolition of vaults, running water in tenements, plenty of air and light—

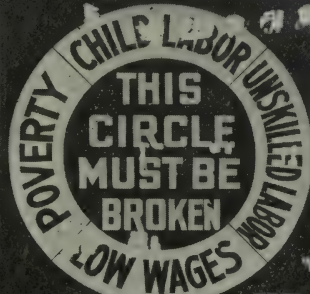
A confidential exchange of information regarding families, between philanthropic institutions—

A living wage for men and women, so that children can stay in school.

With the exception of this last recommendation, all of the suggestions are within the range of immediate possibility, and can easily be made a program of desired "next steps" for St. Louis.

In going out of existence the exhibit organization has adopted a most suggestive method for continuing the influence of the display. The screens have been turned over to the public library as a part of the traveling library department, and

WE FOLLOW ONE ANOTHER



UNTRAINED CHILDREN FORCED TO ENTER INDUSTRY.

95% of their Fathers are living, but the Wages of the Unskilled Man are seldom enough to support an Average Family.

\$12. per week. - \$624. per year - is the largest wage of an Unskilled Laborer.

\$15. per week. - \$780. per year - is the smallest income on which a family of five or six can be supported in St. Louis.

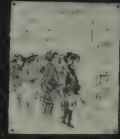
Most of the Children of 14 Years are contributing to the Family Income. In 70% of the Families, over 50% of the Children are Wage-earners. 90% of the Children who enter Occupations untrained, remain Unskilled Laborers.

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Investigation by the School of Social Economy

STANDARD OF LIVING

Every day the high cost of living



drives 20 boys and girls out of St. Louis Schools to work

A St. Louis family of five cannot live decently on less than **\$780.** per year


Food	\$350	"Nourishing but plain"
Rent	\$154	"Four Rooms and bath"
Clothing	\$110	"\$200 per year per person"
Furniture	25	"Repairing Old and buying necessary new"
Education	5	"Books, Newspapers, Etc."
Light & Fuel	35	
Car Fare	32	"for every working day in year for one person"
Insurance	30	"Each Person is Insured for \$1000"
Sickness	20	
Sundries	10	
Recreation	?	"Can a Family live without Recreation?"
Savings	?	"Should not every Family be able to save something?"
	\$780.	

Illustration by School of Social Economy

NOTICE THESE FIGURES

Could you live on the amount that according to the U.S. Census 1909 the 87,371 factory employees in St. Louis average \$555. each, these are regular earnings, not the least class of transient labor. — **\$555. - \$780. = \$225.**

MINUS \$225. WHAT?



CHILD LABOR is the only answer the individual parent can see

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will be placed at the call of the public. The executive committee of the exhibit continues in existence to stimulate this demand, and to see that the various exhibits are used by the right people at the right time. Fifty screens go immediately to the Young Women's Christian Association for two weeks; forty go to the Jewish Educational Alliance, while some small sections, such as that on anti-tuberculosis, have already eleven places scheduled for exhibition purposes. Many of the churches and settlements are planning to run a continuous exhibit of six or eight screens at a time, changing every two weeks. Intensive work of this kind will not be as spectacular as the large exhibit, but will enable more people to study the screens as they deserve.

The researches of the School of Social Economy were a striking feature, as were the researches of the Board of Public Welfare in Kansas City. This was especially noticeable in the sections on work and wages and philanthropy, which went beyond the similar sections of other exhibits in many ways. In the section on philanthropy, no institution was featured by itself; all were grouped as part of a general scheme showing the children's institutions of St. Louis under the main headings: Types of Institutions, Methods of Handling, Play and Recreation, Training and Education, etc. From the standpoint of the general public this method is undoubtedly the most satisfactory; it is, however, more difficult to carry through, unless some preliminary work of investigation has been done.

The section on work and wages went into more fundamental questions than any child welfare exhibit has as yet touched. Wages of women and girls had indeed been a feature of the Kansas City exhibit, and the demand for a living wage for women had been very strongly made. It was reserved for St. Louis to take up the question of family standards of living. All other exhibits have treated child labor as a question to be settled by legislation and law enforcement. Striking statistics and cartoons in this exhibit show that the average wage of 87,000 workers in St. Louis is so low that a family of five cannot possibly live on it. "Child labor is the only answer the individual family can see." This frank statement of the helplessness of the individual family and the inadequacy of law to prevent child labor under present industrial conditions leads the way to the concluding screen of this section, of which an illustration is here shown. Probably fifty people worked over this screen in the effort to get a fair and telling wording of the social programs of the various propagandist movements. In its open facing of the unsolved problems of the working people, this screen carries the St. Louis display beyond the consideration of immediate child problems, and makes it an exhibit of the deepest social questions confronting us today.

REMEDIES IV

*The Wealth of the
World is Human.*
THE PROBLEM OF THE CHILD
IS THE PROBLEM OF THE RACE.

These are some of the Solutions
offered for the Industrial Problem.

Many People say:
We need Better Laws and
strict Government Enforcement.

Single Taxers say:
Abolish Labor Exploitation by Taxing
Land for its Full Value, thus making
Land Monopoly impossible, removing Taxes
on Processes of Cultivation, Manufacture, Exchange.

Socialists say:
Abolish Private Ownership of the Nation's
Productive and Distributive Plants.
Then by actual Democratic Management every
Worker can be assured of his full Share of
the Product.

Anarchists say:
Develop the highest Social Responsibility
in the individual under complete freedom
from Compulsion by either Law or Government.

THINK ABOUT THESE SUGGESTIONS.
Only Wide-spread Popular Thinking
Will ever Change Conditions.

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EDITORIAL GRIST

SOCIAL GAINS BY RHODE ISLAND LAW-MAKERS

GRACE M. SHERWOOD

Legislative Reference Director, Rhode Island State Library

Aside from passing a workmen's compensation act and several measures affecting childhood, public health, education and probation, the Rhode Island General Assembly of 1912, in one of the most fruitful sessions ever held in that state, created seventeen new commissions, five permanent and twelve temporary. The five permanent boards include a tax commission, a state board of control and supply, a public utilities commission, a state printing commission, and a board of examiners of trained nurses.

After bitter debate in both branches an act was passed establishing a board of control and supply, providing for the regulation and control of state institutions. This board numbers five members, the salaries of the chairman and the secretary being \$3,000 each annually, the other members receiving \$2,000. The board may purchase supplies and make contracts for repairs and alterations at the state institutions in Cranston, the state sanatorium, the state home and school for dependent children, the institute for the deaf and the school for the feeble-minded. This board has charge of the construction and furnishing of all buildings for any of the said institutions. The power hitherto exercised by the board of state charities and corrections over the labor of prisoners and other inmates of the institutions is transferred to this board.

The board of state charities and corrections remain in existence merely as a visiting and advisory board, with power to make reports to the general assembly.

The establishment of a new tax department is in some ways the most important achievement of the session. Through it is promised a more equitable raising of revenue and a more business-like administration.

The third big commission—public utilities—is composed of three members and a secretary. The salary of the chairman is \$4,000, of the secretary \$3,500, of each member, \$3,000. This board legislated the railroad commissioner out of office, and his duties were absorbed by the new commission. The hearings and records are to be public. Investigation is to be made upon written complaint laid against any public utility as to fares or service, and right of entry in the performance of any investigation is given the commission and any of its agents. If after investigation and hearings the complaint appears just and reasonable, the commission may require the public utility to remedy its rate or service system, and provide adequate means for safe service and the use of safe equipment.

The board of examiners of trained nurses is made up of five persons who are paid \$2 for each day of actual service. The board examines all applicants who are required by this act to pass an examination, in the elements of anatomy and physiology, materia medica, in medical, surgical, obstetrical and practical nursing, invalid cookery, and household hygiene. There is a reciprocal registration provision, if the requirements in other states are nearly uniform.

Several of the twelve temporary commissions have nothing to do except investigate certain things and report to the next general assembly, but others are charged with the responsibility of proposing changes to the state constitution, repairing bridges, erecting armories and courthouses, deepening a river, eliminating grade crossings, holding celebrations and erecting a monument. These are largely local matters.

Perhaps the principal piece of legislation of interest to industry was the passage of the workmen's compensation act, relative to payments to employees for personal injuries received in the course of their employment. The occupations of domestic science and agriculture are barred, nor does the act apply to an employer who employs five or less workmen, unless such employer elects to comply with the act. In an action to recover damages for personal injury sus-

tained by accident by an employe arising out of and in the course of his employment, or for death resulting from personal injury so sustained, the defenses of negligence, fellow servant's fault and assumption of risk are abrogated. This provision does not apply if the employer elects to become subject to the provisions of this act and files with the commissioner of industrial statistics a written statement to that effect. Copies of such statement must be posted in conspicuous places for his workmen to see. This operates to subject the employer to these provisions for one year.

An employe of such employer waives his right of action at common law unless he gives notice in writing at the time of his hire that he claims such right and within ten days files with the commissioner of industrial statistics a copy of the notice, such waiver to continue in force for one year. No compensation is ever allowed for injury or death where wilful intent to injure is proved against the employe or where the employe was intoxicated while on duty, and compensation is to begin on the fifteenth day after the injury. For the first two weeks reasonable medical and hospital services and medicines when needed must be furnished by the employer.

If death results from the injury, the employer pays those wholly dependent upon the employe's earnings at the time of his injury, weekly payments equal to one half his average weekly earnings. This shall not exceed \$10 nor be less than \$4 a week and shall continue for a period of 300 weeks from date of injury. For total disability, compensation is the same as for death, to continue for 500 weeks. For partial disability, weekly compensation is equal to one half the difference between the weekly wages before the injury and the average weekly wages able to be earned thereafter, but not more than \$10 a week, for a period not greater than 300 weeks from the date of injury. Compensation for specified injuries is fully noted in the act.

Three enactments directly affect children. One is the night messenger law. No person under the age of twenty-one years may work as messenger for any

telephone, telegraph, or messenger company in distribution, transmission, or delivery of goods or messages before five o'clock in the morning or after ten o'clock at night. For safeguarding the lives of children in case of fire in schools, compulsory fire drills are required to be held at least once a month. In providing for neglected and dependent children, further authority is given the board of control of the state home and school, when children are placed in a family which is to furnish their education, to pay such amount as may be agreed upon for the care and support of the several children.

Along educational lines, the new laws authorize the establishment of open air schools and state aid in support of industrial education. In case any town provides instruction in manual training and household arts in its public schools, with the approval of the state board of education, the town shall be entitled to receive as aid from the state a sum not exceeding one half of the amount expended by the town for the purchase of apparatus necessary for such instruction.

The acts for the preservation of the public health are largely concerned with amendments of the chapter of the general laws relating to medicines and poisons. It is declared a misdemeanor to sell any article of food or drink or any drug for internal use containing wood alcohol.

Whenever it comes to the knowledge of the state probation officer that the family of a prisoner serving sentence for non-support is in destitute circumstances, a new law authorizes him, with the approval of the board of state charities and correction, to contribute to the support of such a destitute family during the term of the sentence.

For the ousting of the "loan shark" and the protection of the legitimate money lender, the usury law was amended so that a person may not take interest money in such an amount that the total of one year's interest shall exceed 30 per cent of the amount actually received by the borrower on all amounts exceeding \$50, whether in one or more loans; and on all amounts not exceeding

\$50, 5 per cent per month for the first six months and thereafter $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per month of the amount actually received by the borrower.

GOV. DIX AS A "CONSERVER OF MANKIND"

THE SURVEY felt honored to include in the special number on the feeble-minded, an article by Governor John A. Dix, of New York entitled *Conservation of Mankind*.¹ It is with a feeling of constraint that attention is called, notwithstanding the governor's absence, to three recent acts on his part which seem out of harmony with his expressed views on conservation.

The first is his failure to retain in office Dennis McCarthy, fiscal supervisor of state charities for the past two years by appointment of Governor Hughes. In his long term of service as an active member of the State Board of Charities, and in his work as fiscal supervisor, Mr. McCarthy had gained a wealth of experience and knowledge of the needs of the institutions of the state, which it would seem might well have been conserved. We have heard no criticism of Mr. McCarthy's acts. On the other hand, we have heard widespread and well-informed approbation. It seems a pity to waste such valuable knowledge. It seems a pity that the managers and superintendents of the state charitable institutions must again explain their needs, their methods, their purposes, their detailed requirements, to a fiscal supervisor who, however well-intentioned, is not familiar with their work, but must, nevertheless, pass on their requisitions.

The second instance was the failure of the governor to retain the state architect, Franklin B. Ware, also selected by Governor Hughes. Mr. Ware was an architect of good standing and broad experience, and in his years of service he also had gained an intimate knowledge of the peculiar needs of the various state charitable institutions and state hospitals. It had been his duty to develop the plans of Letchworth Village, of the New York State Training School

for Boys, of the new state hospital for the insane at Mohansic, and other similar undertakings. He possessed not only a store of detailed information as to the condition and requirements of each institution, but what is perhaps more difficult, a knowledge of its particular purposes. All this has been wasted, thrown away. The New York *Evening Post* states that the newly-appointed state architect is not a member of the professional societies to which we would naturally expect him to belong; that he has had substantially no experience as an architect, his chief work having been that of a draughtsman. Even if he were a fully qualified architect, in the absence of reasons to the contrary, it is certainly distinctly in conflict with the spirit of conservation to throw away all the information and special knowledge gained by his predecessor during his extended experience as state architect.

The third instance to which we refer is the reduction of the appropriation for Letchworth Village for construction work from \$750,000 to \$450,000. As introduced, the bill carried \$1,250,000. The Senate, just before adjournment, cut it to \$750,000; the governor cut out another \$300,000. The state, like an individual, must, it is true, make both ends meet. Its resources, however, are not sharply circumscribed. The re-establishment of the direct tax makes it possible to collect such sums as in the judgment of the legislature and the governor are needed to carry on properly the business of the state. With an appropriation of a million dollars a year Letchworth Village could be completed in three years. With an appropriation of \$450,000 a year, it will not be completed for seven years. Meantime we will have failed to conserve the best interests of the state by failing to segregate the feeble-minded. Feeble-minded young women will have continued to bear feeble-minded children, to spread venereal diseases and depravity. We can not help feeling that the governor's action in thus reducing the appropriation for Letchworth Village was inconsistent with the spirit of his article on conservation, inconsistent with the best interests of the state, inconsistent with sound business and social policy.

¹See THE SURVEY, March 2, 1912, p. 1880.

CIVIC GRIT AND THE PITTSBURGH CHURCHES

After all, how much civic grit is there in the Men and Religion Forward Movement which the Protestant churches have been exercising themselves over the past year?

Pittsburgh has some evidence to offer. At a time when militant civic reformers could not get local newspapers to print the serious charges they brought against the heads of the departments of health, safety and public works, when the impressive Industrial Commission with its great funds for the up-building of Pittsburgh showed itself more concerned in hushing things up than in cleaning them up, and when the new City Council, created to give Pittsburgh good government, had to have its nose rubbed into its official responsibility, these Pittsburgh men of religion took hold of the situation and in three days won a hearing for the people.

A year ago, the Pennsylvania legislature wiped out the old bi-cameral councils in Pittsburgh with their record of over a hundred members involved in the graft cases, and instituted a small responsible councilmanic body elected at large. There seemed every prospect that the city was entering upon a new era in municipal government. Men of high business standing were appointed and were continued in office at the November elections. There was general public conviction at the time that the executive departments of the city government were also being maladministered and specific charges to that effect made by the Voters' League, the organization which unearthed the councilmanic graft of 1908, were the factors which in the end forced through the legislation that gave Pittsburgh its new charter.

Throughout all this period Mayor Magee has continued in office and along with him the department heads responsible for the conditions alleged—Armstrong of the Department of Public Works, Morin of Public Safety, and Walters of Public Health. Mayor Magee continues in office until January, 1914, but under the law the terms of his cabinet are held

to have expired April 1 last. As Council had done nothing in the interval to remedy the department conditions which had been the immediate cause of its creation, the Voters' League called upon it to declare the offices vacant and to see that the new appointees, which would be subject to Council's approval, should be of the type which the public interest demanded. Such a resolution was passed by Council in April. The mayor ignored it. Thereupon the Voters' League suggested three plans by which Council through mandamus proceedings could force the mayor to act, hoping by this simple method to secure the desired reforms without such a general washing of dirty linen as militant Pittsburghers have had to resort to at other times to overcome inertia and exploitation of the public interests. Council voted down each of the three plans and called on the league to submit evidence of maladministration before a special councilmanic investigation.

While the easier methods had thus been turned down by Council, the chances seemed favorable for a thoroughgoing overhauling of the situation by a method very much simpler and less sensational than impeachment proceedings. The league accepted the challenge in good faith and preferred the charges. These charges were, with respect to the Department of Public Works, that the civil service laws were being violated, that unfair contracts had been awarded, that the street cleaning was so inefficiently managed that no unit costs were available, that for a year there had been no adequate inspection of the public lighting supplied by private companies, and that the health of the city was threatened by the methods employed at the great filtration plant which had cleared Pittsburgh of typhoid fever. With respect to the Department of Public Health, the charges were that the sanitary conditions of the poorer districts were unbearable, that food inspectors had accepted bribes, that there had been few if any prosecutions under the health laws for a year and that cases in which sanitary inspectors had filed as many as twenty-nine violations against certain properties had been held in abeyance by

order of the director. Director Morin of the Department of Public Safety has been president of the Order of Eagles and is the republican nominee for congressman-at-large in the November election. The general charge against him is that of running a wide open town. The Guthrie police orders prohibiting the sale of liquors, music, and lewd entertainments in houses of prostitution have been held in abeyance and the houses themselves have spread into the tenement neighborhoods. It is charged that gambling and vice "circuses" have been the order of the night in the Big-number houses.

These are not frivolous charges. They reach to the heart of the community life. Those who know the record of the Voters' League in the past would unhesitatingly credit them as being made in good faith. They were submitted on a Thursday night. Not a Pittsburgh newspaper published a line of quotation from them the next day. There was only unfavorable editorial criticism in violation of ordinary newspaper ethics.

Here it was that the church forces, aroused by the Men and Religion Forward Movement, swung into line. Its executive council met Friday and called a meeting of ministers on Saturday morning. Sunday morning nearly a hundred congregations listened to the charges which the newspapers had suppressed. Sermons were delivered and resolutions were adopted calling on councils to act. Hundreds of special delivery letters were in turn sent to the newspapers calling on them for publicity and to come out for a thorough and fair investigation. In thirty-six hours the press boycott had been smashed. The newspapers were "in bad" and their labored editorial explanations showed it. Some had the grace to come out openly and admit the corn. Since then the news columns have carried the facts as to the public proceedings, but, as in the graft cases of 1908-9, the movement continues with only half-hearted editorial support or none at all.

Meanwhile the churches have reasserted vigorously some of their old-time functions, as channels for information and leadership among the people and

it will be a long day before the newspapers of Pittsburgh again attempt to put an embargo on the news,—even at the instigation of short sighted commercial interests, which fall into the error of supposing that it is going to hurt a town to advertise its determination to guard its own health, its municipal business and its childhood.

Meanwhile also, and only in lesser degree than the public press, Council has failed to get down to hard pan in investigating the departments in which maladministration is charged. It has shied at shouldering the responsibility for thoroughly sifting the work of these departments to the bottom. Yet the chairmen of the councilmanic committees on health, safety and public works bear supervisory relations to each of these departments, are empowered to have access to their records and scarcely less than the mayor himself are responsible to the public that things do not go wrong. Moreover, the new charter provides specifically for councilmanic investigations of the work of departments, a judge of the common pleas court presiding, as a simple method by which city officials can be held to accountability. Instead of entering upon a convincing and resourceful public inquiry, Council has put the Voters' League in the position of a complainant at a trial, itself the jury. On the basis that the public health and morals are the most vital interests at stake, the league arranged to present its evidence as to these departments first. At the eleventh hour the Council switched to the Department of Public Works and the hearing is set for June 29. Two explanations are suggested in Pittsburgh as the reason for this change, the first being that the administration believed the league's weakest case was against the work's department; the second being that as council and court may adjourn for the summer by mid-July, the health and safety investigations may go over till fall when public interest, now thoroughly aroused, will have cooled off. The fact that Judge Robert Frazer, presiding judge of the Common Pleas Court and the man who tried most of the graft cases, will preside at the hearings, gives prom-

ise of their thoroughness, and will give the progressive members of Council their chance to rehabilitate that body in the public estimation. So far as the public goes, the presumption is of course that the department heads have served the city well and are entitled to a fair hearing to show that the charges are false; but the public is equally insistent that all the facts shall be brought into the open, and through the churches has served notice to that effect at a time when press and Council and business bodies alike were laggard in their stewardship. The presumption that the charges are groundless and that the city administration covets full and fair inquiry, has not been strengthened, however, by an incident of the past few days. Former sanitary inspectors of the Department of Health have been employed by the league in gathering evidence as to conditions in the poorer districts. Two were arrested by the police and threatened with being sent up if they were caught investigating again.

PERSONALS

Jean Gordon, formerly factory inspector and now honorary factory inspector of the city of New Orleans, has entered upon the duties of secretary for the southern states of the National Consumers' League. Some years ago Miss Gordon, aided by the Era Club of New Orleans and a number of influential men, succeeded in having the constitution of Louisiana amended so that a woman could hold the office of factory inspector in the Parish of Orleans, which is identical with the city of New Orleans. The legislature then passed a bill regulating the work of women and children and creating the office of inspector of factories for that parish. Miss Gordon was immediately appointed to the new office, which she occupied until a year ago, when she resigned and became honorary inspector without salary.

It is largely in consequence of Miss Gordon's exertions that women in New Orleans now enjoy the benefits of a law restricting their working hours to ten in one day and sixty in one week, and that children under sixteen years of age are banished from the stage; that children in other occupations are free from work at night and have the protection of a statute which compares well with the best in the North, except in two particulars: Louisiana does not yet give her children the blessing of an eight-hour day or an educational requirement.

Since entering her new field of activity, Miss Gordon has presided at the conference on the labor of women and children at Chattanooga, Tenn., and reports the forma-



JEAN GORDON.

tion of a consumers' league in that city at the close of the conference. Under her guidance committees of women students of Sophie Newcomb College (which bears the same relation to Tulane that Barnard bears to Columbia), have undertaken practical work in relation to industrial conditions in their city. They are the first students south of Maryland to do this.¹

Typhoid Mary has broken into fiction and added another to the long list of victims which have made her the puzzle and then the despair of the New York Department of Health. Possessed of culinary cunning which made her popular in many kitchens, and of robust Irish health, she was found by Dr. Lederle to be a "typhoid carrier," giving off fatal germs as surely as the pot colors the dish rag or the onion ionizes milk, to use illustrations in her realm.

Her story is widely known, but to make of it a detective tale required a rare sort of imagination which perhaps only THE SURVEY could excite. At any rate, it was Arthur B. Reeve, formerly of our staff, who has woven about her such a tale of ingenious murder and equally ingenious detection as only this twentieth century could furnish. To kill a rich man, whose will he has forged in his own behalf, the villain of this piece sends Typhoid Mary—which is not her name in fact or in fiction—with a forged recommendation as a cook. With his food she unconsciously mixes germs until the rich man dies. The villain has made himself safe by vaccination against typhoid.

But so many other servants in the house fall sick of the fever that suspicion is aroused. Craig Kennedy, the Professor-of-Chemistry-Sherlock-Holmes hero, traces Mary by her

¹Miss Gordon may be addressed at 1720 Coliseum st., New Orleans, La.

finger prints, detects the forgery by irregular heart-beats shown in the writing, and brings the villain down.

The whole book¹ bristles with such ultra-modern situations as a bird-man murdered in mid-air by wireless flashes of electricity from a rival miles away, solid steel safes eaten through like wormy wood, with new chemicals, all detected by the shrewd psychology of Professor Kennedy.

To Thomas Maurice Mulry, banker of New York, the University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Ind., has this year conferred the Laetare medal, which is annually bestowed on a layman of the Catholic Church for distinguished services to church, country, arts, letters, science, civilization or humanity.

It was for his efforts in the field of philanthropy extending over a quarter of a century that Mr. Mulry was chosen for this distinction. He has been for many years president of the Superior Council of the St. Vincent de Paul Society.

With the exception of a decoration from the Pope himself, the Laetare medal is said to be the most important decoration with which a Catholic layman in this country is invested. In Europe the Golden Rose, which is another decoration awarded on Laetare Sunday, is conferred by the Pope on some Catholic sovereign or other notable. It is never conferred on any one in the United States, and therefore the Laetare medal takes its place.

A strong memory with those who met last week and this at the National Conference of Charities and Correction in Cleveland was the last appearance before that body of the late Frederick Howard Wines. This was in Boston in 1911. When the committee on law-breakers, of which I was chairman, planned its program early in the year a number of members felt that as Dr. Wines was getting old his earnest words on the distressing conditions in county jails, which had been uttered recently in Maryland and elsewhere, should be heard from the national platform before he became too feeble to utter them. Mr. Wines was written to and replied that he had not planned to come to the conference, but under the circumstances would make the effort, because our general session was to be held on the opening night of the conference.

Those who were in Boston will remember that the opening session of the conference was a noteworthy one. There were on the platform as speakers Governor Foss, President Eliot, of Harvard, Mr. Folks, and Mr. Wines. The keynote of the meeting had been struck by Governor Foss and Mr. Folks. I introduced Dr. Wines as follows:

"Dr. E. C. Wines, who founded the International Prison Congress, has been called the John Howard of America. It is a special

honor for us to have upon the platform the son of Dr. Wines, himself a penologist of renown and the writer of an American classic. He will speak to us on the abolition of the county jail."

Then Dr. Wines began. It was already after ten o'clock. The natural inclination of a number of persons to leave after a two-hour session was manifesting itself. Restlessness was in the air. Dr. Wines was somewhat hoarse and his voice could not carry very far in the great Tremont Temple. But the compelling personality of the man, his prophetic vision, and his intense earnestness stayed the tendency to leave. Dr. Wines, I am sure, felt that he was perhaps giving his last message. He pleaded no longer for the cleaning up of the county jail, but for its abolition on the ground that the county jail cannot be a compromise institution, half prison, half detention prison. As he spoke, his voice strengthened, and throughout the great hall people strained their ears to listen. His last words were:

"Mine is a poor, weak voice; it will not carry very far. This right arm is not the arm of a giant, nor even of an athlete; it will not deliver a smashing blow. For the sake of the human derelicts languishing in merited or unmerited confinement, I could wish that both were stronger. Still more earnestly do I wish it for the sake of our common country and its honor. An old man suffers in many ways that a young man hardly understands. One of my secret griefs is the shame I feel that my country has so long tolerated, and continues to tolerate, a wrong which disgraces it in the eyes of the world, and which, unless it is redressed, must sooner or later bring down upon it the vengeance of Almighty God."

When he had finished speaking, he paused as if partially exhausted, and took his seat. Mr. Folks and I had been worried beforehand for fear the splendid message of Dr. Wines might not carry in the great hall, but the applause increased in volume until the old man, intensely moved, rose and bowed his appreciation.

That evening's reception to Dr. Wines was not spectacular, was not a great event. I cite it here simply because it was a beautiful culmination to his connection with the national conference. He had been its president in the early days, in 1881. The last words he addressed to the general conference were the words "Almighty God," and I believe that it was in the spirit of God that his life of prison reform was conducted.

O. F. LEWIS.

David S. Beyer, chief safety inspector of the American Steel and Wire Company, has become director of the department of inspection and accident prevention of the Massachusetts Employes' Insurance Association. This association was organized under the new Massachusetts workmen's compensation law, and is a semi-public mutual insurance com-

¹The Silent Bullet, by Arthur B. Reeve, Dodd, Mead, and Company. By mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.42.

pany modelled after the German plan. Its managers have shown a rare forethought in drafting off to its work perhaps the most scientific of the safety experts developed by private industry in America.

The development of civic and social activities within organizations founded for the narrower purpose of furthering commercial interests has found expression in a change of name. The change has been made by the recently organized Civic and Commerce Association of Minneapolis, a combination of several smaller organizations which gives promise of a large membership of democratic character. Its constitution provides for the admission of mechanics, laboring men, etc. The secretary is Howard Strong. It is one of Mr. Strong's aims to secure a representation of every element in the community instead of only a few of these elements.

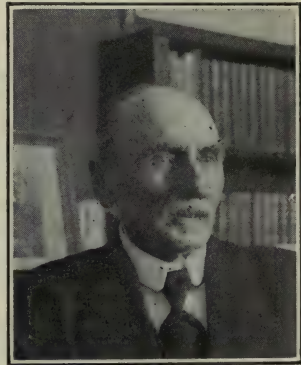
The spirit which animated the founders of the Civic and Commerce Association is most clearly indicated to outsiders by their choice of a secretary. Mr. Strong was assistant secretary of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce and during the past ten years has been the executive officer of most of the committees which have given the Cleveland organization a national reputation as a Chamber of Citizenship. Among the activities of some of these committees have been the securing of a state law and a city ordinance and the organization of a department for the elimination of the smoke nuisance, the preparation and enactment of a sanitary code, and the development of systems of milk and meat inspection perhaps nowhere else surpassed in efficiency. Other committees have been instrumental in the creation of a system of medical inspection in the public schools, the creation through legislative and councilmanic action of a department of forestry, the development of a sanitary system of street cleaning, the issuance of bonds for a separation of grade crossings, the development of park playgrounds, the construction of a new tuberculosis hospital, the supervision and development of the various charitable organizations in Cleveland, the preparation and passage of a building code, the preparation of a tenement house code and the creation of a tenement house department, and in the development of schemes for city beautification.

With Mr. Strong as executive officer and with the spirit indicated in the new organization's name, the Civic and Commerce Association gives hope that at the end of the next ten years, it will be able to look back upon a record of achievement in its dealings with the problems that confront Minneapolis even better than that of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce.

Otto W. Davis, who was superintendent for four years of the Associated Charities of Columbus, Ohio, is assistant secretary of the association. Mr. Davis intends to organize a charities investigating bureau so that every solicitation for alms will be scrutinized before aid is granted. While in Columbus Mr. Davis,

with E. L. Weinland, former city solicitor, drafted a housing code. He lectured throughout the city urging its passage. Part of his work in Minneapolis will be to aid in ridding that fast growing city of its slums. Before going to Columbus, Mr. Davis was superintendent of the Associated Charities in Paterson, N. J.

Adam Meister, seventy-eight years old this spring, is as young in heart as anyone in the service of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society. He goes upstairs two steps at a time, does two days' work in one, and laughs at troubles while he overcomes them. He will die young.



ADAM MEISTER.

He was the first visitor of the first charity organization society in America, and began this work more than thirty-five years ago, on December 11, 1877, when the Buffalo society was organized. On his seventy-fifth birthday the society gave him a parchment beautifully illuminated in colors, and some gold which he liked less. His fellow-workers gave him flowers. He said: "I am glad you gave me these flowers now. I enjoy them so much more than if you had given them to me after I was dead."

Never callous, never tired, wise-hearted, but incorrigible in his old ways, with children swarming around him like bees, loved by the second and third generation of the families he has helped, Adam Meister is a proof to everybody that "organized charity is organized love."

FREDERIC ALMY.

The plaudits which Governor Hooper of Tennessee is receiving because of his stand on prison reform and like matters are not unmixed. One of his recent acts was to induce the Board of Prison Commissioners to remove the stripes from upper-grades prisoners. It thereupon became necessary to choose another uniform. The one finally selected by the board was of a shade of gray. In this innocent-looking fact lay powder for political sharpshooters.

A daily paper charged the governor with clothing convicts in the garb of the Confederate veteran. Other newspapers reiterated the accusation. The William Frierson Camp of Confederate Veterans of Shelbyville held an indignation meeting, and passed a set of resolutions denouncing Governor Hooper for attempting to "degrade and humiliate" the southern soldiers by putting convicts into Confederate gray. This made more copy for man-eating dailies and presently a state was aflame over the color of a coat. Into the conflagration Governor Hooper sent the dampening facts that the original charge came from one who had never seen the cloth in question, that it has been "pronounced to be a brown or olive drab" bearing no more resemblance to a Confederate gray than to a Federal blue, and that the whole affair was "cooked up for the palpable purpose of creating prejudice" against him.

Among the addresses at the superintendents' annual convention dinner, commemorating twenty years of administration of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, some verses were read and dedicated to the Veteran's Association. Their subject was really the vision and plans which Assistant Secretary Lee K. Frankel, formerly manager of the United Hebrew Charities, has brought into the field of industrial insurance. Here are a few lines:

Long has he taught
The calm and peace that come with death not
 fraught

With thoughts of dear ones left behind to mourn
In want and penury. How bright the bourne
Untroubled, undisturbed by thought or fear
Of pauper burial. To-night we steer
A strange and novel course. To-night we preach
A gospel new, one that we hope will reach
To every nook and hamlet where the name
Of "Met" is known. To-night we shall proclaim
Our purpose firm to succor, not alone
When the grim reaper enters hut and home,
But over and beyond all this to give
To those we serve the knowledge how to live.
Ours is the task to speak of longer life
Instead of death; to teach that in the strife
With dread disease man need not fall betimes.
Ours is the duty—as sound the chimes
Far overhead, bidding us act—to go
Into the homes of men and gladly show
That threescore years and ten are still our lot.
Thus was it said of old, ere men forgot
That sin took toll in suffering; ere wealth
And greed obsessed the hearts of men; when health
Was yet of price.

Let no man say that we have failed to fight
The battle of the weak. To them we'll bring
Comfort in sickness, that they rise and sing
Pæons of praise. For them we shall install
Our white-robed sisters at their beck and call,
To nurse them back to health. Sisters, said I?
Angels were better,—for in truth they vie
With God's fair messengers in sacrifice
Of time and self—a service beyond price.
Ministering angels they whose gentle touch
On fevered brow brings peace and rest to such
Who lie on bed of pain. They speak the word
Of cheer and hope, and faith, too seldom heard
In homes where hunger reigns; 'tis they who give
The cooling, healing draught that men may live.
Angels of mercy they! who bind the bleeding
 wound;

Missioners of peace triumphant, who sound
The note divine of God's undying love.

A number of people in the District of Columbia have started a movement to induce President Taft to appoint a woman to the

Juvenile Court judgeship, the present term of which expires June 30. The woman whose fitness is urged is Ellen Spencer Mussey. Without reflecting on the competency of Judge de Lacey they maintain that "the child is the most sacred offering of woman to the state and she has therefore a right to help direct the young citizen along the path of safety and usefulness." They declare that Mrs. Mussey has demonstrated her fitness for the Juvenile Court bench, "as dean of the Washington College of Law; as a member of the Board of Education for two terms, of which body she is now vice-president; as a promoter of kindergartens in our public schools, special schools for subnormal children, and public play-grounds; as author of the law which made mothers equal guardians with fathers of their children (the Mussey Act); and as an active force in all progressive work for child rearing and education."

As an outgrowth of the Men and Religion Forward Movement in Philadelphia, a social service secretary of the Inter-church Federation has been employed, and the city has secured the services of William B. Patterson of New York, former general secretary of the Methodist Brotherhood and editor of *Methodist Men*, a magazine of which he was one of the founders.

Mr. Patterson has been a member of the American Institute of Social Service for several years and of the committee of that society which is publishing under the editorship of Josiah Strong lessons in "the gospel of the kingdom."

He was one of the original group which organized three years ago the Laity League for Social Service in New York, now operating through the federation of churches, and was the vice-chairman of the social service committee of the Men and Religion Forward Movement. Mr. Patterson has been in general church work, principally among men's organizations, for the past eight years, and was formerly a newspaper man for eleven years, going from the editorial desk of the *New York Evening Mail* to develop a general men's organization in the Methodist Episcopal Church. He is the author of numerous monographs on social service themes and of a book on Modern Church Brotherhood.

Prof. J. L. Gillin, who has been teaching sociology at the State University of Iowa for the past five years, has accepted a call to the University of Wisconsin. At Wisconsin Professor Gillin will teach sociology one semester of each year and will spend the remainder of his time as secretary of the department of general information and welfare, one of the four departments in the extension division of the university. In this capacity he will have an opportunity to promote social surveys in Wisconsin, work which he has been doing in Iowa with considerable success. He will also have an opportunity to co-ordinate academic work in sociology with actual field work through the extension division.

COMMUNICATIONS

THE REVOLUTION ON THE SEA

TO THE EDITOR:

Having just read the article by Rev. George McPherson Hunter on *The Revolution on the Sea*¹ I cannot refrain from sending you this short comment thereon. My experience with seamen covers a little more than forty years. I have sailed as boy and man under five different flags in steam and sail, and as an official of a seamen's union, I have felt with their feelings—let me say, our feelings. I have been thinking the same thoughts, living the same life, suffering the same injustice, and I have been touched by the same dreams. I repudiate the article as untrue to life. The experience and skill needed in years gone by in sailing is needed now in steam. If you were to take away this day all the officers and men trained in the sailing vessel you would have a condition, which would increase the premium on insurance by 50 per cent. The seaman felt the wrongs under which he suffered when sail ruled the ocean as he feels them now; but he had no voice with which to express them. One of the first expressions of which I learned the meaning in coming into British ships was "that no one goes to sea unless he can find nothing else to do and that the sea has on it the rakings and scapings of hell, bedlam, and Newgate. Seamen's lives have become more and more impossible as the changes have come; not the changes from sail to steam, but the changes in life on shore. As life on shore improved so the cost of living went up and the purchasing power of the seaman's never-changing wages went down. While the wages of the landsman went up, the seaman, held in the ligaments of his status, could not follow. The result was failure to provide for a family and a corresponding self-contempt and a desire to get away from a life so dishonored and so barren. Skill is needed as ever but rarer, and men are going from place to place seeking other things to do. It is not the engineer but the landsman that has changed the sea and the seaman.

ANDREW FURUSETH.

Washington, D. C.

SATURDAY HALF HOLIDAY

TO THE EDITOR:

What can be done to secure a half holiday during the summer months, asks a Troy correspondent in your issue of June 8.

Nothing would be better than to have an experience meeting of *SURVEY* readers on this subject—by means of letters to the editor. As you know, Governor Dix has just signed the fifty-four hour bill which, so far as I can see, seems likely to give the Saturday half holiday automatically to a very great number of women and girls, who will all be tempted

¹See *THE SURVEY*, May 4, 1912, page 199.

more than ever to shop on Saturday afternoon. This is going to make your task harder rather than easier, and we expect the same difficulty here in New York, where the Consumers' League has been more successful than anywhere else in getting stores closed on Saturday afternoon.

One thing that would help very much would be a persistent, quiet effort directed toward the manufacturers, urging them to pay wages on some other day early in the week rather than on Saturday, the worst day in the whole week, so far as the interests of the clerks and small merchants are concerned.

Another means of help is the churches, and all possible organizations of women, urging all those who can do so to shop at other times. This is a very slow method, indeed, but in the long run it is very valuable, and it is worth all the time it takes, even when it seems most discouraging.

Finally, the passage of the fifty-four hour bill for women employed in manufacture opens, for the first time, the way toward legislation shortening working hours for the clerks. This last is, I am sure, the most fruitful field of effort that we can enter upon, and it behooves us all to begin immediately to make public opinion for giving the fifty-four hour week to the clerks.

FLORENCE KELLEY.

[Secretary, National Consumers' League.]

New York.

ACCIDENT COMPENSATION

TO THE EDITOR:

I have just finished reading the articles on Accident Compensation in *THE SURVEY* of May 4. The present objections to the German plan are numerous and varied. The objections to the English plan are only two.

1. The excessive burden placed on the employer in case of a great calamity.
2. The possible loss to employe in case of insolvency of employer.

Why not adopt the English plan of direct compensation but supplement it by a state guarantee fund to protect the employer and employe in the two contingencies above mentioned? In case of some unusual calamity calling for payments representing more than — per cent of the payroll for the twelve months preceding accident, then the state to provide the excess. In cases of insolvency, the state to compensate the individuals. A very small tax on all corporations and firms doing business in the state would meet the requirements. Most states now tax corporations annually.

H. T. N.

Rochester, N. Y.

FIRE ESCAPES AND ARCHITECTURE

TO THE EDITOR:

The Americans are called an inventive race, but there is no indication of it in the fire-escapes which are being placed every day on our buildings. New buildings or old, busi-

ness or residence—the pattern is the same for the tenement or the loft skyscraper, and has not been changed for forty years.

Long ago Ruskin showed us beautiful types in wrought iron gates and balconies, and what is a fire-escape but a balcony?

Rounded at the ends, the fence or guard could be made ornamental at slight expense. Why not have a circular staircase instead of the stiff steps that now make the ugly oblique lines across the window openings. The stair could be brought down in front of a column, and the present danger of flames from the lower windows would be done away with.

Such a winding stair, the escape from two adjoining buildings being combined, and coming down on the line of the party wall, would be far safer than the present plan. A steel wing on each side, without impeding the exit, could still further guard against the peril from windows shooting forth flame.

Why in the world the American Institute of Architects, or some similar body, does not take up the matter is hard to see. A dozen handsome designs, once standardized in patterns for the iron-worker, would cost no more, when made in quantity, than the present form.

It is strange indeed to see these cheap looking gratings being put up on some of the best buildings in Washington Place, Mercer, and Greene Streets, Manhattan, in exactly the style, if style it may be called, of Hester, Sheriff, or Mulberry Streets.

JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

New York.

MINORS BARRED FROM DANCE HALLS

TO THE EDITOR:

I note in your issue of April 20, the commendatory statement regarding the dance hall ordinance recently passed in Duluth, referring especially to the age limit barring those under twenty-one from frequenting the halls. I consider this a most illiberal provision and believe it will work all kinds of harm. This is similar to the provision of the Minnesota state law now being enforced in Minneapolis.

The people who like especially to dance and who will make every effort in the world to get dancing as recreation are those between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one, and if they are put out of legitimate dance halls—and there are such—they will go to far worse places.

The situation in Washington, D. C., has perhaps a little bearing on the subject, showing such a condition. In that city the absence of recreational opportunities has driven young people to develop a series of dreary and sordid so-called "cottage dances." These consist in renting some woman's little room or parlor, badly lighted, close and ill ventilated, and a group of boys and girls come together there for dancing. They bring their own liquor, dance usually to the tune of a mouth harmonica or some other such simple musical device, and are subject to no supervision whatever.

Experience shows that a law which places

the age of admission at twenty-one only creates evasions and eternal trouble for the management of good places, as well as having a decidedly bad effect upon sentiment for wholesome recreation throughout the country. Such a law is almost unenforceable.

The law in Cleveland places eighteen as the age of admission, and even that is too high. In Elizabeth and in New York city, the age is sixteen.

BELLE LINDER ISRAELS.

[The Committee on Amusement Resources of Working Girls (Inc.)]
New York.

JOTTINGS

STEEL PENSIONS

A report has been made of the first year of operation of the United States Steel and Carnegie Pension Fund. It will be remembered that when Mr. Carnegie sold out to the Steel Corporation his first act was to set aside a fund of \$4,000,000 for the purpose of providing pensions for the employes of the Carnegie Steel Company. In 1910, the United States Steel Corporation added \$8,000,000 to this fund and from the \$12,000,000 fund thus established pensions are granted to superannuated workmen in all of the plants of the United States Steel Corporation.

According to the report, the fund was definitely established January 1, 1911, with 1,152 beneficiaries. There were added during the year 565 new names, but 111 cases were discontinued, leaving 1,606 names upon the pension list on December 31, 1911. Of those added during 1911, the average age was 66.66 years; the average service was 40.3 years, and the average monthly pension \$20.75.

It may be interesting to note that the amounts received as pensions by employes of some of the different subsidiary companies in round numbers are as follows:

Retired employes of the American Bridge Company received \$10,000; American Sheet and Tin Plate Company, \$11,300; American Steel and Wire Company, \$86,500; Carnegie Steel Company, \$81,500; H. C. Frick Coke Company, \$37,600; Illinois Steel Company, \$11,200; National Tube Company, \$22,700; Tennessee Coal and Iron Company, \$700. The total amount distributed was \$281,457.37.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR IMMIGRANTS

In the report of the Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society Stanley Bero, the national organizer, presents an interesting summary in chart form of conditions affecting immigrants in the eighty-one cities visited by him during the past year. Mr. Bero shows that forty-seven of these cities afforded fair to good opportunities for immigrants, forty-nine were attracting Jewish artisans, and twenty-nine had well-developed Jewish communal activities. Fifty-nine had fraternal organizations of some kind, and in seventy-three of them, an important point, the dietary observances may be followed.

GETTING TOGETHER IN TEXAS

In spite of her great distances and rural civilization Texas has a second time demonstrated her ability to hold a successful conference of charities and correction. For three days recently meetings were held at Waco either separately or in conjunction with the Southwestern Conference on Tuberculosis and the Texas Anti-Tuberculosis Association. When the subject of state supervision of public and private charitable and correctional institutions was brought up George Fox discussed the relative advantages of the central board of control as opposed to the supervisory board and the elective or appointive board, as in New Jersey and Oklahoma. Thomas J. Riley of Washington University analyzed the two functions of management—the administrative function on the one hand and the supervisory function on the other—and was inclined to the belief that Texas was so large a state that a supervisory board with central administrative boards for the various classes of institutions would be the best arrangement for it to adopt. A resolution was adopted memorializing the legislature to create a supervisory board such as the Indiana State Board of Charities, to have supervision over both state and local public institutions. But it was deemed hardly advisable to undertake to extend for the present this supervision to private institutions.

Secretaries of united charity organizations gave it as their opinion that one half of the work done by them today comes as a result of family desertion. The state constitution will have to be amended before the fines that are assessed against deserters can be turned over to the victims rather than into the coffers of the state. The conference went on record as favoring the establishment of an industrial school for wayward girls and an institution for training the feeble-minded. There were interesting exhibits on child welfare, prevention of blindness, and criminal identification by means of the Bertillon system of measurements, while the state school for the blind showed an exhibit of products. The next meeting will be held at Fort Worth and a unanimous invitation was voted to the National Conference of Charities and Correction to hold its 1913 meeting in that city.

In a series of resolutions the conference favored pending amendments to the state constitution providing for an extension of the term of office of all members of board of control of educational, charitable, and correctional institutions to six years; an adequate law defining and punishing family desertion and non-support; a compulsory school attendance law; and an amendment to the Juvenile Court law allowing all counties to appoint paid probation officers.

SOCIAL BEARINGS OF HOME ECONOMICS

Both speakers and subjects well known in social work will interest the third annual meeting of the administrative section of the American Home Economics Association at Lake Placid Club, New York, June 22 to 26,

In the course of a varied program which will deal with everything from directions for kitchen employees to matters of public health, Martha Bensley Bruere will discuss the relation of household administration to public utilities; Edward E. Pratt, of the New York Food Investigation Association, will discuss facilities for marketing and the cost of living, and Frank B. Gilbreth, consulting engineer, will deal with the principles of scientific management applied to the household and institution. A special meeting will be held on school lunches during which the following topics will be taken up: general development and present status of the school feeding movement, elementary school lunches under school board direction, training of school dietitian, and school lunches and medical inspection.

OVER SIX MILLION FOR AN ORPHANAGE

A bequest of \$6,250,000 was recently left in the will of the late Baron Wandsworth for the foundation of an orphanage in England.

A "LABOR FORWARD MOVEMENT"

A unique adaptation of the Men and Religion Forward Movement is the Labor Forward Movement carried on in Minneapolis and St. Paul during two weeks of May. So effectively was the idea of the Men and Religion campaign carried out in a series of meetings in churches and halls that Duluth took up the plan and labor leaders of other cities began to take notice. The object was to spread a knowledge of the basis of trade unionism and of some of the things for which trade unions stand. No national program has been announced.

It is said that the Labor Forward Movement was first suggested by Tom Hamlin, editor of the *Labor Review* of Minneapolis. The Trade and Labor Assembly appointed a large committee representing all the unions in the city and invitations were sent to all the national organizations to send speakers. Before the campaign was over twenty of these had responded with some of their highest officers. One feature of the campaign was the close co-operation with the churches. In Minneapolis alone on one Sunday twenty-two pulpits were occupied at evening meetings by leaders of labor.

The aim was twofold, to make the unions numerically stronger and to increase the knowledge of the principles of unionism among citizens. That six unions have been formed in Minneapolis alone as a direct result of this effort is the statement of E. G. Hall, state president. The extent to which the second aim was achieved may be partially guessed from the following topics which were discussed before large audiences: the union shop vs. the non-union shop; what does labor want; child labor and female labor; organized labor, its struggles; the trade union of to-day; compulsory education and child labor; health, safety and sanitation in factories; compensation to workmen for injuries received in employment.



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THE COMMON WELFARE

CONFERENCE OF MAYORS

Two significant resolutions were adopted unanimously at the Third Annual Conference of Mayors and municipal officials of New York State held at Utica on June 10, 11, and 12. One placed the municipal officials on record as "decidedly opposed to the official recognition or segregation in any manner of houses of prostitution" and pledged the mayors to "do anything in their power to repress and aid in the suppression of prostitution." The other declared that "without seriously interfering with the present observance of Sunday, we favor Sunday concerts in the parks, out-of-door games and other reasonable facilities for healthful recreation." Although the most progressive, these planks were the only ones in the report of the Committee on Resolutions which the officials enthusiastically applauded as they were read.

After the presentation of expert opinion on leading municipal problems and animated discussions the following resolutions among others were adopted:

RESOLVED that this conference earnestly urge boards of supervisors, in counties in which no tuberculosis hospitals are provided for, to establish such hospitals at once; and further, that we urge cities and villages that have no dispensaries or visiting nurses to provide such preventive and relief agencies promptly.

RESOLVED that we endorse the movement for the wider use of the public school buildings during those hours when not used for educational purposes, for recreation, lectures, and public discussions with such requirements made necessary by local authorities as may legally be necessary.

RESOLVED that in our opinion proper municipal action for public health, public education and public morality will reduce poverty to a small fraction of its present extent.

RESOLVED that it is the sense of this conference that every city should have a committee on city planning.

RESOLVED that we urge the city authorities of all cities in which adequate hospital provision for the care of the sick and injured has not been made, to consider the establishment of a municipal general hospital.

RESOLVED that the cities of the first and second class are urged to consider taking affirmative action at an early date . . . for the establishment of hospital and industrial colonies for inebriates.

An important step towards increasing the efficiency of municipal government in the Empire State was the decision to establish a central bureau of municipal information. Previous to the annual gathering the Advisory Committee sought the opinions of the mayors in relation to the proposed plan. In its report to the conference the committee declared that some of the purposes of such a bureau might be:

1. To gather information and statistics relative to municipal problems and improvements and to distribute them among the officials of the cities of the state.

2. To keep all municipalities informed about bills introduced into the legislature and newly enacted laws affecting the cities.

3. To furnish to any city upon request all available information or statistics relative to any municipal activity indicated.

4. To keep municipal officials of the state in touch with each other by distributing among them any new plans devised by an official of any department.

5. In addition, the bureau should also keep officials informed as to the progress of all municipal innovations thus reported to them, so that they might know of their success or failure.

6. To distribute such reports and other literature relative to municipal government and activities as will aid municipal officials.

Replies received from forty of the forty-nine mayors of the state showed that practically all agreed that a central bureau would increase efficiency in municipal government. The recommendation that a committee be appointed to establish a bureau was adopted and plans were made to begin the work immediately. The conference also perfected plans to carry on during the year an active campaign through a legislative committee to secure the legislation endorsed or suggested in the set of resolutions. A special effort will be made to advance the cause of municipal home rule.

MASSACHUSETTS AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

The Massachusetts Convention on Industrial Education,¹ was more than the coming together of educators to talk about school teachers' problems—it was a meeting of citizens, large in hope for the future but conscious of our national educational failures, to discuss the relations of industrial needs, social problems, and educational possibilities.

Massachusetts itself afforded an excellent object lesson. Although the state has made comparatively generous provision for industrial education, fewer than 10,000 boys and girls are receiving vocational training. The total school registration is over half a million. Detailed figures follow:

Cities and towns in which some form of vocational education is maintained...	35
Pupils attending state aided vocational schools	5,994
Pupils attending vocational classes of Y. M. C. A.	1,088
Pupils attending other vocational institutions	2,598
Total.....	9,680

At the first session, a largely attended banquet at the city club, emphasis was put upon the fact that the old disassociation of the school and its teacher from real life is passing, and that just so far as it is passing is American education effective. The speakers urged that the responsibilities that are legitimately the parents' be not removed from them, but demanded that the state assume those responsibilities that parents do not, and, under the present industrial system, can not, effectually discharge. How school systems must be and in some cases have been organized and administered to provide equal opportunity for all was explained.

Frederick P. Fish, chairman of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, insisted that practical work in practical affairs can be brought into education without diminution of or injury to that

sort of education that runs along by the side of the vocational.

The Rochester central labor union endorsed the shop school there solely because of the moral appeal. The majority of the constituent unions were suspicious of the project, for they believed it an attempt upon the part of capital to obtain skilled mechanics, trained at public expense, for whom but boys' wages could be demanded. Notwithstanding this feeling, the plan was approved by a large majority, because the union men realized that boys of from fourteen to seventeen were entitled to training—industrial and disciplinary—which they were not receiving. And to the co-operation of the labor leaders, no small part of the success of the shop school was due. It was Prof. George M. Forbes, of the University of Rochester, who reported conditions there—the same George M. Forbes who, after the socializing of the city's schools, was ejected from the board by the politicians because he was too essentially a democrat!

Some of the details discussed in connection with the Rochester schools are of general significance. At fourteen, the boy objects to industrial gymnastics; he demands real work. Rochester boys showed more interest in making objects to be used in the public school, than they did in constructing things that they were allowed to take home for themselves. In other words, they are interested when actual industrial conditions apply—when dollars-and-cents methods are used. There is no appeal in work—probably intrinsically as interesting—which seems to be but play. The application of this principle to many sorts of social work is too obvious to be stated.

W. A. O'Leary told how the New Bedford Industrial School has grown in a few years from a very small beginning to an institution with 831 pupils, pupils who were in demand the moment they were graduated.

H. E. Miles, chairman of the Committee on Industrial Education of the National Society of Manufacturers, spoke with refreshing frankness. Society rejects 50 per cent of the children in the

¹The convention was held under the joint auspices of the Massachusetts state branch of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, the Massachusetts State Board of Education, and of the education committee of the Boston Chamber of Commerce.



VALUABLE! STAMFORD { LAND CHILDREN } GET 'EM TOGETHER.
Slogan of the Playground Protest Paraders.

public schools because it forces them to leave at the end of the sixth grade; then again, society rejects these boys and girls, because after a few years of enforced child labor they are not trained to take an adult's place in the industrial system and they are too old for the one they previously occupied. Old facts are these, but they are facts that cannot always be heard above the scream of the eagle.

CONNECTICUT'S FIRST WELFARE EXHIBITION

"Stamford's Welfare—Your Welfare" was the watchword of the welfare exhibit—the first in Connecticut—which was held in the building of the Young Men's Christian Association of that suburb of 34,000 people only a short time ago. Given under the auspices of the Civic Federation, it enjoyed the co-operation of the Board of Trade, the churches, the city departments and some dozen other local social agencies. The appeal all through the exhibit was to the individual and especially to those individuals least favored by fortune—among them a factory population, foreign and native, of about 8,000—who were shown how to make the most of their slender personal and material resources. To this end both in the exhibit itself and in the conferences that were held daily for the seven days of its duration special emphasis was laid upon the home and the family in the home. The exhibit of clothing was so practical that the committee who planned it arranged to sell paper patterns for one cent

apiece, and they did a thriving business among the 4,000 daily visitors. The exhibit on the care of babies also was so practical that one patron bought it with the milk station to be used as the starting point for a class for mothers in the Stamford Settlement House. It is to be hoped that a pure milk campaign may develop out of this beginning, for Connecticut has a bad milk record. The tuberculin test for cows is not required by law, with the result that tuberculous cows from neighboring states where the test is applied are actually driven over and their product sold in Connecticut.

In the matter of public health the individual can do little beyond clamoring for a better state of the law. Both health and housing exhibits were framed so as to arouse discontent with present sanitary conditions and to direct that discontent into definite channels of legislative effort. The charts of the Board of Trade showed the official expenditure for health as the smallest of all the town expenditures, comparing with the police department expenditure in the proportion of \$3,900 a year to \$29,240. Some of the suggestions for the use of this money—and more—for health were, briefly given: better organization of the health department, a hospital for contagious diseases, medical inspection of school children under the control of the health officer, better health laws and enforcement with regard to milk and water supply, garbage disposal, sewerage, the reporting of contagious diseases, including syphilis and gonorrhea and sanitary inspection.

Near the health charts were housing charts and photographs, which showed yards used as rubbish heaps—a domestic habit which the exhibit on home gardens aimed to correct; small houses with inadequate toilet and water supply; some cases of overcrowding—sixteen persons in two rooms for instance, a record calculated to make a visitor from New York feel at home; and one tenement of seventy-two rooms, twenty-four of them dark, inhabited by eighteen families. An investigation of quarters housing 10 per cent of the population of Stamford carried on under the direction of Carol Aronovici brought out the fact that rents were higher than in many other towns of the same size or larger, and that Stamford's other housing problems covered bad sanitation, bad laws and bad enforcement and were curable by sanitary inspection, publicity, the putting of two-family houses on the same basis under the law as the tenement, the appointing of a housing commission, and the rigid enforcement of the law.

Exhibits meeting other needs were those from churches, Sunday schools, public parks, public library, Young Men's Christian Association, and public schools. These exhibits showed that, whereas some of the public schools are equipped for domestic science and the training of both head and hand, Stamford has still a number of small ungraded rural schools which could and should be consolidated for the sake of efficiency. The town is imperfectly equipped with recreational opportunities, especially for young girls. It has no Young Women's Christian Association, with the result that there is too large a proportion of young girls running wild on the streets. Charts at the recreational exhibit appealed graphically to parents in regard to this need and suggested to them that, the wider use of the school plant—which is now unused, the Board of Trade estimates, 200 days in the year—would supply the needs of girls, and of adults, too, for recreation.

For the lack of these and other provisions for social life many children get into trouble. The child and the law exhibit showed a photograph of a session of the informal juvenile court at Stamford and advocated putting this court on

a permanent basis. Suggested legislation for the benefit of children and young people covered widow's pensions, a law requiring fathers of illegitimate children to support them, a heavier white slave penalty, the curfew to keep young people out of danger at night, and, for one group of children totally unprovided for in Stamford, the juvenile defective, special classes in the schools as well as institutional care where needed. The Stamford exhibit is estimated to have had between 20,000 and 30,000 visitors and the fame of it has spread to Greenwich, where a like exhibit is said to be already planned.

In answer to the question: "Is Stamford now, having beheld herself in a glass clearly, to return to her regular routine of life and straightway forget what manner of Stamford she is?" the following resolutions were passed:

Resolved, that the Health Department be reorganized so as to secure centralization of responsibility and authority.

Whereas, there have been no chemical or bacteriological tests of milk since June, 1911, and there being no tuberculin tests required by law; resolved, that the proper authorities be requested to see that the necessary examinations are made without further delay.

Resolved, that a permanent housing committee be appointed to be affiliated with the national association, whose duty it shall be to devise and carry out plans for the securing of proper housing legislation and efficient enforcement.

Whereas, the school children have in no uncertain terms presented their just appeal for playgrounds; resolved, that immediate steps be taken to supply this pressing need.

Resolved, that the system of vocational training be more fully developed in our public schools.

Resolved, that provision be made in our public school system for ungraded classes.

Already the playground proposal has been taken up by the common council, as has also the question of chemical and bacteriological examinations of milk.

LIABILITY FIGHT BEFORE MASSACHUSETTS LEGISLATURE

There has been a good deal of popular interest in an attempt made by organized labor in Massachusetts to secure the elimination from the workmen's compensation act, passed in that state last year, of an amendment introduced into the

Senate just before its passage, which provides that the liability insurance companies may insure the compensation provided for in the act. To understand the significance of this discussion and the principles involved, it is necessary to briefly describe the character of the compensation act itself as originally drafted.

The authors of the act came to a conclusion, after a study of various systems of compensation and insurance in operation in different countries, that the compensation act of England, which has served as a model for similar acts in a number of our states, was not altogether satisfactory in its operation. On the other hand, they felt that it would be impossible under the constitution of the state, if desirable from other points of view, to establish state insurance. Moreover, it was not thought to be altogether expedient to adopt the German scheme in its entirety. As a consequence of these considerations an act was finally framed which embodies some of the features of both the English and the German systems.¹

Under this act, which is known as Chapter 751 of the Acts of 1911, a scale of compensation is provided essentially the same as that contained in the English law, but in order to guard against the consequences of bankruptcy on the part of individual employers the act is so framed that this compensation can be provided only through insurance. As originally planned, the only way in which such insurance could be obtained was by the employers becoming subscribers in the Employers Insurance Association, a mutual organization provided by Part 2 of the act itself. By making this association the sole carrier of the liability under the compensation scheme several desirable results would be achieved in addition to making it perfectly certain that injured employees and their dependents would obtain the compensation which the law contemplates.

The most important of these considerations is the matter of the introduction of safety regulations and devices, which has been so conspicuous a feature of the work of the German mutual insurance

associations. It was felt that an association composed solely of employers in the state of Massachusetts would be more likely to deal with this matter effectively and satisfactorily than would any outside company or association. Furthermore, it was felt that much of the waste which now takes place under competitive liability insurance could be eliminated by giving a practical monopoly to this association.

Obviously this plan did not meet with the approval of the employers' liability companies who are now doing business in the state. Its logical effect would be, if the new plan were adopted generally by employers, to practically eliminate such insurance companies from that line of business in the commonwealth. Consequently, when the bill reached the Senate strong opposition was encountered from those who were interested in the insurance companies, and finally the following amendment was adopted in order to satisfy the demands of the protesting members and to secure the final passage of the bill:

Part V, Section 3. Any liability insurance company authorized to do business within this commonwealth shall have the same right as the association to insure the liability to pay the compensation provided for by this act, and a policy-holder of such liability company shall be regarded as a subscriber so far as applicable within the meaning of this act, and when any such company insures such payment of compensation it shall be subject to all the regulations and obligations imposed upon the association.

STOCK COMPANIES TO STAY IN THE FIELD

This amendment was not satisfactory to the authors of the bill nor to organized labor in the state, which has been struggling for the last eight years to secure the adoption of a satisfactory compensation act. At a meeting of the state branch of the American Federation of Labor last summer a resolution was adopted which committed organized labor to the plan of securing the elimination of this amendment from the act. Pursuant to this resolution an amendment was offered at the opening of the legislature of 1912, as follows:

¹See THE SURVEY, May 4, 1912, page 233.

House Bill No. 378.

An act to prohibit liability insurance companies from becoming subscribers to the Massachusetts Employees Insurance Association.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in general court assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

Chapter seven hundred and fifty-one of the acts of nineteen hundred and eleven is hereby amended by striking out the whole of section three of part five of said act.

It is around this amendment that the chief interest has centered in the present session of the legislature. There are many rumors in regard to the large amounts expended by the liability companies in lobbying against its adoption. No definite figures can be given in regard to this matter, but it is generally recognized that large sums were expended. It is well known that practically all the employers of the state have been circularized and approached in various ways by representatives of the combined insurance interests to secure their co-operation in defeating the amendment. Large numbers of employers from various parts of the state came before the Committee on Joint Judiciary at its public hearings, and numerous arguments were advanced for the retention of the right which the act, as passed last year, conferred upon insurance companies, both stock and mutual. The measure was finally reported adversely to the house, and this adverse report was sustained when the matter came to vote. The consequence is that the measure, so far as this particular feature of it is concerned, will go into effect on July 1 next in the same form in which it passed the legislature in 1911.

There is wide difference of opinion among those interested in the matter as to the probable effect of this feature of the law. It is obvious that it puts the Massachusetts Employees Insurance Association into the field merely as one of the competitors for business under the provisions of the act. Consequently it will impose upon it, as upon other insurance organizations, the expenses of solicitation of the business. It will also make it more or less difficult for this new and untried organization to secure a footing in the field. On the other hand, it is probably true that the inclusion of

the stock companies, of which there are sixteen doing business in the state, will tend to extend the sphere of operation of the law by enlisting their missionary efforts both in writing compensation insurance to take the place of old-line employers' liability policies, and in promoting standards of safety. The law is voluntary in form and might not be generally accepted by employers if it encountered the hostile opposition of the insurance interests. Bearing this limitation in mind it is felt that if the experience of New Hampshire, where the insurance companies have counselled employers not to go under a voluntary compensation act, is not repeated in Massachusetts, the objections to the participation of the stock companies in the business of writing insurance under the law may at the outset at least be more than offset by the advantages to be obtained through their inclusion in the act.

STEERAGE SOCIAL WORK

ROSAMOND KIMBALL

It was night and silent except for the great throbs of the ship as we ploughed through the sea. Suddenly from the deck below, there arose a chorus of boys' voices. The talking and laughter ceased and the passengers of the first cabin listened; some walked quietly to the end of the deck and looked down. Twelve or more lads were seated on the railing. They were just ordinary East Side boys, at least so they had seemed to those who had watched them in the daytime—Italians, Jews, and Slovaks on their way to the old country for a visit perhaps. What were they singing? Rag-time? No, they were singing Nearer My God to Thee and Lead Kindly Light. I suppose East Side boys are less in the habit of gathering to sing hymns than to shoot craps on a street corner. Why did they sing that night on the sea? There are times when a sense of our own utter helplessness amid the forces of nature takes hold upon us, when we become as little children. As the boys sang, the question flashed to mind—is not the fortnight at sea an unmatched opportunity for

reaching the immigrant when he stirs to the best that America can give him?

The Dillingham bill now before Congress contains a matter-of-fact provision for placing inspectors and matrons in the steerage whose duty it shall be to oversee and enforce the laws relating to "the care and treatment of immigrant passengers at sea," and to report "any information of value in determining the admissibility" of an alien. Whether or not all the other provisions of the Dillingham bill are wise, here is one that is filled with possibilities which the mere reading of the clause only hints at.

Those who have read the report of the Federal Commission of Immigration presented to Congress in 1909 need not be told that there are two kinds of steerage accommodations—the old steerage and the new steerage, called third cabin. The old steerage, harmful and degrading, is still found on the majority of steamers. In this old steerage "hundreds of thousands of immigrants form their first conceptions of our country and are prepared to receive their first impressions of it." The report continues: "It is a congestion so intense, so injurious to health and morals, that there is nothing on land to equal it. The experience of a single crossing is enough to change bad standards of living to worse." But the need is not only for government officials to see to it that no violations of the law occur, but for officials who, as trained social workers, shall enter into friendly relations with the immigrant and start him on the way toward his new citizenship. With the proper equipment, a social worker could do more for the immigrant in a few days aboard ship than in a month on land. Here are several hundred foreigners with absolutely nothing to do for from five to fourteen days, such a respite from work and care as may never come to them again. America lies ahead like the Promised Land. Their cup of joyous expectation is full, and they do not guess that bitter dregs may lie at the bottom. They are as eager as a child to learn of this country toward which they are journeying, and the American ideals that are set forth at such a time will remain to fortify them

against other impressions which will come later on.

This is not mere speculation. Not long ago, a few people who were interested in such a plan of steerage social work made it possible to put its practicability to the test. A student at Yale University was found who was eager to try the experiment. He was a Pole by birth and had come to America as a boy, so he understood the people among whom he was going to work. He made one trip in the steerage, and kept a daily record of his work. The majority of foreigners on board came from southeastern Europe, from which we get the most illiterate class of immigrants, and in other ways also the test was made under the most adverse conditions. The young man began by holding classes in English on deck. Soon these foreigners began to ask questions, first of all about work in America, then about the places to which they were going. I quote from his report:

The map was in constant use, all being eager to know about the location of their future homes. It appears that geography is a very fascinating subject to these people and is eagerly sought after. The field for teaching is quite large. The main value of this teaching is that many become eager to study and will attend night schools later, also they become aware of greater opportunities in America. The Y. M. C. A. could have gained many members for its ranks by a distribution of pamphlets in our steerage.

In regard to the class work in English the report reads:

Not wishing to go without food or fight for it I organized an eating club with another American. The club consisted of the better elements of the steerage, mostly Germans and Austrians. This became my first class in English. On the evening of September 16 we held our first exercise. Twenty-two were present, of whom four were women.

SEPTEMBER 17: I managed to get a class of Poles together and held two exercises with them, teaching them the most common colloquial phrases. About twenty were present each time. Beside class work I gave personal instruction to those who were eager to learn and had previously studied some English.

SEPTEMBER 18: Owing to great prevalence of sea-sickness, no classes could be held. To a number of those who were most eager to learn I gave personal assistance. The number reached in this way was about fifteen. The more ignorant ones do not care to learn Eng-

lish. They have heard from their friends who have preceded them that English is not necessary for working in the mines and mills where they hope to be employed. It is surprising how little some of them are benefited by their stay in America. There are some who have been in Pennsylvania for several years and the only sign of Americanization about them is a frequent oath in English.

SEPTEMBER 19: Sunday; no classes. No services of any kind are held on board but many could be seen on deck with their prayer-books and chanting hymns. I spent a good deal of the day in conversation with the people, winning their confidence. That afternoon a concert was given in the dining-room and no more appreciative audience could be wished for. The same afternoon I had a case of gambling to attend to. One of the players, a lad of about eighteen, lost all the money he had, about eleven dollars. I took his part and managed to have some five dollars restored to him. Card playing is a very favorite pastime on board, due to lack of reading matter and any form of amusement.

The worker found himself greatly handicapped by the conditions existing in the steerage. He found, for example, that the stewards were stealing food from the steamship's supply in order to sell it to the immigrants at exorbitant rates.

SEPTEMBER 21: Seeing some people who had made purchases of the deck hands I called them to the captain. Chests appearing to be passengers' trunks were hunted up. No one owned them. Upon opening them forcibly, supplies of liquors, bacon, sausages, bread, apples, etc., were found. The stewards were called together and made to face their customers. They were to restore all the money they had received for anything, but, owing to the large extent of this traffic, it was found to be impossible. Miserable sour apples were sold for ten cents each. Condensed milk, which was meant for the coffee, was being sold. Stale coffee-cakes of which two fresh ones could be had in America for five cents were sold there at five cents each. The articles sold,—bacon, sausages, chicken, fish, herrings, bread, etc., together with the prices paid for them, is a most conclusive proof of the quality of the food in the steerage.

SEPTEMBER 22: This evening I forwarded to the first mate two complaints of abuse by a drunken deck hand, namely, rough handling of a man without any provocation, and ducking a woman with a baby in the wash room with a hose. These people are at the mercy of the deck hands and are treated as dumb beasts.

In summing up the work, our college immigrant said:

Besides daily class work in English, some of the other things that I have done are: tak-

ing the sick to the doctor, changing money, addressing letters, explaining about conditions in America, giving advice, pointing out on the map destinations, and estimating fares; in general, acting as their advisor and protector.

So much for a concrete example of what can be done, a beginning, a vision of work which grows large as one contemplates it. Talks on civics, which would give foreigners an idea of the fundamental principles of our government, and what citizenship in the United States means, would be as valuable as talks on geography and American history. This would be a continuation of the work which the Young Men's Christian Association is now doing among immigrants at the European ports before they embark. There should also be a small library of books and pamphlets for those who are able to read. With the exception of one or two concerts during the voyage, there is no kind of entertainment. When five or six hundred people are herded together with nothing to do, the most undesirable sides of human nature come to the fore. Yet concerts could be readily arranged by steerage social workers in which the foreigners themselves might take part, singing their national songs; there might also be folk dancing for the children. All this would help to abolish the gambling and other disorderly forms of amusement. Here the work would touch the darkest side of the steerage world. It is unspeakably dreadful that every foreigner on his journey to America lives in a demoralizing atmosphere that is infinitely more injurious than any physical discomforts that he must endure. An extract from the report of one of the investigators for the Commission of Immigration gives vividly conditions of which she was an eye-witness on one boat:

The atmosphere was one of general lawlessness and total disrespect for women. There was none to whom they might appeal. It naturally demoralized the women themselves after a time. . . . Not one young woman in the steerage escaped attack. Some few of them did not find these attentions so disagreeable; some resisted them for a time, then weakened; some fought with all their physical strength which was naturally powerless against a man's. Others were continually fleeing to escape. Two more refined and very determined Polish girls fought the men

with pins and teeth, but even they weakened under this continued warfare and needed some moral support about the ninth day. The chief steward by his own familiarity with the women made himself impossible as their protector.

As social workers, the government officials could not only protect the women en route against any such extreme manifestations of danger but should thoroughly acquaint them with the dangers to which they are exposed when they reach this country. A large percentage of the victims of the white slave traffic are immigrants whose ignorance alone is the cause of their fall. No woman should leave the steerage without a full knowledge of the pitfalls that she must avoid. The time has arrived when the steerage must be included within the sphere of social service, when there should be social workers on every one of the ships that brings its hundreds of pilgrims to our shores. From the steerage world they will scatter to all parts of the United States, and the thoughts they carry with them will bear fruit some time, some where. Let us see to it that the journey in the steerage forms the right sort of introduction to the new life in America.

COMMUNICATIONS

BRINGING PRODUCER TO CONSUMER TO THE EDITOR:

The high cost of living seems to be the popular problem. Innumerable theories assign certain specific causes for this economic condition and some state that it is due to a combination of causes. Others have offered specific remedies, while still others claim that the remedy lies in the total subversion of our economic and political system. Among these causes suggested one finds the most prominent to be the following: the combination of middlemen for the purpose of raising prices; the tariff; the increased production of gold; the system of deliveries and the package preparation of commodities; land monopoly; trusts, etc. The most prominent remedies offered are the following: political action looking toward the regulation of the price of commodities; governmental establishment and operation of small shops, the city market plan and co-operation.

If we are agreed that some kind of action must be precipitated in order to alleviate the present suffering we will naturally discard all the above ascribed causes and all of the rem-

edies suggested save that of the combination of middlemen. Mayor Shank of Indianapolis has demonstrated that prices can be appreciably lowered and by a simple method. However, I believe that this system of city markets is only possible of success in the smaller municipalities and since the greatest suffering is borne in the larger cities we must give these communities first consideration. The trend of the times is away from this method of distribution, *i. e.*, of the customer going to the seller. The extension of the rural postal system, the proposed parcels post, mail merchandizing, home deliveries, etc., are some of the signs of the times. Now, all of these systems are based not upon the desire for convenience and high living but rather upon the principle of economic efficiency. In other words, it is a greater expenditure of energy and time for all the community to secure their mail at the postoffice, and often it is a futile trip since there is no mail there, than it is for one person to go to all the homes and only to those that have mail to be delivered. Beyond those general causes for the high cost of living which cannot be settled save possibly through political action, the question of reducing the price of commodities seems indeed to be a simple matter.

A complete and simple business transaction requires but three factors, the producer, the distributor, and the purchaser or consumer. Any other factors are interjected supernumeraries. A transaction by bargain requires but two, the producer and the consumer. We are dealing, however, with conditions existing in and essential to large communities. The problem before us is to eliminate the supernumeraries—the jobber, the middleman, and the small shop-keeper—and by thus doing eliminate the extra costs incident to the increased number of transportations.

The system I propose is this: Bring the producer to the consumer by the shortest route and with the least expenditure of time and energy. Have the municipality establish a commodity commission which shall appoint purchasing agents, distributors, and receiving depots at the railroad yards and steamship wharfs. Here also could the farmer of the adjacent territory come. Let them secure well-constructed automobile trucks and deliver the essential commodities such as butter, eggs, vegetables, meats, milk, cereals, etc., directly to the kitchen daily and take daily orders. It is to be a cash business and consequently, being a daily transaction, it becomes a simple proposition to manage. Such a system would with one stroke settle the pure food problem, supply pure milk, etc., since it would be supervised by the municipality.

The purchasing agents can buy in any part of the country, and, for that matter, any part of the world and will never be confronted with the principle of supply and demand since it is a daily transaction. Most of the goods would undoubtedly be transferred from the cars directly into the automobile trucks. Extra trucks would accommodate the irregularities

of the business and handle the perishable goods. Telephone exchanges would facilitate and expedite the needs of the consumers.

With a system of this kind, which is simplified to the absolute essentials of physical and mechanical requirements necessary for a complete business transaction, we have eliminated all wasteful expenditures. Yet the objection will be raised of municipal inefficiency, the discrimination against the commission merchant, the shop-keeper, and what not.

E. B. COCHEMS.

New York.

DEPARTMENT STORE FIRE RISKS

TO THE EDITOR:

There is a world-wide saying—"We profit by experience." Is this true?

A recent issue of *THE SURVEY*¹ spoke of the poor means of escape in department stores, in case of fire, due to narrow aisles, ignorance of location of exits and the like. It seems as though we must have an "example" set for us, or a "lesson" taught us, before we act.

What I mean, is sorrowfully and excellently exemplified by the following experience. It was not until after the horrible fire in the Iroquois Theater in Chicago, which was accompanied by a great loss of life, that we commenced a thorough and rigid fire inspection of theaters.

Again, only after the shocking fire which took place in the Asch shirt-waist factory in New York did we propose a rigid fire inspection of factories, including a factory fire drill by all employees at certain stated intervals.

And just now, after the heart-breaking Titanic catastrophe, are we making a thorough inspection of all vessels, seeing to a sufficient number of life-boats, rafts, and practice drill in lowering the same.

God forbid, that we be given an example by the department store's narrow aisles, etc., in case of fire or panic. "Let us profit by experience."

JOSEPH ABELSON.

[College of City of New York.]

THE TREND OF THINGS

The Woman Suffrage Party of Greater New York is unique in the possession of a platform specifically dealing with matters of social concern. Among the planks adopted at its last city convention are these:

"Food, clothing, and shelter are the fundamental needs of the people, and they are and always have been the primary concern of women in the home. We therefore denounce a political system which robs the home of adequate representation, making business and finance the chief interests of politics.

"We protest against the iniquity of a political system which refuses to grant to the six million working women engaged in industries outside the states of Wyoming, Colorado,

¹See *THE SURVEY*, April 13, p. 84.



T. Banks in *The Woman Voter*.

IS MODERN INDUSTRY OR THE SUFFRAGIST THE REAL DESTROYER OF THE HOME?

Utah, Idaho, Washington, and California a share in the making and enforcing of the laws which control every matter which is vital to their health and well-being.

"We renew our condemnation of the suicidal policy of permitting child labor, and give our support to all humanitarian legislation looking toward the amelioration of race-destroying tendencies.

"In the face of the revelation of the white slave traffic and the demonstrated connection between poverty and prostitution we declare that the time has come for a complete program of social legislation including a minimum wage, shorter hours, steady employment, better housing and extensive public recreation.

"We repeat our plea for the appointment of women as judges and magistrates in the courts in order that the interests of women and children may be better safeguarded."

This same body of suffragists are also promoting a number of settlement houses whose aims are not only to do propaganda work along suffrage lines, but to arouse within the families settled in each of these districts a civic interest in the locality in which they live; to co-ordinate the local activities of already organized forces operating for woman suffrage and civic betterment; to make a careful investigation into the manner in which the money of tax-payers is expended in their

district; to familiarize themselves with the public schools in their district and any public institutions under the care of municipal authorities, and to organize civic classes for training citizens and for the study of local municipal conditions.

Still another of the party's activities, *The Woman Voter*, a monthly periodical, has taken up the cause of women workers in an uncompromising and spirited manner. The cartoon shown on the opposite page illustrates the sort of talent which the journal can draw upon for the asking, and hints at one phase of the suffrage movement which manifested itself even more strikingly in the recent parade in New York; namely, the fraternity of all sorts and conditions of women in this common cause. An atrocious yellow streamer can seemingly tie the two ends of the social scale together more quickly than a long sermon on humanism. Indeed, the difficulty of finding words without masculine origin—fraternity and brotherhood—to describe the more democratic aspects of the movement is perhaps a gauge of what it may mean (whatever its legislative outcome) to bring into touch with each other women who hitherto have felt nothing in common.

This, unquestionably, is one explanation of why it enlists many recruits from among those identified with other social movements. To put the matter in a way which—who knows?—may be a commonplace, say in 1920, an apostle of the short ballot is husband of the retiring editor of *The Woman Voter*; while the husband of her successor is a former head worker of Goodrich House.

* * *

The eight specified subjects for choice for the Hart, Schaffner and Marx economic prize essay for the ninth year are as follows:

1. Is a money trust possible?
2. How far is competition actually crippled today in American industries?
3. A study of various forms of combination.
4. Recent developments of the German Kartel.
5. A study of the industrial effects of the dissolution of the tobacco trust.
6. Methods of forcing employers to accept the demands of labor unions.
7. How far is the theory of trust regulation applicable to labor unions?
8. A study of the code of ethics peculiar to labor unions.

In addition to these eight, contestants can choose from a list of forty-seven available subjects each allowing wide scope. Four prizes are offered: two of \$300 and \$200 respectively are limited to undergraduates in American colleges; the other two, of \$1,000 and \$500, are open to all Americans. Essays must be sent by June 1, 1913, to J. Lawrence Laughlin, chairman of the prize committee at the University of Chicago.

* * *

Connecticut was one of the first states to require that all children who leave school under sixteen years of age to work in factories and stores should have a knowledge of arithmetic through fractions. The Consumers' League of Connecticut has published a little leaflet setting forth what the fraction test has accomplished for the child laborers of the state. Copies can be obtained from Mary C. Welles, general secretary, Newington.

JOTTINGS

CAPITALIZING OPPOSITION

Representative Campbell of Kansas has adopted an ingenious way of advocating before his colleagues H. R. 16844, which would require manufacturers to print, emboss or stencil their own names upon manufactured articles—a bill which he holds is in principle like the Pure Food Law and will discourage the manufacture of sweat-shop and prison-made goods. When this bill came up recently Mr. Campbell quoted extracts from trade and manufacturers' journals which have attacked the bill. Here are three of the extracts. "Congressman Campbell's bill, if adopted into law, would cause serious trouble to the jobber, and to the middleman, especially. It would tend to eliminate the jobber, as nothing would prevent the manufacturers selling their wares direct to the retailers or the consumers."

"The Campbell bill is inimical to the best interests of the great majority of the manufacturers, wholesalers, and jobbers. . . . Meanwhile, the opposition to the bill is only beginning."

"I have been told that if I pushed this bill," said Mr. Campbell, "the interests opposing it will defeat me in my district. My reply is, I am pushing the bill."

Although the bill is so general in its terms that it would apply to every kind of manufactured product, its author states its aim to be the preventing of wearing apparel, food products, tobacco, and cigars from being made under the insanitary and diseased conditions of the sweat-shop.

ITALY ENFRANCHISES ILLITERATES

The chamber of deputies at Rome, Italy, has passed a bill extending the franchise to illiterates over thirty years of age. This increases the number of voters by 5,000,000.

NEW AMERICANS IN TACOMA

When the newly naturalized citizens of Tacoma, Wash., recently gathered at a banquet in their honor, they listened to a letter from Judge C. M. Easterday which declared his own conviction that the greater mass of newly made Americans are thoroughly conversant with our form of government. Judge Easterday went on: "In order that persons be good citizens they must be good neighbors; they must have both head and heart; they must have the courage to stand for what they know to be right, uncaring consequences. Our foreign-born citizens are distinguishing themselves in this country in every walk of life; they are even to a greater degree than our native-born citizens home builders."

It is said that statistics for 1911 show that Tacoma leads Spokane and Seattle by 100 per cent in the number of persons taking out second naturalization papers.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

JULY CONFERENCES.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION. North Conway, N. H., July 2-5. Sec'y., Wendell A. Mowry.

CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION, Young Women's, Northwest General. Gearhart Park, Ore., June 25-July 3.
Western General. Cascade, Colo., June 21-July 1.
Eastern Student. Silver Bay, Lake George, N. Y., June 21-July 1.
East Central Student. Eagles Mere, Pa., June 25-July 5.
Eastern City. Silver Bay, Lake George, N. Y., July 2-12.

EUGENICS, First International Congress on. London, Eng., July 24-30. Information may be secured from Hon.-Sec'y., Eugenics Education Society, 6, York Bldgs., Adelphi, London.

MUNICIPAL LEAGUE, Annual Meeting of the National. Los Angeles, Cal., July 8-12. Sec'y., Clinton Rogers Woodruff, 121 So. Broad St., Philadelphia, Pa.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION. Chicago, Ill., July 6-12. Sec'y., Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

WOMEN'S CLUBS, General Federation of. San Francisco, Cal., June 25-July 8. Corres. Sec'y., Mrs. Frank Shiek, Wheatland, Wyo.

LATER MEETINGS.

INTERNATIONAL.

BATHS AND SCHOOL BATHS, International Conference on People's. Scheveningen, (The Hague), last week in August. Gen. Sec'y., A. M. Douwes Dekker, The Hague.

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATIONS, Fifth International Congress of the. Boston, Mass., Sept. 24-28.

CHEMISTRY, Congress on Applied. Washington, D. C., Sept. 6-13. Sec'y., Bernard C. Hesse, M.D., 25 Broad St., New York.

FARM WOMEN, First International Congress of. Lethbridge, Alberta, Oct. 21-25. Sec'y.-Treas., Eleanor L. Burns, Lethbridge, Alberta.

HYGIENE AND DEMOGRAPHY, Fifteenth Congress on. Washington, D. C. Sept. 23-28. Sec'y., Dr. John S. Fulton, Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C.

LABOR LEGISLATION, Association for. Zurich, Switzerland, Sept. 10-12. Sec'y., Stephen Bauer, Basel, Switzerland.

MORAL EDUCATION CONGRESS, Second International. The Hague, Aug. 22-27. Cor.-Sec'y., Professor H. A. Overstreet.

PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial. London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y., F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

RELIEF, Committee on Public and Private. London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y., Charles S. Loch, Charity Organization Society, London, Eng.

SCHOOL HYGIENE CONGRESS, Fourth International. Buffalo, N. Y., August 25-30, 1913. Gen. Sec'y., Dr. Thomas A. Storey, Convent Ave. and 139 St., New York.

UNEMPLOYMENT, International Association for Fight Against. Ghent, Belgium, 1913. Amer. Corres. Officer, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

NATIONAL.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION, Sixth Annual Meeting of. Boston, December,

1912. Sec'y., John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York City.

AMERICAN HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION. Detroit, Michigan, Sept. 24-5. Sec'y., John N. E. Brown, 90 Charles St., Toronto, Canada.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY. Milwaukee, Wis., Aug. 29-31. Sec'y., Eugene A. Gilmore, Law School, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

ASSOCIATED FRATERNITIES OF AMERICA. St. Paul, Minn., Aug. 19. Sec'y.-Treas., E. W. Donovan, 1401 Majestic Bldg., Detroit, Mich.

ASSOCIATION OF COSMOPOLITAN CLUBS. University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, December, 1912. Sec'y., Louis P. Lochner, 612 S. Brearly St., Madison, Wis.

CHARITIES, National Conference of Catholic. Washington, D. C., Sept. 22-26. Sec'y., Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

DENTAL ASSOCIATION, 16th Annual Session of the Oral Hygiene Committee of the National. Washington, D. C., Sept. 10-13. Chairman, W. G. Ebersole, National Dental Association, Cleveland, O.

INFANT MORTALITY, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Cleveland, O., Oct. 2-5. Exec.-Sec'y., Gertrude B. Knipp, Medical and Chirurgical Faculty Bldg., 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENTS, American Society of. Dallas, Texas, Nov. 12-16. Sec'y., A. Prescott Folwell, 50 Union Square, New York.

NATIONAL CONSERVATION CONGRESS. Indianapolis, Ind., Oct. 1-2. Sec'y., Thomas R. Shipp, Indianapolis, Ind.

NATIONAL FRATERNAL CONGRESS, Mackinac Island, Michigan. Aug. 28. Sec'y., C. A. Gower, Lansing, Michigan.

STATE AND LOCAL.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITION, First Canadian. Montreal, Oct. 8-22. Sec'y., Dr. W. H. Ather-ton, Montreal, Canada.

NO-LICENSE LEAGUE, Massachusetts. Boston, Oct. 29. Sec'y., Robert H. Magwood, 310 Equitable Bldg., Boston.

NORTHERN BAPTIST CONVENTION. Detroit, Mich., May, 1913. Cor.-Sec'y., Rev. W. C. Bitting, St. Louis, Mo.

PELLAGRA, National Association for the Study of. Columbia, S. C., Oct. 3-4. Information may be secured from Dr. J. W. Babcock, Columbia, S. C.

PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION, American. Washington, D. C., September 18-20. Sec'y., Selskar M. Gunn, 289 Fourth Ave., New York.

RED CROSS, The American. Washington, D. C., December. Sec'y., Charles L. Magee, Washington, D. C.

STONY BROOK ASSEMBLY, Stony Brook, L. I. Sunday School Conference, August 4-10. Bible Conference, August 11-25. Sec'y., Rev. J. F. Carson, 258 Jefferson Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.

THE UNION OF CANADIAN MUNICIPALITIES. Windsor, Canada, Aug. 27-29. Secy.-Treas., W. D. Lighthall, K. C., 305 Quebec Bank Bldg., Montreal, Canada.

June 29, 1912.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

HOW SHALL POVERTY BE ABOLISHED?

Conservative people are generally willing to admit that preventable disease, overwork, congestion of population, alcoholism, feeble-mindedness and glaring defects of the educational and of the penal systems are worthy of more serious and persistent attention than they are as yet receiving. They are willing to join some one or two of the specific campaigns, and to take a mildly sympathetic interest in others. Evidently, however, they do not expect any fundamental result from their efforts within a period which has direct interest for the present generation. Their faith is small and their vision is limited.

Radical people are often willing to join, a little grudgingly, in such remedial measures, protesting that they are merely "palliatives"; stop gaps, as it were, until the panacea comes. Their vision also is limited, albeit to a distant or at least to a revolutionary conception, in which the actual release of living, human beings from the particular handicaps and hardships from which they really suffer has little place. Their faith also is small in the efficacy of the measures at which they work with others merely because they must do something until the panacea comes.

Now it is no part of the function or of the desire of *THE SURVEY* to change conservative people into radicals, or radical people into conservatives. Our whole desire is to increase the faith of both radicals and conservatives in the measures to which theoretically and in practice both are committed, and to clarify their vision of that better kingdom, or as we may well prefer to say, of that better democracy which is at hand, and of which both radicals and conservatives, if they are socially minded, are potentially natural-born citizens.

How then shall we increase the faith and clarify the vision of the people as to the seven curses which we have named, to the removal of which and of others like them we have especially consecrated this journal? Surely it is by insisting upon the unity of all social endeavors, and upon their ultimate goal in the abolition of poverty. By infectious disease, insanitary homes, industrial crippling and injuries to health, child labor and physiologically injurious work of women, we are creating year by year a large class of subnormal people; and these helpless, subnormal people we are exploiting for the profits of manufacturers, mine owners, and merchants, instead of protecting them for their own safety and for the welfare of the race. The means of abolishing all that poverty which is due to the presence of handicapped and subnormal people is to stop creating the handicaps and to stop increasing the number of the subnormal. By employing little children for wages when they should be in the fields and woods laying the foundation for sound health and a normal life; by working women at night, near the time of childbirth, and at the monthly period, or at any time under physically exhausting and destructive conditions; by our inadequate housing laws and regulations; by our failure to control infectious disease and to prevent industrial injuries, we are perpetuating poverty.

Of course it is the weaker ones who actually succumb and apply to the dispensaries and charitable societies for aid. These weaker ones are apt to exhibit deplorable personal qualities such as intemperance, shiftlessness, and general irresponsibility. In trying to help these weaker ones we are very apt to be unduly impressed by their personal defects and to ignore the fact that the social and industrial forces which have borne them to the wall have also operated to injure grievously a larger number who, to be sure, do not ask for aid, but who are victims none the less of conditions for which society is responsible, with incalculably evil results to themselves and their children.

Alcoholism, like tuberculosis and insanity, is a disease. Whether its victims are more responsible individually for their affliction than the insane or consumptives may be a question. Probably they are, in that the exciting cause of their undoing, strong drink, does not often assert its mastery until after many warnings have been disregarded. If the tubercle bacilli, which cause the medical fraternity and mankind in general such anxiety, could be obtained only in solution over a bar, or at a club or restaurant, it would seem as if the disease of which they are the exciting cause could be more easily stamped out. This however is doubtful. If money could be made by the manufacture and sale of the liquid poison, through advertising and the clever exploitation of appetites and social instincts, it may well be, that sanitarians would have an even harder time than now when the perpetuation of that particular disease is at least free from direct commercial gain.

The anti-saloon crusade is amply justified. We need, however, a wider and more fundamental movement, one in which temperance fanatics—radicals—and the brewers' associations—conservatives—might conceivably unite, a movement, however, which neither radicals nor conservatives as such shall dominate, but which shall be under the direction of public-spirited physicians, business men, penologists, statesmen and especially stateswomen who are willing to survey patiently and thoroughly the ravages of inebriety, to consider it as a disease, as a weakness, as a vice, as a crime, and even, if they can bring themselves to do so, as the desirable emotional outlet which Professor Münsterberg prefers to religious revivals or other forms of emotional excitement. On the basis of such a survey, appropriate preventive and remedial measures could be devised. Surely we have not yet exhausted the effective means of dealing with this omnipresent cause of poverty.

The means to the abolition of poverty are clear. Protect women and children; forbid excessive speeding and overwork; stamp out mental degeneracy by segregating and humanely caring for the feeble-minded; put an end to overcrowding and insanitary housing; organize a strong and effective campaign against inebriety; give the public health service a dollar a year for every man, woman and child and then hold it responsible for controlling infection and for the successful education of the public in health matters; stop creating sub-normal and handicapped candidates for industrial exploitation. The means are many but they are related. The program is diversified but one. The national legend applies *e pluribus unum*. From many campaigns against specific causes of poverty one victory—the early and complete abolition of poverty.

THE COMMON WELFARE

JULY PLANS FOR NEXT CHRISTMAS

Santa Claus is having his picture printed seventy-five million times. It's a good many, but the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis and the American Red Cross expect to need that number of Red Cross seals bearing Santa Claus' picture for the next Christmas sales. The design used for the seal is new—some people think it the best that the Red Cross has had—and it will be reproduced in three colors, red, green and gray. Its greater attractiveness will help the sale; besides, the campaign will be spread out into much new territory. In addition to selling agencies in practically every state in continental United States the campaign will be carried on in Porto Rico, the canal zone, and the Philippine Islands.

From 13,500,000 stamps sold in 1908, the number increased to 32,000,000 last year. New York was the banner state in 1911, disposing of nearly six and a half million; Ohio was second with three and a half million; Wisconsin third with nearly three million and Illinois fourth with a little over two million.

Speaking recently of the disposition of the funds raised by the seal sales, Philip P. Jacobs, assistant secretary of the National Tuberculosis Association, said:

The fundamental principles upon which the seals are sold are three; first, that all money derived from the sale after expenses have been deducted shall be devoted to anti-tuberculosis work; and, second, that this money shall be spent in the community in which the seals are sold. The American Red Cross, therefore, acts simply as a central supply and distribution agency. The state and local agents dealing with the Red Cross are charged a percentage of their gross receipts, which will this year be 10 per

cent. This percentage pays for the cost of printing and distributing the seals and for the work of organizing the campaign. Thus, from 50 to 90 per cent, according to local expenses, of the money received from the sale is spent in the locality where the seals are sold.

The selling campaign has enlisted remarkable co-operation in the past and this year it is expected that no less than 100,000 volunteer agents, including storekeepers, druggists, managers of motion picture theaters, and others will help.

A FLARE-UP AMONG PITTS- BURGH STEEL WORKERS

"A spontaneous outburst" is the term a citizen of Pittsburgh applied to a strike of 2,000 employes of the National Tube Company, which started Monday, June 17. The men were employed in what is known as the Pennsylvania department, a Pittsburgh plant of this constituent company of the United States Steel Corporation.

The first men to go out were about fifty of the employes of the pipe-threading department. The trouble quickly spread through all the finishing and furnace departments. By Tuesday the entire force employed in the plant, with the exception of a few skilled men, had left the works. After a day of uncertain action the men got together and appointed a committee which presented the following demands to the company:

1. A raise of two and one-half cents per hour for all hands.
2. Pay for time and a half for work on Sunday nights.
3. Thirty minutes for lunch instead of twenty and electric lights to remain on during lunch-hour. (It seems that it has been the custom of the engineer to oil his dynamo engine during lunch and the men felt that the uncertain light of the furnace was not enough light.)



4. Pay every two weeks. (This demand comes from the fact that while the steel corporation pays its men twice a month, there is always one three-week pay in every quarter of the year and for this reason the men feel that it is too long to wait for their money and are now asking the company to pay every two weeks, regardless of the calendar.)

5. Spell of twenty minutes in every hour for furnace hands. (The men claim that the company have taken off the "spell-hands." These "spell-hands" are men who relieve the regular furnace men in turns so that each man gets a rest during each hour of the day.)

The company officials expressed a willingness to grant all demands except the two and one-half cent raise per hour and the time and a half for Sunday work. The men, however, seemed determined to hold out for these two demands.

There was no violence during the week with the exception of a small disturbance which occurred on Monday, the opening day of the strike. A couple of policemen attempted to arrest a striker they alleged to be disorderly, and found themselves suddenly surrounded by a crowd of workingmen and sympathizers. The police turned in a riot call and soon two wagon loads of reserves were on the ground. There was some jostling and throwing of sticks and stones. Soon after the reserves arrived, however, the entire Soho region in which the works are located was quiet. A few shots were fired into the works on the opening night of the strike.

Outside observers were most impressed by the failure or inability of the men to organize in launching the strike. The I. W. W. had one or two representatives in the field, but they did not seem to be able to hold the men together. The leadership of the strike has largely devolved upon the editor of a socialist newspaper and a small group of socialists connected with his organization. The men held meetings each day and seemed to feel the need of strong leadership.

While the majority were holding out at the end of the week, each day brought its defections, although the mills did not attempt to operate. The officials declared that they would not bring any strike-breakers into the plant. Most of the tubular goods made at this plant can

**BROTHERS
LIETURIAI DARBININKAI
BRACIA ROBOTNICY**

The handbills of the strikers' committee address the men as brothers in English, Lithuanian and Polish.

be made at some of the other works of the National Tube Company. Should the men decide to remain out indefinitely the company will probably have the unfilled orders diverted to one of the other departments. In bargaining with their men the managers thus have all the advantages of large scale production and a string of alternative plants. The fact that the great majority of the men are Lithuanians, Poles, and Hungarians makes the situation still more difficult for the small group of American strikers.

One notable aspect of the strike is the fact that surrounding this mill of the steel corporation, and on the opposite side of the Monongahela river, lie a couple of the largest plants of the independent steel makers in the Pittsburgh district. In the independent plants the conditions and wages are both at a lower level than in the Pennsylvania department of the National Tube Company.

There have been wild rumors in circulation as to sympathetic strikes in other departments of the National Tube Company, and behind that, the feeling that the whole steel district might turn into a tinder box once there was a flare-up at one point. The I. W. W. has talked strike in the steel mills ever since Lawrence. So far as outward appearances go, however, the region is peaceful. Were it not for the presence of the mounted policemen on guard at the tube works, no one would think that there was any industrial disturbance even in the Soho.

SYRACUSE SURVEY MAKES ACCOUNTING

A year has passed since field work was begun on the Syracuse preliminary social survey, a project which had its inception in the minds of Rev. Murray Shipley Howland and Paul E. Illman of that city. Something over six months have elapsed since the survey reports

were given to the public in a "know-your-city" week. The local committee of citizens who backed the undertaking regarded it much in the light of a social audit. It was a drawing together into one balance sheet of the major social assets and liabilities of the community in such a way that they could be seen in their mutual relations. With this as a basis the central survey committee constructed a program of "next-steps" toward eliminating what community deficits were found; and now, at the end of six months, makes a report on developments which seemed clearly traceable to the social survey. They are ten in number:

First.—The mayor has publicly stated his intention to appoint a city planning commission, and the Chamber of Commerce has appointed since the "know-your-city" week a committee that is actively at work on plans for the city's growth and development.

Second.—The mayor has also publicly stated his intention of appointing a commission to draw up a housing code for the city.

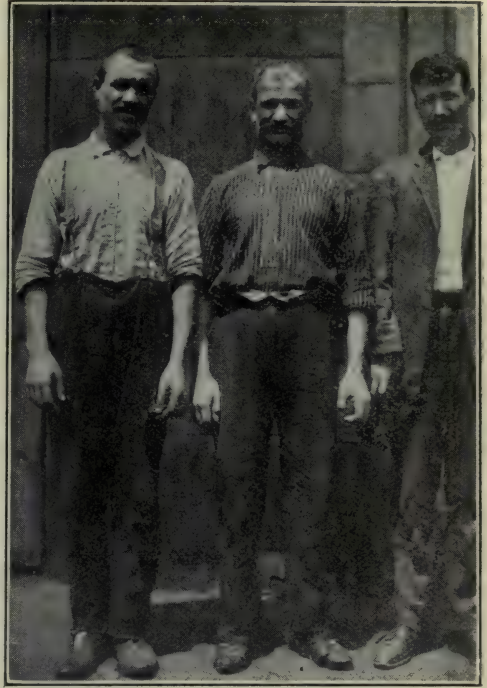
Third.—As a result of the agitation of the Consumers' League and the reports made during the "know-your-city" week, the law keeping small newsboys off the streets and compelling those above ten years of age to wear badges has been largely enforced by school and police authorities.

Fourth.—As a result of the agitation concerning the milk supply there has been a large increase of those who have inquired at the health department concerning the condition of their milk, and this, the authorities claim, is giving them a powerful lever in influencing the milkmen to improve the quality and cleanliness of their milk.

Fifth.—In accordance with the recommendations of the survey, a central organization has been formed which will co-ordinate the work of all charities and betterment organizations of the city, and which will form a central council which will carry on such investigations as the past survey, and help to enforce any movement for betterment of conditions in the city by the influence of a large number of representative organizations.

Sixth.—The study of housing conditions revealed badly overcrowded buildings and violations of the sanitary code. To correct this evil, the mayor has promised an inspector of tenements.

Seventh.—The conditions revealed by the study of foreign population have commanded the attention of a number of people. Steps are now being taken through the North American Civic League for Immigrants and a local organization to provide means for dealing properly with these people, and on the petition of the survey committee the Board of Education has appointed a com-



SOME OF SYRACUSE'S NEWER CITIZENS.

Two Turks and a Greek.

mittee to find what further work the schools can do for the foreign population.

Eighth.—Other matters, such as the movement for one day of rest in seven, have been committed to other organizations which will push them at the proper time.

Ninth.—Another valuable result of the social survey was the collection of a large body of facts concerning social conditions in the city. Various civic organizations have already found the reports of service to them.

Tenth.—As a result of the social survey an investigation of the city departments by experts from the New York Bureau of Municipal Research has been undertaken and valuable suggestions made to the city officials for the conduct of certain departments. This work is being done through the Associated Charities.

Probably the most valuable results are those which cannot be directly catalogued, but there has been a general awakening of the city to interest in its social and moral betterment.

In the light of this showing, in the view of the *Syracuse Post-Standard*, the wisdom of expending \$1,200 on the survey will not be seriously questioned. Immediately following the publication of the report, the *Post-Standard*, among other appreciative paragraphs, said, editorially:

Mr. Howland, chairman of the central

committee on the social survey of this city, is right. The results of that exploration of the city's needs was worth the \$1,200 that was paid for it. "Know-your-city" week did not, to be sure, teach all of us or any of us really to know our city. Few, however, of the newspaper reading population escaped without learning some things which the public must know before improvement could set in. A general awakening, the *Post-Standard* believes, has taken place. Public interest in social and moral betterment for Syracuse is stronger than it was. The city owes a debt far greater than can be expressed in the sum of \$1,200 to Mr. Howland and the others who brought about the social survey.

PSYCHOLOGY IN A JUVENILE COURT

Believing that if the state is to be intelligent in its treatment of boys and girls who are going wrong it must procure accurate analyses of the social, mental, and physical factors contributing to each child's waywardness, the Juvenile Court of Seattle, Washington, has added to itself a department of research. What was accomplished during its first six months is told by Dr. Lilburn Merrill, director of the department. It is interesting to note by way of preface that A. W. Frater, judge of the court, regards the department as one of his most valuable and practical aids in administering delinquency cases. He writes:

It is our purpose [in the new department], so far as possible, to have every delinquent child, who may be brought into court, first placed under observation in this department. When possible or convenient, the examination is made in the presence of his parent or guardian. Here he is studied sympathetically from the viewpoint of the physician and psychologist who have specialized in the care of this class of children, and a written report of the social, physical and mental factors which may have contributed to the child's delinquency is presented to us when the case comes on for hearing. This report is available to the parents, who will thus be apprised of any existing physical or mental defects. Corrective treatment is provided, so far as possible, for every case.

Director Merrill has been closely allied with juvenile courts and child-welfare work for ten years. In his report he states two objects with which the department will be concerned during the coming year:

First, a survey of community conditions contributory to the development of juvenile delinquency, so that we may minimize such social factors.

Second, a preliminary consultation with every child who is brought into court, and an intensive individual study of those who are actual or potential recidivists. This we shall attempt to do, so far as we may, by a study of the child's

1. Family history,
2. Developmental history,
3. Physical condition,
4. Mental condition.

For the purpose of this research the consultation room provided for the department has been supplied with suitable instruments of precision for making neurological tests and measuring vision and audition. Fortunately, much of the material we are using is inexpensive, and the cost of the entire equipment need not exceed one hundred dollars. . . . Aside from the use of these few instruments, the study of the children is made by ordinary diagnostic methods.

The most encouraging feature is the uniform appreciation expressed by the parents of 200 children who have already passed through our hands. An anxious father or mother is not slow in appreciating that we are making a sincere attempt to assist in the diagnosis and treatment of his child who is going wrong. And in several cases we have been gratified in obtaining satisfactory results which could not have been had but for the assistance which this department provides.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE ILLINOIS TEN-HOUR LAW

EDITH WYATT

Vice-President of the Consumers'
League of Illinois

For over two years it has been illegal in Illinois factories, laundries, and mechanical establishments to employ women for more than ten hours in the twenty-four hours of any one day.

The law of 1909 on this subject was extended during the session of 1911 at Springfield to include the women at work in all public institutions, all public utility business, for all common carriers or express, transportation, telegraph or telephone services, and in all places of amusements, mercantile establishments, restaurants and hotels.

The amendment has met with practically no opposition from employers en-

gaged in any of these trades, except from hotel owners. A hotel proprietor of Charleston, Ill., on being fined through the state inspector's office for illegally employing three women workers in his establishment—a kitchen worker, a housekeeper, and a stenographer—for more than ten hours in one day, appealed the decision against him to the State Supreme Court.

The case has been regarded as a test of the state's right to protect the labor of our women workers in other trades than those of factories, laundries, and mechanical establishments.

The State Supreme Court, on June 21, handed down an opinion sustaining the amended ten-hour law.

What relief this decision brings to those very hotel workers, whose right to legal protection from labor in excess of ten hours a day formed the cause of the suit in question, may be understood from these reports.

BRIEF OF GRIFFIN AND YANKWICH IN THE SUPREME COURT OF CALIFORNIA.

The work of waitresses is arduous; the waitresses are compelled not only to stand on their feet most of the time, but to walk. It has been estimated that a waitress working ten hours a day walks twenty miles.

REPORT OF THE JUVENILE PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION CONCERNING HOUSEWORK IN CHICAGO HOTELS.

She (the chambermaid) has thirty rooms to take care of and she says when she goes to take the car at night to go home she is so tired she can hardly stand on her feet.

The . . . housekeeper, a woman of 52 or 53 years of age . . . worked from 8 in the morning until well into the night, and says when she goes to bed . . . she sometimes feels as though she didn't care what happened.

One of the chambermaids told me that their rooms were "pretty good" . . . the girls tell me that they are so tired when they go to their rooms, that they really don't care very much so long as they have a bed to rest on.

REPORT OF THE JUVENILE PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION CONCERNING THE WORK OF KITCHEN AND SCRUB GIRLS IN CHICAGO HOTELS.

The kitchen is in the basement, and the ventilation seems to be no better than in the ordinary basement kitchen. The steward says it is no place for an American girl to work. . . . that the hotel can get all the

Polish and Bohemian help they want and at less wages. The girls seem all tired out.

These (kitchen and cleaning girls) are Polish and some of them appear to be very young. One of the scrub girls . . . told me she was so tired from the backache that at times she could scarcely stand straight.

The kitchen and scrub girls . . . work the full ten hours, and before the ten-hour law went into effect, the assistant housekeeper informed me that a good many girls worked from fourteen to sixteen hours per day, and that some of them, especially in the warm weather, were completely worn out.

THE CASE FOR THE POLISH GIRLS, MONOGRAPH BY GRACE ABBOTT, DIRECTOR OF THE LEAGUE FOR THE PROTECTION OF IMMIGRANTS.

Marja, who had done farm work at home, came to Chicago in March, 1910, and secured work in a hotel, scrubbing for twelve hours. The change from outdoor work to the long hours of hard work on her hands and knees, hard on all the girls, was too much for Marja. She was taken home sick and dizzy one day, and lost six weeks of work. In May, 1911, she was still working twelve hours a day in a restaurant, although she had been subject to headaches ever since her illness.

Clara was twenty-one when she gave up farm work in Galicia for restaurant work in Chicago. At her first place her hands and arms became swollen and inflamed. The doctor said it was caused by the washing powder that was used in the dish water. She recovered, but was at home unable to work for three months. When visited last May, she was working twelve hours a day for seven days in the week.

Clara's case is typical of many others. Very strong washing powders are used both for cleaning and dish water. Sometimes the inflammation it causes does not prove so serious as in her case, and in others worse. In the case of one girl in whom the Immigrants' Protective League was interested, the inflammation developed into eczema and she never recovered her former earning capacity.

Last year the Immigrants' Protective League visited 429 Polish girls who went into hotel work immediately after their arrival in Chicago. . . . The league's visitors try to connect them with night schools, and the various other Americanizing agencies in the neighborhoods. But little or no progress can be made when their work leaves them too tired for anything except bed. There is a popular belief that these Polish girls, because they are large and strong, can do work under which others would give way. But the belief is based on ignorance of what it costs the Polish girl to do this work. The outdoor life which she has led at home has been no preparation for the dull monotony of twelve hours at dish washing in a kitchen.

These reports express chiefly the fatigue of scrub girls, housekeepers, cham-

bermaids, and waitresses employed in hotels and restaurants. The summary of the findings of the Immigrants' Protective League concerning the effect of long hours on the welfare of 429 restaurant and hotel workers is quoted, however, not only for its attestation to the heaviness of the tasks incident to these occupations for women, but also for its account of the extended fast from pleasure such hours represent in these young women's lives.

The recent establishment of the ten hour law's protection over many added thousands of our women workers is founded legally upon our right to safeguard public health both in the present and for the future.

We are glad indeed of the re-establishment of this right. But besides this, commonly and humanly, we are glad of the confirmation of the new law for the myriad girls of our own and other lands who are earning their living by scrubbing, by serving, behind the counters and over the tills and ledgers in Illinois; we are glad of the just decision in their behalf, not alone because of the health of these girls; valuable though health be, nor alone because of their usefulness in any way in the present or future, great and beautiful though that usefulness may be, but because every one of these girls has a right to her own joy. Maybe what everyone on earth needs most is simply more happiness; and it is because the confirmation of the new law affords to workers at least a little more leisure for this that we hope it will be maintained in its full powers.

THE FEDERAL WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACT

WILLIAM J. KERBY
Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

The federal workmen's compensation bill ought to become a law. It has passed the Senate. It ought to be passed by the House. It ought to be enacted as a step toward social justice to the laboring class and as the most efficacious means of testing the validity of the opposition to it which has arisen in certain sections. The step that the bill

contemplates is a step that must be taken in the interests of social and moral progress. There is no other measure in view which seems to promise more. The instinct for justice in the American people will not permit the present system to remain unchanged, if, instead of promoting the interests of justice, it injures them. At any rate, the harassing injustice, the ineffectiveness and the wastefulness of the system under which at present accidents to interstate employes are compensated, must be brought to an end.¹

Some of the opposition to this bill rests on gratuitous and dismal prophecy. Prophets are ordinarily not good statesmen, and the zone in which good statesmen prophecy is extremely limited. Some of the opposition rests on a sentimental reluctance to place in advance a money valuation on the mutilation of the members of the human body. This consideration is neither new nor valid nor important. We have never been able to avoid doing that in some way or other. It is difficult to see how we can avoid it.

Some of the opposition rests on the interests of those who find personal liability litigation an important source of revenue. Some of the opposition rests on a fallacious comparison between maximum damages, occasionally though rarely recovered, on the one hand, and the seemingly low promised average compensation provided for under the bill. Some of the opposition rests on a desire for delay in the hope of finding out how similar bills will operate in different states. Some of the opposition, paradoxical as it may seem, rests on the claim that railroad men's rights of compensation for injuries have never before been half as good as they are now and hence it is well to await developments.

The attempt to pass this bill is a phase in the benevolent revolution through which society is going in its endeavor to alleviate the condition of the laboring class and lift the heavy burden of in-

¹Persons desiring to see this bill pass the House should write at once to their congressmen, calling on them to work for the enactment of the Brantley workmen's compensation bill, its number being H. R. 20,487.

dustrial risk from the shoulders of workmen. If this bill is a step toward promptness and definiteness in relief, toward the substitution of automatically determined compensation for the uncertain outcome of suits at law, toward early adjustment of claims and the elimination of the wastes of litigation which benefit neither employer nor employe, it ought to be enacted. If it draws within the scope of its benevolent action, practically a whole laboring class in interstate commerce instead of a few—possibly 20 per cent of injury cases—giving to the remaining 80 per cent a standing in court which at present they do not enjoy, it deserves support. If it eliminates the adverse verdicts which hinder a large percentage of the actionable cases from recovering anything, it deserves support. If it substitutes the needs of the sufferers as the basis of action instead of the fault of the employer as the basis of action, it deserves support. If it clarifies in the minds of the American public the principle that an industry itself and not the laborers ought to carry the inevitable industrial risks to life and efficiency, it ought to be supported.

If the scale of compensation appears low when compared with the exceptional high damages occasionally secured, it seems encouraging, if not ideal, when compared with the enormous number of cases which obtain no standing in court and with the other cases which lose at trial. Furthermore, when compared with the net amounts which reach the injured laborer or his dependents after the expenses of law-suits are paid, the scale appears to be much more reasonable than its opponents would have us believe. If the predictions made by the adversaries of this bill should be verified, they will undoubtedly operate to bring about such modifications as will satisfy approximately the standards of social justice which we are attempting to work out in our civilization. The recent action of the Harrisburg convention of locomotive engineers endorsing the bill ought to carry weight. The commission which recommended it originally deserves confidence. The National Civic Federation and the American Association for Labor

Legislation which are promoting it deserve confidence. The men and the women active in the field of philanthropy who are working for the passage of the bill merit confidence.

The House of Representatives ought to pass the bill. It goes without saying that if we are inspired by ideals of humanity and of social justice and if we recoil from the injustice to which we are attempting to put an end, the bill ought to include alien laborers and their dependents without question.

A COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

JOHN B. CLARK

Director of the Division of Economics and
History of the Carnegie Endowment
for International Peace

The most critical issues pending in modern states are those between employers and employed, and in our own country they are coming to have an overshadowing importance. This is because the nation is democratic and is becoming more and more industrial, and the demand is insistently made that the voting power be used to improve the laborer's economic status.

How much a government can do in promoting the settlement of the wages problem can be known only after rather long experimenting, but it is clear that, in any case, the problem must be settled by some action on the part of the people. If the manner of settlement is right, we can count on prosperity, peace, and at least an approach to contentment; if it is wrong, there will be embitterment and serious peril; while so long as there is no settlement at all industry will go haltingly, classes will be increasingly antagonistic, and the government will have no basis for a permanent policy. Law-making will yield to whatever pressure is for the moment the strongest.

No one can guarantee that a commission will be able to answer, once for all, the questions that chiefly perplex us; but it should be able to do much in that direction, and at least put us in the way of getting the answers we seek. Some of the most essential facts are not now

known. No one can positively tell how great the income is which has to be divided between employers and employed. Statistics of income have never been made complete, but a commission can make the most of what figures there are and it can obtain more. Moreover, testing, collecting, and arranging figures will be a service of the highest value, and a commission which has the confidence of the public will be able to prepare statistical material which is fit to be the basis of public and private action.

Some facts which are needed have to do with the difficulties inherent in the industrial system, and others with experiments already tried for dealing with them. There is a long chapter of attempts made in our own states and in foreign countries to make employer and men more like partners and less like enemies. It is necessary to know how much each one of those efforts has accomplished.

The supreme question is a moral one. Is labor generally getting its due? A belief in some quarters that it is not explains the embitterment of the once cordial relations of employer and employee. If there is any way of knowing in what part of the system labor gets all that is due to it and in what parts it gets less, and if there is any way of ascertaining what preventable causes stand in the way of justice, that discovery should be rated as in the first rank of discoveries making for the improvement of mankind. A belief that the laborer is wronged and that he will never get justice without a revolution accounts for the growth of the dangerous parties which constitute the extreme left of the labor movement. A belief that much can be done without revolution—that reforms will work well and revolution extremely ill for the workers themselves—accounts for the earnest constructive work to which a great majority of citizens are committed. We need therefore an authorized list of such reforms as can claim immediate support.

There are many things we need to be sure of in connection with the policy of reform. Some efforts to change the terms of distribution in favor of the workers react badly on the amount to be

divided. Strikes and lockouts do so, and so does the policy which organized labor sometimes adopts of reducing its own efficiency—the so-called "ca' canny" of the English trade unionist. Different in its working, but closely connected with these measures on the part of the workers, is the employer's effort to reduce the output of his own mills and of other mills of like kind for the sake of exacting higher prices from the community. If we can stop all such efforts, how much will society gain and what part of the gain will fall to the laborer? Of course there will be more to be divided, but how can we cause the excess to be shared fairly?

In so far as the laborers' plan of limiting the number of pieces they can turn out is concerned, that appears, on its face, to be an absurdity. How can any one expect to make his wages greater by making his product smaller? And yet this plan of action has some motive. There must be a way in which, during a limited time and for a limited number of persons, it may do something which, in their view, is rational. The whole evolution that has led to such tactics should be examined and, in the light of history, statistics, and economic principles, a reasonable plan of action should be determined.

Even the basic question of the justice and the utility of the organization of labor is here and there called in question. This means more than the rightfulness of particular things that trade unionists do; it concerns the principle of trade unionism, rather than the practices which have grown up under it. If there were any real doubt as to the necessity and the justice of organizing laborers for collective action, that question would easily take the first rank, in importance. There is no real uncertainty, however, as to this fundamental point, but there is actual danger that, in taking ground against the violent measures of some unions, even reasonable men may range themselves against the principle of union; and they will do so more and more as the opinion gains ground that strikes are useless without violence.

Can labor get on without actual

strikes? How far can strikes, when they occur, succeed without violence? Is there any danger that a rigorous enforcement of law, without tribunals of arbitration for the settlement of wage questions, will leave laborers helpless in their employer's hands? On the other hand, is there danger that no enforcement or a lax enforcement of the law for protecting persons and property would make the employer comparatively helpless and invite anarchy in every great industrial center?

Sad indeed would be a state in which peaceful strikes would lead to starving the workers and violent ones would destroy the social order. Verily, it is a choice between the devil and the deep sea! But fortunately there is a third alternative. Successful arbitration may both preserve order and do justice. Recent history records a long series of possible measures aiming to secure the laborer against exploiting and the employer and the non-union worker from the various forms of sabotage. There are conciliation, arbitration by committees created by the contestants each for a particular dispute, and arbitration by permanent tribunals. There is adjudication having no coercive power, and taking place only as a tribunal is invoked by one or both contestants, and there is the same kind of adjudication which acts on its own initiative, though still without power to enforce its decisions. There are tribunals that have full coercive power, since they can fortify their decisions by fines or other penalties for those who refuse to accept them. There is a plan which requires no formal coercion, but invokes a very real power when it publishes a decision. It investigates the claims of workmen, announces a just rate of pay, and merely relies on a stern repression of disorder in case the rate is refused. Workers who then refuse a really just rate are not able to carry their point by "slugging" the men who accept it.

There is much more to be investigated and it is clear that the field of inquiry is enormously large. That many studies and fruitful ones have been made in this domain is no reason for opposing the

creation of a commission. It can serve as a competent jury to weigh the arguments of those who have already put their conclusions on record. The mass of literature on this subject is so vast that no one reads the whole of it, and many valuable parts of it reach very few persons. If a commission makes the most of the studies of the past, if it summarizes conclusions and weighs the arguments in favor of them, its reports should be very illuminating to the general public. Even a small measure of success in so vast an undertaking would be a sufficient reward for the labor and the outlay it would cost. It might easily open a vista leading to a state of future peace, comfort, and justice, gained without an overthrow of the social order followed by a more than doubtful effort to build a new one.

CHANGING THE LIFE IN THE FORECASTLE

GEORGE McPHERSON HUNTER

Since May 18¹ the report of Senator Smith on the loss of the Titanic has been published, and a minority of the committee on merchants marine and fisheries has presented a report on the Wilson bill to improve the conditions of sea life. The language of the minority report is severe and vigorous and is an arraignment of Congress for "stupidity, lack of intelligence or patriotism" in driving the American ship from the ocean. The report of the committeemen who object to the bill is hortatory in tone and faulty in argument, charging it with being "but a proposal for Congress to legislate exclusively for the supposed benefit of foreign seamen."

Recent and calamitous events would seem to make it necessary for America to say something about the conditions on ships visiting American ports, especially English vessels, and we are convinced that international agreements will have to be made concerning safety on ocean-going passenger ships. Nations assume the right to protect themselves from the

¹See THE SURVEY of that date for Mr. Hunter's first editorial on the Wilson bill.

spread of diseases by inspecting and quarantining foreign vessels. Were it not for the foreign vessels trading to America, crimping would cease. When the sailor has no money the crimps let him alone. "Where the carcass is, there will the eagles be."

The Wilson bill will, moreover, do much to remedy many of the moral evils in a sailor's life, and for this reason alone deserves to be passed. For it gives him the right to a fair proportion of his wages, when he asks for it. Advance wages, or allotments, may be benevolent in their intentions, but they are injurious in their workings. To be suddenly thrust on the water-front with an accumulated pay and a deferred thirst, or to possess the power to sign wages away before they are earned, the right to pawn himself for food and wages, is giving hostages to the sailor's enemies. On this point the law says:

A seaman may make an allotment of any portion of his wages which he may earn to his grandparents, parents, wife, sister, or children, except when he is engaged in the trade between the ports of the United States, or in trade between the ports of the United States and the Dominion of Canada, Newfoundland, West Indies, and Mexico.

A seaman may make an allotment not exceeding one month's pay to an original creditor in payment of any just debt for board or clothing when engaged in a vessel bound from a port on the Atlantic to a port on the Pacific, or *vice versa*; or in a vessel engaged in foreign trade, except trade between the United States and the Dominion of Canada, or Newfoundland, or the West Indies, or the Republic of Mexico.

Any person who pays wages to a seaman in advance of the time when they are earned, except as provided for above, makes himself liable to a penalty of a fine not less than four times of the amount of wages so advanced or imprisonment for a period not exceeding six months.

It has recently been held by the United States District Court for the western district of Washington that the *above law as to advances and allotments of wages applies in the case of American citizens sailing out of American ports on foreign vessels.*

The human side of the Wilson bill is interesting. It deserves support because it attempts to make ship life better by giving a fair division of watches, more air space, proper washing accommodations, bath rooms, in short, an approxi-

mation to some of the things provided for workers in factories. It seeks to project human conditions into the fore-castle, and to balance the difference between "fatigue and efficiency." It would compel some ship-owners to treat their seamen as they treat their ship and machinery. In machine construction there is what is known as the breaking strain and the working strain. The seamen's bill is at least an honest attempt to provide that the stress put on the human machine shall not be a breaking but a working strain.

At the hearings on the bill it was urged that seamen do not appreciate baths and lavatories, and prefer to wash in a bucket and destroy the plumbing. My experience with probably the hardest class of men afloat, the Liverpool firemen, is quite the opposite. The American Seamen's Institute in New York is furnished like a first-class club and in three years, with an average attendance of 900 men per day and 178 lodging at night, we have had nothing destroyed or stolen except soap—sailors have no conscience about soap. The popularity of the building is due to *cleanliness, baths, and the honor system.* We treat men like men, and *expect* the best behavior. We get what we expect.

The efficiency tests of the seamen's bill are valuable and needed, for it has been too commonly urged that the introduction of steam has banished the necessity for seamen, a grave and dangerous error, and in harmony with the assertion that the hazards of the sea were eliminated by steam.

Skill is demanded of policemen. The easy-going, seemingly idle representative of the law has perhaps little apparent call for skill and training, but below his blue coat he has resources ready to be used when the occasion demands. In a measure, the "cop" illustrates the sailor's position. The ordinary routine of neither city life, nor steamship life calls for anything extraordinary. But the out of the ordinary—riot, fire, burglary—happen in city life. So, the out of the ordinary—collisions, fire, stress of weather—happen at sea. Policemen and seamen are trained for emergencies.



SOME OF THE SINGLE FAMILY HOUSES.

THE YOUNGSTOWN HOUSING EXPERIMENT

J. M. HANSON

GENERAL SECRETARY CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY, YOUNGSTOWN, O.

A city which, during the past decade has enjoyed an increase of 325 per cent in its industrial output, has a strong claim to be considered important in trade circles, even if it does not yet rank as one of our larger cities in population. To match this expansion industrially, Youngstown, O., can boast of an increase in population during the same ten years of 76 per cent and this growth is being fully maintained. Its iron and steel tonnage has become so great that Youngstown is now named with Pittsburgh in trade quotations on billets and rolling mill products.

Situated midway between Pittsburgh and Cleveland in the Mahoning valley, with good trunk line railway facilities, Youngstown has the service of the large city and the added advantage of cheaper factory sites. The coke from Pennsylvania and the iron ore from the lake docks meet here and furnish employment to some 15,000 men in the furnaces, mills, and shops. Many other industries, diversified in character, have located here. These give employment to all classes of labor and swell the monthly payrolls to over \$2,000,000.

It follows inevitably that this rap-

idly growing factory center, with its large foreign population, has a serious housing problem. Although for several years Youngstown has not seen many days when about 500 houses were not under way, the supply has never equaled the demand. This is especially true of the houses which rent for modest sums, since, when there is a good demand for houses, the investor prefers to deal with higher class tenants. This scarcity of low-rent houses with the consequent increase in rents in the poorer districts has fostered congestion. Particularly is this true of the down-town business district, where the old residences, which were moved to make room for business blocks, have been placed upon the rear of the lots, in some sections covering the entire area except for the winding paths and driveways between. Here the foreigners are so crowded that there are two or three families where there should be but one. Sometimes a single family has a score or more of boarders who occupy the beds in double shift.

These conditions were realized in a general way but what to do about it, no one seemed to know. As soon as the Charity Organization Society be-

gan work, over three years ago, an attempt was made by it to focus attention upon the subject and its relations to problems of charity and correction. A careful study was made of the most congested district and startling facts were published about the number of families there which lived in a single room, and about filthy privies, many of which were used in common by several families. It was pointed out that the rents charged were, per room, as much or even more than is asked for good, sanitary houses upon improved streets in respectable districts. This condition of high rents afforded a strong argument for the plan proposed as a step toward the solution of the problem, viz.: the building of small, cheap-rent houses as a business enterprise, except that the philanthropic side should be recognized and the dividends limited to 5 per cent. The history of the "philanthropy and 5 per cent" building movement was outlined and the general success of similar building ventures was shown together with the great good that would result from such an investment. For one year this agitation was kept up and a



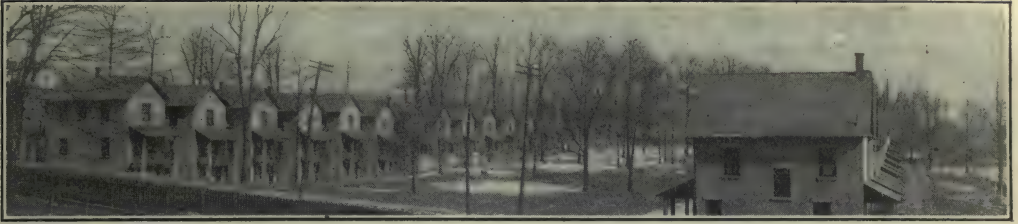
REAR VIEW OF TWO FAMILY HOUSES.

thorough canvass was conducted by a committee of business men. A stock subscription paper was then opened and the people generally, as far as they were able, subscribed. In the late fall of 1909 the Modern Homes Company was incorporated with an authorized capital stock of \$100,000. The charter was broad, permitting the company to engage in the general real estate business as well as to contract and build and deal in building materials. It was decided that the company would do its own building in order to save the contractor's profits and to insure the very highest grade of construction. A man was secured as manager, who, as superintendent of a rolling mill, was accustomed to organizing and directing workmen. He was sent to other cities to study similar building projects and to investigate materials and forms of construction. After several weeks of investigation, active building operations were begun about the first of May, 1910.

The site chosen was adjacent to a rolling mill and other industrial plants but, lying to the westward and windward, was comparatively free from smoke and dust. This tract con-



YOUNGSTOWN'S SUBSTITUTE FOR SQUALID TENEMENTS.



MODERN HOMES COMPANY HOUSES FACING PARK.

taining about seven acres is cut by a street near one end, but the larger portion is covered with a good stand of large oak trees. Through the center a park of about three acres was laid out and the houses were placed so as to face upon the park with the driveways in the rear.

The material adopted was the Pauley square concrete tile. The advantages which led to the use of this material were that no expensive equipment was required, such as moulds, hoists, etc.; a large percentage of the wall is hollow, insuring dryness and economy of material; the tile are quickly handled, and plaster and grout can be applied directly to the wall with a perfect bond.

Six weeks after building operations were begun, tenants began to move in. Six masons completed the walls, including chimneys, of three four-roomed houses a week. The roofers, carpenters, plasterers, plumbers, and painters followed in succession and the tenants moved in as soon as the last workman left. Six months after operations were begun a dividend had been earned, and 1 1-4 per cent quarterly has been paid regularly since. The park has been improved and cared for. Sand boxes are provided for the small tots. The larger children go to a municipal playground nearby. Receptacles are provided for all rubbish which is removed by the company. A social worker is employed as rent collector who keeps in close friendly touch with the tenants and is an important factor in the scheme.

During the first year sixty-six houses and apartments were erected. Forty-nine of these were detached four and five-room houses, and seventeen were three-room apartments in two "terraces." Also a store and meat market

for the convenience of the tenants were built, though they are not operated by the company. All the houses and apartments contain bath rooms, laundry, with hot water equipment, and fixtures for lighting and heating with natural gas. A number of houses were also built for other parties who desired "Modern Homes Company standards." In the spring of 1911 the capital stock was increased to \$500,000, and nineteen modern houses of a better grade were built on lots 40 by 125 feet, which will be sold on easy monthly payments. About the same number will be erected during 1912, depending upon the sale of stock. These houses are located across the street from the park, but since the company owns the land on both sides, the street and lots will be developed in the park scheme and will be separated from contiguous property by an eight-foot trellis covered with hardy vines.

The first tract of land, approximately seven acres, cost about \$15,000, and the later purchase of lots 40 by 125 feet about \$550 per lot. The "terrace" construction, exclusive of land, came to \$1,000 for each apartment, while the detached houses with modern improvements, including furnaces, cost \$1,500, and the six-room houses, fully modern, including mantel and gas grate in the parlor, \$2,200. All have slate roofs and porches front and rear, with cement floors and steps. They are grouted and the casings and doors painted a dark green to harmonize with the trees. The rents in the terrace are \$10 and \$12 per month; the detached houses \$15, \$18, and \$20.

The company has considered building an apartment that could be rented

for \$6 to \$8 per month, but found that standards would have to be lowered if 5 per cent dividends were paid. The conclusion was that, if a sufficient number of houses were provided at from \$10 to \$15, many families now inhabiting the cheaper quarters would move to the better houses and make room for those who could not pay so much. This has actually happened. Some of the families renting the \$10 apartments came from unsanitary, cheap-rent houses and bad environments. After a few months in the terrace apartments, several of these families moved into the better and larger detached houses and some are now even applying for the still better houses with individual yards. Besides

demonstrating the theory that people will respond to a good environment and raise their standards of living, the company has proved that as a rule a good house will be appreciated and kept in good condition.

While the work of this company has not yet been extensive enough to affect appreciably the congestion of the poorer districts, it has called attention to the need and so has stimulated the building of cheap-rent houses. It has also done much to establish better standards in buildings and has influenced rental rates. It is the purpose of the company to push its work as fast as its funds will permit and build these "garden villages" in other parts of the city adjacent to the different mills.

NOT BULLETS BUT PAINT¹

EDWARD EWING PRATT

A battleship in dry dock—stripped of her finery, dirty and unkempt, her engines motionless, her decks deserted—seems singularly futile and harmless as she leans weakly against the props which are placed along her sides. Laborers in overalls and jumpers, with dinner pails in hand, throng across the runway and disappear into a gaping, ugly turret. In spite of the seeming weakness and harmlessness of the inert monster, and in spite of the throng of plodding mechanics and laborers who have taken the places of the smartly and nattily dressed sailors and marines, the battleship remains a destroyer of health and life. True, it is not easily discovered: the dismantled ship does not blaze forth and thunder out its message of injury and death. The danger is an insidious one, deliberately, gradually, slowly preying upon and eating out the health and life of its victim. The source of the danger is lead—not as bullets or cannon-balls, but lead in the apparently harmless form of a preservative and cleanser—lead paint.

¹This article is based upon a report to the New York State Factory Investigating Commission. The commission has not seen fit to use it. The facts are such that its importance cannot be gainsaid.

On September 1, 1911, there went into effect in New York state the law compelling physicians to report occupational diseases, such as lead poisoning, mercurial poisoning, arsenical poisoning, anthrax, and caisson illness. Under this law, late in the year, a Brooklyn physician reported the case of one William O'Connell. Lead poisoning was the physician's diagnosis accompanied by the bare statement that he was employed in the Brooklyn Navy Yard. In order to get the facts of the case, it was necessary to see O'Connell, to find out what he had been doing, and how seriously he had been poisoned. The address given was in a distant but populous section of Brooklyn, in one of the three-story six-family fire-traps so common in that region. In answer to my knock, a cheery "Come in!" sounded from within. The apartment which opened to view was plain, but clean and wholesome looking. O'Connell was alone,—a man below medium stature, thin and emaciated, his clothes sagging about him as he stood up. The hand which he held out was half closed and felt cold and singularly soft. It rested inert in my grip and there was no answering tension. As he spoke, his

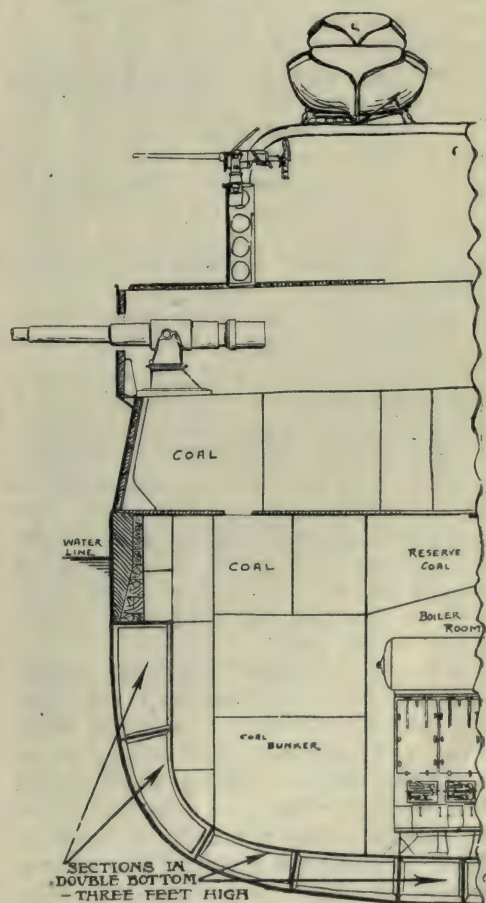
teeth showed. They were decayed and falling out.

In answer to my questions, he told of his experience in the Navy Yard. About four and one-half years ago (October, 1907) O'Connell found employment at the yard as a laborer. He worked eight hours per day, and earned \$12 per week. He was put to work at "scaling" in the double bottoms of the battleships. In two months he began to feel the effects of his work; he was troubled with nausea, constipation, and chronic loss of appetite. Within a year, he was taken with a severe attack of lead poisoning and almost lost the use of his arms. He was out of work for four months, one month of which was spent in the hospital. He then returned to work at the Navy Yard, was given outside work, and improved rapidly. A month later, however, he was laid off owing to slack work and was unemployed for four months. At the end of this time he was called back and sent to work again in the double bottoms. He protested to the foreman, and was told that if he didn't want to do that, he couldn't have work. He took the job. Who wouldn't after four months of idleness? He went back to scaling and to an absolute certainty of renewed poisoning. Within two months he was again taken with a severe attack, and at the end of September, 1911, quit his job. Since then he has been without work (now June, 1912), and there is little likelihood that he will be able to work in the near future, as he has almost completely lost the use of his right hand, which is paralyzed.¹

In the midst of our interview Mrs. O'Connell came in. We were just discussing cleanliness as a preventive of lead poisoning. "No woman ever took better care of a husband than I did of that man," she declared, and O'Connell nodded his head vigorously in approval. "I kept telling him to wash, and to keep clean," (which is more than the foreman or superintendent had done). "I made him change his underclothes twice every week, and I washed him a pair of overalls every solitary week; and do you know I always found a sort of red mud

in the bottom of my wash tubs? It looked just like the red paint that I found in his clothes and in our bedroom."

The morning was already far gone, when all the formalities demanded by governmental red tape had been complied with, and I was started on an inspection of the double bottoms, where the men were "scaling." My guide led me quickly to the dry docks where a big monitor was docked. We entered the turret, from which a big gun projected, and passed on over debris of various kinds into a room evidently used as a sort of storage, where some coats and dinner pails were hanging. All about us there was a most unearthly din; it sounded as if a battery of automatic guns were playing on the steel sides of the ship. The foreman, bellowed in my ear that I had a hard trip



SECTION OF A BATTLESHIP SHOWING DOUBLE BOTTOM.

¹O'Connell has applied to the government for compensation, but his misfortune is not an "injury" and hence his application for compensation has been denied.

before me and a dirty one. A dilapidated suit of overalls was dug up from somewhere, I was given a candle, and followed the foreman into the hold. First through the engine room we went and down several flights of stairs, then through a long passageway, and down more steps, and through more passages. The whole place seemed like a disorganized maze of pipes, rods, wires, boilers, and machinery of various sorts until we were down to the very keel of the ship.

Most battleships nowadays are provided with double bottoms—a space of from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet between the inner and outer shell. This space is divided into small compartments usually not more than four or five feet square. Down into the double bottoms we went, squeezing ourselves through a little manhole. Once in, we crawled slowly along, on hands and knees, following the light of the candle held by the man ahead. We worked our way through several small manholes, until we reached a compartment where a man was “scaling.” An electric light attached to a moveable wire lighted the compartment. The workman was crouched forward on his knees, and was operating a compressed air chisel, called a “hammer,” scraping off the paint. This paint, which is sometimes a quarter of an inch thick and is composed of almost pure red oxide of lead, rose from the point of contact, and the dangerous dust filled the air. Oftentimes, several men work in one small compartment, and it is said that the dust sometimes becomes so thick that it is almost impossible to see an electric light two feet away. The only provision made for the men is that, in summer, fresh air is blown into the compartments. Refreshing as it is, it stirs up the dust and thus adds to the danger of the work.

When we emerged from the double bottoms, the din throughout the ship had ceased. Already it was the noon hour. On returning to the storage room, we found the men sitting about eating their lunches. Only one man had taken the trouble to get a bucket of water in which to wash his hands. The others, covered as they were with dirt, their hands red with the poisonous lead oxide,

ate in apparent indifference. No conveniences are furnished them, no washing facilities, no warm food, and worst of all no instructions concerning the desperately dangerous character of their work and how to guard and protect themselves. As we talked, man after man told of the attacks of lead poisoning that they themselves or their fellow workmen had had.

Counting O’Connell, and two cases furnished by the medical officer of the yard, I found twenty men who had suffered from lead poisoning, caused by work in the double bottoms. One or two of these men had lost no time; most of them had been so seriously affected that they were compelled to cease work for periods varying from a few days to as long as eleven months. Two cases were fatal.

The mere statement of these facts, however, does not convey any idea of the true situation. Almost half of the men on this job have been leaded and many of them are at present in a critical state of ill-health.

The conditions are bad indeed; not only because of the very dangerous material with which the men are working, but also, on account of the place where the work must be done, the long periods of exposure, the lack of instructions, and the lack of any compensation for idleness caused directly by a disease due to the employment.¹

It would not be worth our while to discuss this subject if lead poisoning were an absolutely necessary accompaniment to the maintenance and operation of battleships, which, of course we must have—at least, so we are told. The tragedy of the whole situation is that lead poisoning is unnecessary, is preventable, and with the proper care, its worst consequences may be entirely forestalled. If the authorities of the Brooklyn Navy Yard had been on the alert, if the post medical officer had been “on the job,” not more than one case of lead poisoning, and that the first one, need ever have occurred.

The one sure, safe, and sane method

¹Not long after this inspection a conference was held at the navy yard and the facts were brought to the attention of the commandant.

of preventing lead poisoning is to entirely do away with the use of lead paints. France has recognized this need and within two years' time will have entirely done away with the use of lead in its paint compositions.

There are other methods, which if honestly carried out will prevent any serious consequences from lead poisoning, either in this particular work or in other work where lead is used:

(1) A monthly physical examination of all the men, and the removal from that work of any men who show symptoms of poisoning.

(2) An effective and localized system of dust removal.

(3) The provision of respirators and the enforcement of their use.

(4) The provision of washing facilities including hot water, soap, towels,

and shower baths, and the enforcement of their use.

(5) Personal instructions and posted instructions concerning the dangers of the work and how to guard against them.

(6) The shifting of the men from the dangerous job to other work of a less dangerous character.

This is not merely the problem of a small group of men in a single navy yard. The same conditions probably exist in all our navy yards. On board ship, men are continuously employed at this work, who are undoubtedly seriously affected. In view of the many industrial occupations in which men come in contact with lead in one or another of its dangerous forms, the United States government should take the lead, and set an example by eliminating such poisoning from among its employees.

THE LEGAL AFTERMATH OF THE LAWRENCE STRIKE

JAMES P. HEATON

"Ettor and Giovanitti are in jail, doomed to pass the rest of their natural lives behind prison walls if the money powers have their say and their way.

"Why and what for?

"They were true to their fellow workers! True to them in devotion in the hours of strife and struggle for more bread, more of the comforts of life!

"And that is their only crime! That is what they are in jail for."—*From a statement of the Textile Strikers' Defense Committee.*

The genuine belief of mill operatives in Lawrence that Ettor and Giovanitti, the leaders for the first fortnight of the surprising industrial rebellion in that New England factory town, are in prison "on a trumped-up charge of murder," is reflected in this declaration of the mill workers. This feeling is not confined to those who are direct partisans nor to people whose judgment might be discounted because of unfamiliarity with American institutions and judicial procedure. It is shared by attorneys, newspaper men, ministers, and students of public affairs.

The courts of Massachusetts have an earned reputation for probity and judicial acumen. Most critics feel that

any possible veering from exact and scrupulously even-handed justice in the legal proceedings growing out of the Lawrence strike will eventually be rectified. To understand how a large body of working people have had their faith shaken requires consideration of a number of strands of incident growing out of the strike.

Besides Ettor and Giovanitti, Joseph Caruso, Salvatore Bruno, and Orlando Antonio, are today imprisoned, while Salvatore Scuito has been indicted but not yet apprehended. Bruno and Antonio have been convicted of assault with intent to murder and sentenced by the Superior Court of Essex County to not less than five nor more than seven years. Orlando Antonio was convicted for shooting during a disturbance at one of the mills. A revolver was found near him where witnesses said he threw it, but other witnesses said the shot did not come from his direction. Bruno was convicted for firing at the police. The police testified that no one was near

but Bruno and themselves. Bruno, who was not a striker, was so frightfully mangled about the face that the next day in the police court friends did not recognize him. Behind the spot where Bruno stood were the marks of several shots fired by the police but back of the officers no bullet holes were found. In fact, they were standing in front of glass windows which remained unbroken. That Bruno did fire a pistol is admitted. His claim is that he aimed in the air.

THE MURDER CASES

Joseph Caruso is held in the Lawrence jail as a principal in the murder of Anna Lopizzo who was killed during a clash between strikers and policemen. The state's claim, so far as it is known, is that Caruso aided Scuito who, it is alleged, did the actual shooting. The more important case of Ettor and Giovanitti, whose trial, originally set for May 27, was postponed at the request of counsel for the defense, involves far-reaching issues as to strike leadership and responsibility. The prisoners, who are charged with being accessories to the murder, were not present when Anna Lopizzo was shot. The commonwealth contended at their arraignment before Police Magistrate Mahoney, in Lawrence, February 9, that the defendants had spread a propaganda of violence. It was this propaganda, said the district attorney, which inspired the person actually guilty of the murder to fire at the police. According to the state's witnesses the shot missed its mark and killed the woman. Witnesses for the defense, mostly strikers, declared that Policeman Benoit fired the fatal bullet, and that at least one other officer also used his revolver. The police absolutely denied that they did any firing. Because it was dark it was difficult for outsiders to see just what happened. At the autopsy the bullet proved to be a revolver shot of thirty-eight caliber. The official Lawrence police arm is a thirty-two. Two policemen testified under cross-examination that they owned thirty-eight caliber revolvers, but said they did not carry them while on duty.

The first point, then, which the state

must prove, is that strikers or their sympathizers fired the shot; the second that there is a convincing connection between their acts and those of the strike leaders. In such a period of excitement and with the babel of tongues spoken in Lawrence, state and defense alike had difficulty in marshalling oral evidence which would leave no measure of doubt in the mind of a disinterested observer. The arraignment of Ettor and Giovanitti lasted eight days in February, while the strike was still on, but while the grand jury was not in session, and took the form of a thorough trial of the facts before the magistrate.

District Attorney Henry C. Atwill laid stress upon the street car riots in January, when windows were broken by the throwing of pieces of ice, while several trolley cars had their poles removed. From one or two cars, passengers were dragged out. The disturbance occurred early one morning while the strikers were holding a parade. Few of the leaders were there, but Ettor was seen shortly before and again after the stopping of the cars. The state claimed that this was a demonstration planned by Ettor as part of a policy of violence. In rebuttal, witnesses testified that he helped that very morning to break up a block of people on the sidewalk, thus aiding the police in keeping the crowd moving. A member of the militia likewise said that Ettor had shown himself willing to carry out suggestions from Colonel Sweetzer who was in command of the state troops sent to Lawrence to preserve order.

VIOLENCE IN WORD AND DEED

As evidence and proof of a propaganda of violence the state introduced testimony concerning speeches made by Ettor and Giovanitti. Two sentences upon which great emphasis was laid were a statement that Lawrence would be an unhappy city and that the strikers would keep the gun shops busy. By the first of these, according to the defense, Ettor referred to an impending strike of the power house employes, which would have left Lawrence in darkness and without street car service. As answer to the other implication, the defense contended that Ettor was speak-

ing about a committee appointed by the strikers to interview the city authorities about gun permits. A number of revolver permits had been granted to special policemen and mill representatives. The strikers claimed that, as a protest, they wished to apply for permits themselves, without expecting that their request would be granted but with the idea that such wholesale applications would show the danger in issuing permits to private individuals on either side, to carry deadly weapons at such a time of industrial conflict.

Three more radical statements were imputed to Ettor and Giovanitti in the testimony of the state's witnesses. It was charged that Ettor, after he had been told that federal troops were to be sent to quell the strike, said: "We will win if they raise scaffolds on every street." Two detectives in the service of the Callahan agency declared that Giovanitti told his listeners to sleep in the daytime and prowl around at night like wild animals. These witnesses admitted that they had been commissioned to find evidence against the strikers, and that they had destroyed their notes of the speeches to keep them from the lawyers for the defense. The speech was given in Italian and one of these two witnesses showed considerable hesitancy in giving the Italian of the statement charged to the strike leader. Neither was thoroughly acquainted with Italian. The versions of the speech given varied greatly. A witness for the state testified that Giovanitti declared the strikers would "bust the heads of scabs." This was afterward denied by a fellow striker.

I. W. W. DOCTRINE

Such charges and countercharges and, as a matter of fact, such acts however discountenanced are not unfamiliar to strikes as we have known them in the past in America. What lifted them, in the minds of authorities and of outside local public opinion, into something of menacing significance, is the fact that this strike was led by the (Chicago) Industrial Workers of the World. In the preamble of the constitution of the I. W. W. the direct assertion is made that the "struggle must go on between the

working class and the employing class until the workers take possession of the earth and accomplish the abolition of the wage system." Such a propaganda coupled with the antagonism of the old line unions to the new was calculated to impress Lawrence with the difference between this and previous textile strikes of workers outside the I. W. W. Haywood, who had arrived in Lawrence shortly before Ettor's arrest, was known as one of the officers of the Western Federation of Miners who were acquitted on the charge of blowing up Governor Steunenberg. Ettor was a leader in the McKees Rocks strike. In the I. W. W., Its History, Structure, and Methods, an official publication, Vincent St. John, the secretary, says:

"The question of 'right' and 'wrong' does not concern us. . . . Failing to force concessions from the employers by the strike, work is resumed and 'sabotage' is used. . . . Interference by the government is resented by open violation of the government's orders, going to jail en masse, causing expense to the taxpayers. . . . The strike committee [at McKees Rocks, Pa.] . . . served notice upon the commander of the cossacks (Pennsylvania State Constabulary) that for every striker killed or injured by the cossacks the life of a cossack would be exacted in return. . . . The strikers kept their word."

The state tried to bring home to the leaders in Lawrence some of the more extreme doctrines advocated in the official literature published by the I. W. W. To this end the district attorney introduced a letter from St. John to Haywood which was found with four others addressed to Haywood in Ettor's pockets and which at the time of his arrest the latter endeavored to turn over to Yates to deliver to Haywood. In this letter St. John urged that the strikers should break into jail and make the county feed them. The other four letters to Haywood were unopened. No one for the state would swear that the letter offered in evidence was opened when Ettor was arrested. One witness said that the letter was open the following morning when he first saw it.

The state's contention was that the violence could not have broken out of its own accord but must have been prearranged by the leaders. It should be

noted, however, that grave disorder, if not the worst, occurred spontaneously on the first day, before Ettor and Giovanitti had arrived. If the strike leaders had deliberately planned to use violence as part of their tactics, say their sympathizers, it would have been easy to have picked off single policemen on dark nights. Neither policemen nor militiamen suffered any major injury throughout the long and at times tense struggle.

The prosecution charged that the strike leaders were purposely absent from scenes of violence in order to escape responsibility. The district attorney said to Yates, financial secretary of the strike fund, who was called to the stand during the Ettor trial:

"Did you know that the parade was to be held?"

"Sure."

"Were you in bed when the other boys were in the streets in the cold?"

"Yes."

An objection to this cross-examination was overruled.

A reading of the court report of the Ettor arraignment makes it obvious that the state conceived that the out-of-town strike leaders could have been impelled only by mercenary motives. It refused to concede as a possibility that men might be moved to come to Lawrence by a feeling of class consciousness to fight what they deemed injustice. This spirit was reflected in the district attorney's summing up in the following sentences:

I want to be frank in saying to this court that perhaps I am a little prejudiced. I can't help being. I cannot look with complacency upon all these labor buzzards gathering here in stricken Lawrence from all parts of the country for the purpose, as I claim, of spreading their specious doctrines among the toiling masses, advancing that organization which they are depending upon for a living and advancing the circulation of the periodicals which they edit and from which they gain their livelihood. . . . Massachusetts has no need of these social vultures.

Joseph Caruso, who was not mentioned in any way in the police court proceedings as principal, was brought into the case during the sitting of the Grand Jury in April. The indictment proceedings were of course secret so that the nature of the state's evidence against him is

unknown. During the arraignment of Ettor and Giovanitti two months before any principal was arrested, the witnesses for the state said that the shot which killed Mrs. Lopizzo was fired by a man in a brown overcoat, who is now said by the state to be Salvatore Scuito. Shortly after the Lawrence strike broke out the textile operatives in Lowell also stopped work. The Lawrence leaders who went to Lowell complain that a man, whom they do not own as one of themselves but who corresponded, they say, to the principal in the brown overcoat described at the arraignment of Ettor, caused them trouble and anxiety there by egging the strikers on to violence. They assert that the police refused to arrest him although he was pointed out while actively at work.

THE CONSPIRACY CASES

Once the strike was over, an entirely new group of cases came up which to the minds of the workers are cut from the same cloth, in that the basis of the indictments is to hold the strike leaders responsible for acts with which they may or may not have been directly connected. These include William D. Haywood, leader of the strike after Ettor's arrest; William E. Trautman, formerly of the brewers' union; Ettore Giannini, Edmund Rossoni, and Gildo Mazzarella, leaders of the Italian strikers; James P. Thompson, general organizer of the I. W. W.; William Yates, a New Bedford textile worker; and Thomas Holliday, a textile worker in Lawrence. All are held for conspiracy to intimidate the workers in the various mills. A separate indictment was returned against these men for each mill affected. Haywood and one or two others have not been in Massachusetts since the indictments were returned. Unlike Ettor and Giovanitti, the others have been admitted to bail.

There are indications that part of the case against them will be an attempt to prove that at secret meetings plans were made of a criminal character. With the exception of Holliday, those indicted were not residents of Lawrence before the strike. For reasons not clear to the strikers several other influential leaders including Edward Riley, a local textile

worker, the chairman of the committee of ten which met the representatives of the employers to settle the strike, were not included. Most of those named in the indictments were the leading speakers from outside of Lawrence who were blamed during the strike for inflaming their hearers.

That such a charge should have been brought against them has in the past month led to unrest among the regular mill workers. They understood, whether rightly or wrongly, that at the close of the strike the case against Ettor and Giovanitti was not to be pressed so far as the mill owners had any influence,—and in this connection, it should be borne in mind that, to the minds of the rank and file of the workers, the civil authorities were identified throughout the strike with the interests of the employers. Apart from the question of ethical or legal propriety of any such understanding, the statements of the committee of ten to the strikers were specific with respect to the fact that such assurances were given. As a result the workers charge bad faith. They feel that the real object of the proceedings is to “get” William Haywood, and for this belief they have some provocation in an incident connected with the arrest during the strike of twenty-two persons for molesting and insulting the militia while on duty. Chapter 604 of the Acts of 1908 provides that any person interfering with a parade, drill, or meeting, may be immediately “put under guard and kept at the discretion of the commanding officer until the drill, parade or meeting is concluded,” or the commander may commit the person to the civil authorities. Under this section there were those who wished to hold “Big Bill” Haywood for speeches delivered in Lowell and Somerville. In these the strike leader made caustic remarks about the soldiers which it was argued could be construed as interfering with the duty of the militia at Lawrence. When it was decided after consultation that such an interpretation was far fetched, a high officer of the militia, Judge A. H. Douglas Campbell, attempted to have the legislature pass an amendment to the

militia law while the strike was on, making such an arrest possible.

RESPONSIBILITY OF STRIKE LEADERS

The theory underlying the prosecution of Ettor and Giovanitti and the group of ten labor leaders later indicted, is well expressed in *State vs. Cahill*, an Iowa case quoted in the proceedings against Ettor, which declares that when there is a conspiracy to accomplish an unlawful purpose, as the forcible driving out of newly employed miners by old miners in a strike, and the means to be used are not sufficiently agreed on or understood, each conspirator becomes responsible for the means used by any co-conspirator, and when a homicide is thus committed, each is responsible for it the same as if done by him.

But further than this the charges raised a number of questions. One is in the words of a commentator in one of the New York dailies: “If strike leaders can be indicted and convicted of being accessories to murder and of conspiracy to intimidate, whenever in the course of a clash between strikers and policemen somebody is killed,” may that not be tantamount to declaring that “strikes, as in the ordinary course of human nature they manifest themselves in times of excitement, are in themselves criminal?”

Only once or twice has any attempt been made in the United States—the Molly McGuire cases in Pennsylvania and the Haymarket rioters in Chicago—to hold labor leaders as accessories to murder, in deaths which have occurred in the confusion and rancor provoked by strikes. Strike leaders, in the view of this writer, should be held to a strict accounting for disorder directly of their making, but if our courts are to take judicial notice of indirect responsibility, he asks whether the logical development of this practice would not “require the indictment in some cases of mill owners who maintain industrial conditions which result in strikes?”

WHEN THE SHOE IS ON THE OTHER FOOT

One fact which has tended to make the strikers question the impartiality of the public authorities is that while they

have been zealous to pursue investigation to the point of indicting strikers for indirect responsibility for violence, disorder, and deaths, no action whatever has been taken to throw light upon the death of a Syrian, named Ramy, from a bayonet thrust. Officers of the militia have even said that it was not certain that the gash was inflicted by a bayonet and have intimated that Ramy died from the shallow knife thrust of a striker. There is little doubt, however, that it was a bayonet wound since a number of witnesses saw the act. Some of these are willing to swear that at the time Ramy was wounded, he along with others ordered to move on, was walking and running down the street away from the militia. The cut was on his side below the arm and toward the back. The military authorities made an inquiry but refused to give the name of the soldier implicated. It was within the power of the civil authorities also to have made an investigation. In the case of every accidental or violent death in Massachusetts, an autopsy is required. If the accident occurred on a railway an inquest must be held. In other cases the inquest is at the option of the local magistrate. If such an inquest, which would not necessarily have carried any implication of guilt, had been made, it is probable that the strikers would have had more faith in the impartiality of the city authorities. Even if it was not strictly necessary to make such an investigation it might have been wise public policy to do so.

Workmen also have strong provocation for believing that they see evidence of partiality in the final outcome of the case against School Committeeman Breen, the son of an ex-mayor of Lawrence. In the early days of the strike Lawrence was horrified at the discovery of plants of dynamite. People were quick to assume that the strikers were responsible. The bottom dropped out of this assumption when Breen, a local undertaker and political handy man, was arrested. Breen was convicted in May. In contrast to the five-year terms for the strikers, Bruno and Antonio, Breen was not given a prison sentence. He was fined \$500, paid it, and is still

a school committeeman, although the Lawrence papers, backed by the central labor union and a number of the ministers, are calling for his resignation. The *Boston Herald*, a conservative paper, editorially asked in June:

Isn't the Essex County prosecution ever going to dig a little deeper than Breen in the Lawrence case? Who was behind him, and why? The I. W. W. is fond of attacking the courts as minions of the "masters." Members of the revolutionary organization are not alone in insisting that Breen was but a tool. The case hasn't been closed to the complete credit of the authorities.

THE CHILDREN'S CASES

A strange legal tangent to the strike grew out of the children's cases. The I. W. W. introduced the innovation imported from France and Italy of sending strikers' children to be cared for away from the scene of conflict. On February 24 about thirty children together with their parents were held at the Lawrence railroad station as they were about to leave for Philadelphia. The process under which the police acted was one inherited through the probate court from the old ecclesiastical tribunals of England, which formerly had special charge of the welfare of children. Commonly, in cases where the moral welfare of children is thought to be endangered, the police judge issues a citation requiring the parents to appear and show cause why the children should not be taken from them. Summary arrests have been rare. In this case the police acted on the report that some of the parents were sending their children away because of intimidation, without discrimination as to the varying circumstances and conditions in different families. There is no doubt that at the time public opinion in Lawrence, outside of the strikers, favored the action of the police both as guarding the children and because citizens felt that their going would give Lawrence a "black-eye" as it implied that the city could not care for its own. There is a feeling today, however, that the police, partly in answer to public demand, overstepped their powers. It has been said that the children and their parents were not arrested, but since they were taken from the

railway station in a patrol wagon, many might find it hard to see in what way actual arrest would differ. At the court the children were committed to the care of the probation officer for juveniles, until the following juvenile court day. Most of them were returned immediately to their parents' custody. The fact that, except in two instances, the cases against the parents after investigation were not even brought to trial, would seem to indicate that there was not much ground for stopping the children on their way to Philadelphia. Testimony was brought out, however, to show that Pearl and Willie Brown were sent to New York in another detachment of children without the authority of their parents and that they were brought back by their father. Summary restriction of the liberty of parents to send their children out of town because their purpose is disapproved or because the authorities feel that it is not necessary encroaches upon the natural rights of parents to control them.

THE RIOT CASES

Still another large group of cases produced by the strike arose from arrests for rioting. In a single day, during the strike, thirty-four defendants were arrested and without discrimination sentenced by the police magistrate to a year each in the House of Correction. All were required to give \$800 bail pending appeal. While the strike was on a few were found guilty before the February term of the Superior Court, and were given sentences, but the verdicts against the rest were afterwards reduced in most cases to fines of \$15 or \$20. The number of one-year sentences to the House of Correction imposed by Magistrate Mahoney in this one day exceeds the record of the Superior Court of the county for an entire term. Since there were also other cases considered on the same day, only from five to ten minutes could have been given to each. The haste, the heavy bail, and the long sentences all seem to have the ear-marks of disciplinary strike measures, rather than judicial decisions on the merits of the case.

Besides these major groups of cases, there were a large number of miscel-

laneous arrests of strikers for carrying dangerous weapons, intimidation, molesting of the soldiers, disturbance of the peace, assault and violation of the city ordinances. Among these was the arrest at twelve o'clock at night of the two Steinheil girls and their married sister, Mrs. Annie Welzenbach, for intimidation. The unmarried girls were fifteen and eighteen years old. To justify these midnight arrests, the police say that they had no chance to make them during the day time without creating a disturbance among bystanders. This explanation is seriously questioned because the picketing was done mainly early in the morning and again in the evening when workers were going to and from the mills. At other times the strikers usually went to their homes. The cases resulted in convictions in the police court where all three women were fined. All were appealed and in the Superior Court, after the trial of Annie Welzenbach was nearly finished, the district attorney took the case from the jury, refusing to ask for a conviction. The other two cases were dismissed.

MORAL INTIMIDATION

A decision of a most sweeping character was rendered by Judge Brown in a Lawrence case. He ruled that intimidation might be moral as well as physical. He stated as a guide to determining whether there was intimidation that words like "Don't go to work," innocent of any special threat, when spoken by an individual, might become actionable when that same person belonged to a labor union. The exact words of the ruling cannot be obtained since there was no stenographer at the trial, but a wide acceptance of this extemporized ruling would make strike picketing by union members absolutely impossible.

Since the conclusion of the strike on March 30, the unrest in the textile industry has spread and the strike leaders charge that the attitude of the Lawrence authorities is typical of their experiences throughout New England. By summary action the police of Manchester, N. H., have forbidden them to talk in that city, and the I. W. W. at present

is obliged to hold meetings in West Manchester, across the river. A few Sundays ago in Wakefield, Mass., the workers arranged for a meeting in a hall which they had hired. When it was known who were to speak, the owner of the building revoked the permission to use it and the strikers were told that they could not even conduct an outdoor meeting. After most of them had scattered, a few met at the house of one of their number. Even this meeting, held within a private dwelling, was dispersed by the police who invaded the home, historically considered in English and American law as the poor man's castle. There have been symptoms of a similar attitude on the part of the authorities of Clinton, Mass.

RECAPITULATION

Such, stated objectively, is the general range of legal proceedings growing out of the Lawrence strike. In judging of them, it should be remembered that many of them hinge on emergent decisions made during a period of industrial tension. Upon authorities of town and state and court rested the responsibility for social control, and what might have happened at Lawrence had they acted differently is a matter of conjecture. On the other hand such an outsider's statement cannot fail to throw light on the present widespread mistrust of their courts by the textile workers of Massachusetts. In the children's cases, in the arrest of young working women at midnight, in the thirty men sentenced to a year's imprisonment in a single day, they have seen all the force of government applied in an impetuous way calculated to injure their cause, only to

be later reconsidered and modified. In the attempt to apply the militia law to Haywood, in the arrest of the ten strike leaders for conspiracy to intimidate and of Ettor and Giovanitti as accessories to murder in all cases on the presumption that strike leaders are responsible for whatever their followers may do, they have seen the law stretched to bring the strike leaders within its discipline. In contrast with this energy toward their fellows, they have seen the state, which sent Bruno and Antonio to prison for five years, let off Breen with a fine, and fail to unearth his conspirators, if any; they have seen the bayoneting of a Syrian boy left a needlessly unfathomed mystery. It is facts such as these which indicate that the governmental fabric of New England is jeopardized not only by the gospel of social revolution preached by some of its labor leaders, but by a disregard of inherent principles of fair play and even-handedness to all comers in the instinctive recoil of the dominant element in the commonwealth against what they regard as crime and sedition.

It is facts such as these which have led many citizens of Massachusetts to fear that public opinion in Essex County is so prejudicial to Ettor and Giovanitti as to make it difficult to secure for them a strictly fair trial. It is conditions such as these which test the efficiency of our legal system in times of unusual stress. The conduct of these cases may go far to win the respect, if not friendship, of the mill workers of New England, or the outcome may plant and spread the seeds of distrust in the honesty of American justice.

SOCIAL PROGRESS

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS AT THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION¹

JULIAN W. MACK

Judge of the Court of Commerce, Washington, D. C.

The change in the attitude of society toward the dependent classes is well portrayed by the difference in the program of the national conference at its session in Cleveland in 1880 and at the session of 1912. Then we were concerned with the problem of how best to alleviate suffering, to cure the ills that by common belief many of our fellow-citizens are inevitably doomed to bear. The discussions on public charities were as to their administration rather than as to their scope. At that time, the state was more concerned with correction than with charities. Lady Bountiful typified in a large measure the generally prevailing method of private philanthropy. That the poor would always be with us was a dogma of social service as well as of religion.

The road we have traveled in thirty-two years has been a long one, but the pace has been that of the automobile and the flying-machine. During the past decade, we have all been afire with enthusiasm born of the newer and nobler thought that prevention is better than cure. Preventive philanthropy became the dominant note in our proceedings. The causes of dependency and delinquency were sought for with the aid of the scientists. The discovery that their roots were to be found not only and not primarily in the individual, but in society itself, gave greater hope to the thoughtful, that with a stronger and more united effort of all of the forces working for good in the community, the next generation might be saved from the destructive and insidious diseases and wrongs to which mankind had for ages been heir, and from the effects of which the poorest and the weakest of its members had naturally been the greatest sufferers.

The golden age of childhood had arrived. However we might deal with the adult victim of social wrongs, to the child

we were determined to accord the birth-right of every human being—the opportunity for the development of its highest powers. To prevent it from engaging too early and in too dangerous occupations, to substitute the school for the factory, to save it from the brutal and criminalizing treatment that still marked the prevailing method of dealing with the adult offender, these were the movements that enlisted the co-operation of enlightened philanthropists and resulted in the enactment of anti-child labor, compulsory education, and juvenile court laws.

But even today, we are only at the threshold of the halls of hope. In some states, the smallest of the children are still permitted to work. In none of them are the child labor laws up to the standard deemed necessary by the National Child Labor Committee and approved by the Commissioners on Uniform State Legislation. Nowhere is the financial provision as yet adequate for a proper enforcement of the law. The little merchant of the street still plies his trade, generally unlicensed and uncontrolled, too often even at the early age of six and eight.

We are but beginning to grapple with the difficult task of determining what to do with the untrained boys and girls of fourteen to sixteen years.

During the past year, bitter assaults have been leveled against juvenile probation and the juvenile court in the very city of its origin, and that, despite the general acclaim, both here and abroad, with which this children's Magna Charta has been received. The splendid report of the Hotchkiss Committee, while demonstrating what its friends have ever asserted, that the juvenile court cannot be a cure-all, while pointing out its deficiencies, while suggesting many desirable improvements, has clearly and effectively established its supremacy over the old-time methods of dealing with juvenile offenders. The substitution of

¹For general report of conference see page 519 of this issue.

love and sympathy and understanding for punishment, of probation for imprisonment, of the industrial school for the reformatory and penitentiary, is such a great step forward in our civilization that no temporary setbacks whether due to the failure to accomplish the impossible, or to the reactionary opposition of baffled politicians, can stay its triumphal onward march.

For some years, however, we have been passing beyond the age of mere preventive work. Eradication of evil is not enough. Constructive philanthropy demands that it be replaced by the positive good. Childhood needs protection against the dangers of an evil birth, not merely by preventing marriage of the unfit (though this alone requires a great extension of the custodial care and the treatment of the weak-minded, the insane, the epileptic and the habitual criminal) but also by shielding the mother from unnecessary work for a sufficient period before and after birth, and by requiring a better education of midwives. Infant mortality is to be reduced and the age of babyhood made safer, not alone by preventing the sale of impure milk and adulterated food, but by teaching the mothers the great value of natural feeding.

The child's right to a healthy, normal family life is to be met, not merely by forbidding child labor and by destroying the pest-breeding hovels of the slums, but also by maintaining the integrity of the family through freeing the wage-earner from unnecessary and avoidable industrial accidents and diseases threatening his premature death, through making it possible for the widowed mother to remain at home and devote herself to the nurture and training of her children.

The child's right to an education is not satisfied by an adherence to the old-time curriculum suited, if at all, to but few of the more fortunate of the pupils, but requires the introduction into the public school system of manual and industrial training, of continuation and vacation and open air classes, of the visiting teacher and the newer methods of individualization to the end that each child's true vocation may, if possible, be found and

that it may be fitted spiritually, morally, mentally, and physically to unfold all of its latent resources. No longer should we wait for the child to go wrong or to be orphaned and to be sent to one of the excellent industrial schools maintained for delinquent and dependent children, in order that it may receive the education fitting it for its life work; no longer should we delay until the child gets into the juvenile court before giving it a thorough examination to discover and to repair decayed teeth, adenoid growths, impaired eyesight and hearing, and other latent defects. Constructive philanthropy insists that the child, compelled to go to school, shall be in every way fitted to pursue its studies. The physician and the nurse in the school-room, far from lessening the parental responsibility, will enable the state to know wherein the parents have neglected or failed in their duties, and will afford a safe legal basis for the enforcement thereof.

The child's right to play should not be limited to the opportunities of the street: it needs the supervised playground, the athletic field, the gymnasium, and the swimming-pool.

To close indecent dance-halls, to suppress improper shows whether in the larger or in the nickel theatres, and to destroy other places wherein vice disguised in gaudy and, to the untutored, highly attractive garbs and colors, beckons youth to its destruction, will not suffice. Through church and settlement, school centers and municipal halls, our young people must be given the opportunity to satisfy decently, beautifully, sanely, their ever insistent and justifiable cry for recreation, joy, and happiness.

Adolescents must be guarded from the dangers of that period, not only by the development and strengthening of character through the teachings of religion and morality, but also by wise and careful instruction in the mysteries of life itself and in the terrible dangers both to the guilty and to the innocent that follow in the wake of sexual abuse and wrongs.

Young girls are to be saved from a life worse than death, not only by the abso-

lute suppression of the white slave traffic and commercialized vice through the united efforts of private organizations, the municipality, the state, and the nation, but also by the active sympathetic interest of the good women in the lives of the strangers who, from country towns and foreign lands, flock to our large cities, ignorant of their dangers, free from the conserving influence of family and friends. No one has pointed out more clearly than Jane Addams in her most recent and timely book, *A New Conscience and an Ancient Evil*, what these perils are, and in how large a measure society and not the individual is responsible therefor. Mindful, however, of her closing words, that "as the sense of justice fast widens to encircle all human relations it must at last reach the women who have so long been judged without a hearing," let us open again the doors of hope to these despairing victims of man's wrong and society's neglect.

Constructive and preventive charity, public and private, thus working together, will bring the child to man's estate stronger and purer, trained in hand and mind and soul to fight the battles of life. That much of this must be done by the state is fully recognized even by the strongest individualists, for few will any longer deny the ultimate obligation of the state toward its wards—the children. And perhaps the most significant event for us during the past year has been the final recognition by the federal government that it, too, has a duty towards the children of the nation, limited in its scope, it is true, but nevertheless of great importance. Well may we rejoice in the establishment of the Federal Children's Bureau and in the appointment as its first chief of one who now is, and for many years past has been, an active participant in our labors, an able and energetic member of the Illinois State Board of Charities, the efficient organizer of some of the most valuable research work undertaken by the Russell Sage Foundation, supremely active in securing the first juvenile court law, friend of all in distress, the wise, broad-minded woman—Julia Lathrop.

Turning from the children to the adults, we note a similar progress in the

field both of charity and correction. Today we are not only endeavoring to ascertain and to eradicate the social causes of poverty, distress, and disease so as to safeguard future generations, but in dealing with their present victims, we aim at a complete rehabilitation. While tactful, thorough, and devoted personal service is always essential to arouse the latent powers of self-reliance, fear of pauperization no longer blinds us to the need of giving, and giving adequately, whenever the circumstances call for material assistance. In the new Court of Domestic Relations the state is lending effective aid towards the preservation of the home by dealing with the family as a unit.

Our criminal law and procedure and our prison administration have not kept pace with the social progress of the age. The substitution in several cities of a central municipal court with its branches for the old-time local police courts, and the creation of the night court in New York are steps in the right direction. Public interpreters for the foreigners and public defenders for the accused, especially in the minor criminal courts, are as important as the public prosecutor. That poverty alone and the consequent inability to pay a fine in cash and at once, should send men to prison, will surely not be tolerated much longer. Adult probation coupled with the obligation to make restitution in periodical installments, either to the person wronged or by way of a fine to the state, or both, is in a few progressive states saving many a first offender from the terrible stigma of a prison career. If reformation is to displace punishment as the chief aim of imprisonment, the spirit of the prisoner must not be crushed out. Convict labor ought never to be a source of profit to the state; by devoting his enforced earnings over and above the cost of his maintenance directly, and not by way of charity, to the care of his family, the convict's feeling of responsibility for their maintenance will be preserved.

Many of the sessions of this conference will again be occupied with the study of newer plans and methods in charitable and correctional work. And though, through our inherited philosophy that all

men are born free and equal, with its assumed corollary that legal and political equality is a sufficient safeguard against wrong, the active interference of the state for the prevention and correction of social evils, has in the past been unduly limited, today, after the struggle of life has demonstrated the falsity of this *laissez faire* doctrine, public philanthropy, ameliorative, preventive and constructive, is actively aiding in the task long performed by private charity alone; and for generations to come, whatever the future of our political development may be, the work of charity will remain a function as well of the state as of the individual.

But in the past few years, a voice, never silent in the history of the world, has been growing deeper and louder, the voice of man calling unto men, not for alms, not for charity, but for justice; and this body, though it remain a National Conference of Charities and Correction, will more and more in the course of time become a national conference for the consideration of those measures which, in dealings between individuals and between the individual and the state, will accord to each man that justice which is his due. Not that we should for a moment replace love with justice, not that we should banish mercy and compassion, not that we should emphasize rights and minimize duties; on the contrary, true social justice implies love, compassion, and personal service. It demands, however, that society in its organized capacity shall secure each individual in the full enjoyment of all those fundamental rights without which no human being can fulfill his God-given destiny. As we advance in civilization, they will increase in number and broaden in extent. In our day, a minimum in addition to those of the children already enumerated, and those guaranteed in all our constitutions, is the right to work and to secure the just fruits of one's labor, and therefore to protection against unemployment and against a wage less than sufficient to maintain the family in decency according to the prevailing standards of a free and prosperous people; the right to life itself, and therefore to protection so far as is humanly possible, against overfatigue and other industrial

poisons and accidents; the right to reasonable hours for self-improvement and the upbuilding of the family, and therefore to protection against exploitation, the seven day work, and unduly long hours of labor; the right to old age, reasonably free from care and anxiety, and therefore the opportunity for adequate insurance against everything that threatens to impoverish or imperil the family, the corner-stone of our civilization.

In accordance with the Anglo-Saxon spirit, we have struggled and we are struggling to attain these ends, so far as possible, through private initiative, through the sense of responsibility of men in their individual relations to each other, and only ultimately and as a last resort, through the state. As evidencing a newly aroused feeling of private responsibility, and as tending to create a better relation between employer and employe, the extension of their welfare work and the creation of pension funds by many large corporations, the immediate response of the Pullman Company to the suggestion by a single stockholder of the need of greater medical supervision and care, and the recommendations of the stockholders' committee of the United States Steel Corporation, especially if they shall be promptly put into effect, are most significant.

The actual and the threatened strikes of the past year have brought us face to face with fresh perils to the common weal, resulting from our newer industrial conditions, which, particularly in view of the growing need of protecting the rights of the public at large, often the greatest sufferer, would seem to make some form of state intervention inevitable. Whether this shall be by mediation and conciliation, through an extension of the scope of the Erdmann act, under the operation of which railroad strikes have for some years been well-nigh averted, or through legislation along the lines of the Canadian Industrial Disputes Act, or by the more stringent methods of compulsory arbitration, is one of the most serious and difficult questions of the day. It is therefore greatly to be hoped that Congress will act favorably on the President's message recommending, in response to an address draft-

ed and signed by many of the leaders of this conference, the creation of a federal commission on industrial relations, to study and to report as to how industrial conflicts may best be avoided and, when this is impossible, how they may be quickly settled without violence and disruption of business, but with due regard to the real interests and just claims both of the immediate parties and of the state.

That the influx of vast numbers of diverse races brings with it peculiar difficulties unknown to other nations is not to be denied. Are we however in such danger therefrom that we must close the gates of our country to honest, thrifty, characterful people of the old world, who, like our forefathers, come to the Promised Land seeking for themselves and their children a refuge from religious, political, or even economic oppression? Shall we depart from our settled policy of regulation and inaugurate an era of restriction, requiring of the sturdy peasants of Europe, as a condition of their admission that they shall have acquired the power to read and to write, though their mother land has denied them the opportunity therefor? Aye, more, shall we as a nation, for the first time, deliver up political refugees guilty of no crimes in this land of liberty? If it were conceivable that the best interests of the people of the United States could require such legislation, no claims of humanity at large should prevent its adoption. But if, as many of us think, this country needs for the fulfilment of its true destiny the fresh assimilable blood of many nations; if, as many of us contend, it requires for its material advancement the brawn and strength of Europe's masses; if, as many of us believe, a nation of great material prosperity can best avert the ever threatening danger of the loss of its ideals by drawing into its citizenship the poets, the thinkers, the prophets, the seers, and the martyrs of other peoples, then assuredly the day of more restrictive immigration laws has not yet come.

But whatever our views on this question, there can be no difference of opinion as to our duty towards those immigrants who meet our requirements and enter our portals. Upon our treatment

of them will depend their future usefulness. If we permit them, in their ignorance of our language and our customs, to become the victims of the forces of vice and crime that in all our larger cities are lying in wait for them, we shall quickly reap the harvest of our folly.

The real immigration problems are those of distribution and protection. Sectarian organizations have for many years aided newcomers to leave the crowded cities of the East for the towns and the farms of the South and West, and recently have diverted a part of the stream of immigration from Ellis Island to Galveston. To the extent of the very limited means placed at its disposal, the Division of Information in the Federal Immigration Bureau has likewise assisted in this work. Within the past few months a non-sectarian immigration distribution league has been started with the co-operation of many of the governors and other leading citizens from all sections of the country.

In addition to many sectarian and strictly national societies, the North American Civic League for Immigrants, the Immigrants' Protective League of Chicago, and kindred organizations are the great non-sectarian forces of private philanthropy working for the immigrant's protection. In most of our large cities special night schools are, in a measure, doing for the adult immigrant what the public school everywhere is doing for his children. New York has set an example for the other states, in her recent establishment of a state immigrant bureau, even though she has not yet given it the financial support that it so well deserves. And if Congress will enact a measure now pending before it, extending the care and protection of the federal government beyond Ellis Island, by properly supervising the immigrant trains and by establishing immigrant stations in Chicago and other interior centers, the united action of private organizations, the municipality, the state and the nation will indeed lighten the pathway of the newcomers and guide them more safely toward their goal of American citizenship.

Legislation must take note of the changes in our industrial life. The

judge-made principles of our common law of master and servant, however suited they may have been to an earlier economic age, no longer embody the true spirit of social justice of the twentieth century. Private property and human life are each to be protected to the fullest extent, but if the welfare of the state and the people thereof requires that the financial burdens resulting from the inevitable accidents and occupational diseases of our present industrial system shall be borne by the business rather than by the worker, legislation along these lines must in one way or the other be made possible. This country will assuredly lose its supremacy, if the hands of the present generation are to be so effectively tied by a dead past that it cannot, at the proper time, emulate European countries in their social legislation.

Whatever justification there may be for the criticism of certain judicial decisions in a few states, no careful student of the work of our courts can fail to recognize that most judges and most courts, following the splendid lead of the Supreme Court of the United States, are as keenly desirous as are social workers to learn such facts bearing upon our changed conditions, as have been gathered together in Miss Goldmark's great work on *Fatigue and Efficiency*, and to utilize them, so far as they may be applicable, in the solution of legal problems.

When ignorance, indifference, or private greed menaces the welfare of the state or its citizens, we no longer hesitate to demand that legislation which to our forefathers would have appeared highly paternalistic. And if the evil is nation-wide, the remedy must be national in its scope, even though, to the extreme adherent of states' rights, we may seem to be wandering far from the path trodden by the great founders a century and a quarter ago. The phosphorous match bill just enacted by Congress may mark a step forward in federal legislation, but it is a step in the right direction, to safeguard human life.

Potent, however, as is the force of law, organized society can but voice the desires of its members. Social advance is dependent upon individual progress. Until the spirit of love for our fellowmen, regardless of race, color, or

creed, shall fill the world, making real in our lives and in our deeds the actuality of human brotherhood deduced from that common fatherhood to which all of us, though in different ways, ultimately subscribe; until the great mass of the people shall be filled with the sense of their obligation to strive mightily for the betterment of their fellowmen through service, social justice can never be attained. And therefore no event of the past year has been so full of promise for the future as the great Men and Religion Forward Movement. It has emphasized more strongly perhaps than ever before in the history of the Protestant evangelical churches that, to quote a follower of the Hebrew prophets, Claude G. Montefiore, the goal of religion consists "in social betterment as well as in individual purification"; that it is concerned "with the things about which the hearts of men are palpitating *now*, the things which make them suffer, and the things which might make them suffer less," as well as with "the private relations of the individual soul with God."

In this conference are gathered together men and women of all religions, men and women who subscribe to no specific creed. Whatever our differences may be, we shall all agree with Montefiore that, "while religion is more than good air, good water, good food, good wages, in its social fullness, it is not less." However strong may be the emphasis that has heretofore been laid upon social service as a religious duty, surely the bonds of human brotherhood would be strengthened and the cause of social justice advanced, if a broader Forward Movement, limited not to men, and not to the followers of a single religion, were, by the united action of such representatives of all faiths as are gathered here tonight, carried into every city, village, and hamlet of our land. We should not then have to await another Titanic disaster to find all men, regardless of race and creed, rank and station, riches and poverty, standing together upon a common platform of genuine democracy, vying with each other in upholding the noblest traditions of the race, sacrificing even life itself in the service of the weakest and the poorest of their fellows.

A PLATFORM OF INDUSTRIAL MINIMUMS

The platform of industrial minimums put forward at Cleveland in June was not hastily drafted. For three years the committee on standards of living and labor of the National Conference of Charities and Correction had been giving up its section meetings to the discussion of the major headings—wages, hours, safety and health, housing, term of working life, compensation and insurance. For twelve months the members of the committee, representatives of the leading national organizations and movements in social and industrial reform, had been drawing its planks. The National Conference passed no resolutions and it was only after an all day session that those present adjourned as a section meeting, reconvened as citizens, and with only minor textual changes put forth the platform as presented by the chairman of the committee, Owen R. Lovejoy.

Three major principles were laid down by the committee which will be seen to run through each of the six headings:

First, that the public element in industry gives the community a right to complete knowledge of the facts of work;

Second, on the basis of these facts and with the recent discoveries of physicians and neurologists, engineers and economists, the public can formulate minimum occupational standards below which, demonstrably, work is prosecuted only at a human deficit;

Third, the platform holds that all industrial conditions which fall below such standards should come within the scope of governmental action and control in the same way that subnormal sanitary conditions are subject to public regulations, because such conditions threaten the general welfare.

The standards follow.

WAGES

1. **A LIVING WAGE.** A living wage for all who devote their time and energy to industrial occupations. The monetary equivalent of a living wage varies according to local conditions, but must include enough to secure the elements of a normal standard of living; to provide for education and recreation; to care for immature members of the family; to maintain the family during periods of sickness; and to permit of reasonable saving for old age.

2. **MINIMUM WAGE COMMISSIONS.** Many industrial occupations, especially where women, children, and immigrant men are employed, do not pay wages to maintain a normal standard of living. Minimum wage commissions should therefore be established in each state to inquire into wages paid in various industries, and to determine the standard which the public will sanction as the minimum.

3. **WAGE PUBLICITY.** Properly constituted authorities should be empowered to require all employers to file with them for public purposes such wage scales, and other data as the public element in industry demands. The movement for honest weights and measures has its counterpart in industry. All tallies, scales, and check systems should be open to public inspection and inspection of committees of the workers concerned. Changes in wage rates, systems of dockage, bonuses, and all other modifications of the wage contract should be posted, and wages should be paid in cash at least every two weeks.

HOURS

1. **EIGHT-HOUR DAY.** The establishment of the eight-hour day for all men employed in continuous industries, and as a maximum for women and minors in all industries.

2. **SIX-DAY WEEK.** The work period lim-

ited to six days in each week; and a period of rest of forty consecutive hours in each week.

3. **NIGHT WORK.** Night work for minors entirely prohibited; an uninterrupted period of at least eight hours night rest for all women; and night work for men minimized wherever possible.

SAFETY AND HEALTH

1. **INVESTIGATION.** An investigation by the federal government of all industries, on the plan pursued in the present investigation of mining, with a view to establishing standards of sanitation and safety and a basis for compensation for injury. This should include a scientific study and report upon fire-escapes, safety-appliances, sanitary conditions, and the effects of ventilation, dust, poisons, heat, cold, compressed air, steam, glare, darkness, speed, and noise.

2. **PROHIBITION OF POISONS.** Prohibition of manufacture or sale of poisonous articles dangerous to life of worker, whenever harmless substitutes are possible, on the principle already established by Congress in relation to poisonous phosphorus matches.

3. **REGULATION ACCORDING TO HAZARD.** In trades and occupations offering a menace to life, limb, or health, the employment of women and minors regulated according to the degree of hazard. No minor under 18 employed in any dangerous occupation, or in occupations which involve danger to fellow workmen or require use of explosives, poisonous gases, or other injurious ingredients. Unskilled craftsmen who do not read and understand the English language forbidden to handle dangerous machinery or processes known to be extra hazardous.

4. **STANDARDIZED INSPECTION.** Inspection of mines and work places standardized either by interstate agreement or by establishing of a

government standard. All deaths, injuries, and diseases due to industrial operations to be reported to public authorities as required in accident laws of Minnesota, and with respect to some trade diseases in New York.

HOUSING

1. **THE RIGHT TO A HOME.** Social welfare demands for every family a safe and sanitary home; healthful surroundings; ample and pure running water inside the house; modern and sanitary toilet conveniences for its exclusive use, located inside the building; adequate sunlight and ventilation; reasonable fire protection; privacy; rooms of sufficient size and number to decently house the members of the family; freedom from dampness; prompt, adequate collection of all waste materials. These fundamental requirements for normal living should be obtainable by every family, reasonably accessible from place of employment, at a rental not to exceed 20 per cent of the family income.

2. **TAXES.** To protect wage earners from exorbitant rents and to secure for them that increased municipal service demanded by the massing together of people in thickly settled industrial communities, a greater share of taxes to be transferred from dwellings to land held for speculative purposes the value of which is enhanced by the very congestion of these industrial populations.

3. **HOME WORK.** Factory production to be carried on in factories. Whenever work is given out to homes, abuses are sure to creep in which cannot be controlled by any known system of inspection or supervision.

4. **TENEMENT MANUFACTURE.** Tenement house manufacture is known to be a serious menace to the health, education, and economic independence of thousands of people in large cities. It subjects children to injurious industrial burdens and cannot be successfully regulated by inspection or other official supervision. Public welfare, therefore, demands for city tenements the entire prohibition of manufacture of articles of commerce in rooms occupied for dwelling purposes.

5. **LABOR COLONIES.** In temporary construction camps and labor colonies, definite standards to provide against over-crowding, and for ventilation, water supply, sanitation, to be written into the contract specifications, as now provided in the New York law.

TERM OF WORKING LIFE

Society may reasonably demand from every normal individual his self-support during a certain period of life. This period should be bounded by a minimum age, to protect against premature labor, and a maximum age beyond which the wage earner should find himself economically independent of daily labor. Adoption of the following standards will promote this end.

1. **EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN.** Prohibition of all wage-earning occupations for children under 16 years of age.

2. **EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.** Prohibition of

employment of women in manufacturing, commerce, or other trades where work compels standing constantly. Also prohibition for a period of at least eight weeks at time of child birth.

3. **INTERMITTENT EMPLOYMENT.** Any industrial occupation subject to rush periods and out-of-work seasons to be considered abnormal, and subject to government review and regulation. Official investigation of such intermittent employment and other forms of unemployment as a basis for better distribution of immigrants, for guiding seasonal laborers from trade to trade, and other methods for lessening these evils.

4. **THE UNEMPLOYABLE.** The restrictions upon employers set forth in this platform will lead them to refuse to engage any who fall below a grade of industrial efficiency which renders their work profitable. An increased army of industrial outcasts will be thrown upon society to be cared for in public labor colonies or by various relief agencies. This condition will in turn necessitate a minimum standard of preparation, including at least sufficient educational opportunity to abolish illiteracy among all minors and to train every worker to some form of industrial efficiency.

COMPENSATION OR INSURANCE

COMPENSATION DEMANDED. Both social and individual welfare require some effective system of compensation for the heavy loss now sustained by industrial workers as a result of unavoidable accidents, industrial diseases, sickness, invalidism, involuntary unemployment, and old age.

1. **ACCIDENTS.** Equitable standards of compensation must be determined by extensive experience, but there is already ample precedent for immediate adoption as a minimum the equivalent of four years' wages in compensation for accidents resulting fatally. Compensation for accidents resulting in permanent disability should not be less than 65 per cent. of the annual wage for a period of 15 years.

2. **TRADE DISEASES.** For diseases clearly caused by nature and conditions of the industry, the same compensation as for accidents.

3. **OLD AGE.** Service pensions or old age insurance whenever instituted so protected that the person who withdraws or is discharged from the employment of a given company does not forfeit his equity in the same.

4. **UNEMPLOYMENT.** Unemployment of able-bodied adult men under 65 years of age is abnormal and wasteful, and is as proper a subject for recognition by the public authorities as contagious disease or other abnormal conditions which menace the public well being. The demand for insurance against unemployment increases with the increasing specialization in industry. The development of state, municipal, and private agencies to insure against unemployment in European countries affords ample information for the guidance of such enterprises in America.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

WINTHROP D. LANE

Cleveland has a way of revivifying one's faith in the city as the "hope of democracy." Fifteen hundred members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction last month caught something from its spirit in helping to expand the range and democratic emphasis of their own body.

In return, the conference, by its vital facts and living aims, brought conviction where none had existed and put sparks into Cleveland's imagination. It brought the broad spirit of social progress and nation-building outlined by Judge Mack in his presidential address. In its serious discussion and occasional clashes over such questions as immigration restriction, eugenics, the control of commercialized prostitution, and pensions to parents, the conference showed the nature of problems whose solution rests, more than upon others, upon the institution managers, the case-workers, the public officials, the settlement leaders and all who make up this assemblage. And not only in discussion, but in a coherent program for industry, which social workers put forward not as a conference but as individuals, a contribution was made to nation, state, and city. City of industries, as Cleveland is, she furnished a fitting background for the positive pronouncements of this platform.

When Moses Cleaveland, prospecting

for the Connecticut Land Company, laid out a town in 1796 on the site of a trading post where the Cuyahoga river empties into Lake Erie he did not plan for six hundred thousand people. Doubtless Moses is not to be blamed for this, for thirty-four years later, when he was twenty-four years dead, the spot had attracted only 1,076 permanent residents. Moses could not have foreseen the cutting of a canal through to the Ohio river and

the harbor improvements which made his forest clearing a lake outlet for the mineral and agricultural products of a new civilization. He could not have foretold the slow net-working of the Middle West by railroads, nor could he have prophesied the discovery of the world's richest iron mines where Lake Superior juts back into the continent. Hence he little realized that when the ore from this region, winding its water route to the Atlantic seaboard, met the coal

and oil from Pennsylvania and Ohio, the place of contact would be big with the possibilities of industry and commerce.

Yet this, in essence, is the story of Cleveland's growth; the strategy of nature tells the tale. To be sure, Cleveland is the largest market for fresh-water fish in America, and is the headquarters of the greatest shoddy mills in the country; but these are mere incidents in her expansion. Industries, like people, are



FRANK TUCKER
President of the 1913 National Conference of Charities and Correction.

gregarious, and where raw materials are easily assembled finished products are usually near by.

On the human side, Cleveland's development repeated the world-old story of unguided, uninterrupted, unimaginative herding. There was work to do and people came to do it. Doubling and tripling of population within a decade is easy when new land is to be settled, but between 1830 and 1840 Cleveland, guarding the commercial highway of a new and productive territory, quintupled her population. By 1850 she had 17,000 people, and then came the railroads. When the Civil War broke out she was 45,000 strong. Cleveland flourished during the Civil War, for the federal government needed iron products and clothing, and Cleveland could make them. By 1880 she was the eleventh city in the United States. With the opening of the Superior ore fields the Cleveland of today laid her foundations. In the decade since 1900 she showed a greater percentage of increase than any other of our first eight cities, and was the only one to overtake another in the race toward the top of the population column. With 560,000 in 1910, Cleveland became the sixth city in the United States.

But mere figures do not convey the full picture of her human growth. Twelve years ago three-fourths of Cleveland's people were foreign-born, or the children of foreign parents. One-third were themselves immigrants. Of these, Germans were predominant, with Bohemians and Irish next. To-day Poles and Hungarians have thrown their racial admixtures into the melting-pot. Bohemian, Hungarian, and German daily newspapers are published.

It was this city which contributed to the National Conference last month the largest audience which it has ever known. It was the press of this city which, at a time when the political grist was the most plentiful in the history of parties, opened its columns to a greater quantity of conference news than any papers ever had done before. But it was not only the Cleveland of oil refineries, of steel specialties, and of automobile parts that did this. It was the Cleveland of three-cent street-car fares and of the lowest

death rate among the large American cities. It was the Cleveland which boasts a larger home use of its public libraries than Chicago and a larger per capita circulation than Boston or New York, Philadelphia or Cincinnati. It was the Cleveland that has already expended \$12,000,000 on a "group plan" of public buildings which when completed will cost upwards of \$25,000,000. It was the Cleveland which insists that more of its residents own their own homes than is the case in any other city of equal size. It was, finally, the Cleveland which claims a greater amount of intelligent acquaintance with civic affairs among its citizens than can be found elsewhere in the United States. The tent meetings during the traction campaigns a few years ago were great schools of public questions, and night after night the people listened to presentations of the law and the facts, transfused with the vision of the city that was to be. At the mayor's luncheon, held under the auspices of the conference committee on standards of living and labor, when the spirit of the late Tom L. Johnson, mayor and man, was vivified by his successor and associate, Newton D. Baker, this story was told:

A man once came to Mr. Baker and said: "My town is going to have a street railway fight. I want to know all about Cleveland's."

"I shall be only too glad to tell you all I know," said Mr. Baker, "but unfortunately I have appointments until one o'clock. Will you come back then?"

"How can I most profitably put in the two hours until that time?" asked the stranger.

The answer was: "Go out on the public square, sit down by the most unlikely man you can find—the one who looks most as if he didn't know the difference between a franchise and a double track. Ask that man to tell you about Cleveland's street railway fight, and when you come back I will tell you whatever you haven't been able to learn from him."

The man came back at the end of two hours. "I needn't keep my appointment here," he said. "I found an old chap whose feet were out of his shoes, whose

elbows were out of his shirt sleeves, and who looked as if he had just sobered up for the first time in a month—in short, I found the unlikeliest looking individual at large. I put one question to him and he started right in at the beginning and filled in all the details and brought me down to date. There's nothing for you to tell me unless you know what's *going* to happen. He hasn't been let in on that."

This coming together of the expert and the man in the street, which has been characteristic of the militant city movements of the past decade, is scarcely less true of the fields of social concern treated by the National Conference. It would be impossible to interest an entire city in the book-keeping of a car-barn as such, but when this is lifted into a place in the city's program of achievement, then the capacity of the people to study and understand is well-nigh limitless.

In this day of the birth of new politics, old shibboleths are giving way to new visions, and no man can tell where the method ceases and the end begins. So long as men are striving toward accepted goals and the objects of endeavor are matters of common agreement, stress is laid upon technique; at such a time procedure and method are all-important. But when there is groping for new aims, and the design is not clearly outlined, interest stretches out to other phases of activity, and emphasis is laid upon ultimate purposes. The trend then becomes more absorbing than the manner; the seer is more listened to than the technician.

So it is that in the programs of the National Conference of Charities and Correction there has been a shifting away from the old discussion of technique as such; social work has been gathered up into sheafs of social proposals which have seemed to the older members to crowd out the legitimate business of the conference as a professional gathering, but which, once they have laid hold of the imagination, have gained a hearing from great groups of active citizens whose interest the old-time discussions failed to elicit.

In its earliest days the conference amounted to little more than a conclave of state boards of charities. Later city and town associated charities were included, but throughout this period and indeed until quite recently it dealt largely with the needy and defective classes. Its questions were: What shall we do with the insane, the blind, the chronic poor? It discussed the technique of state care and of workhouse management. Its ultimate considera-



JULIAN W. MACK
President of the 1912 National Conference of Charities and Correction.

tion was the misfit, the subnormal in society. Today many of these topics still remain, for they are still live, but it is significant that the various groups dealing professionally with specialized problems have been organizing independent though closely affiliated bodies, through which they can get down to hard pan in their own fields while the attention of the main conference, less encumbered by shop talk, can devote itself to issues challenging public opinion. Thus seven years ago the agencies dealing with dependent, delinquent, and neglected children crystalized in this way, and not a

few of the other meetings which are reviewed on later pages have in a sense been carved out of the parent body. Last year the societies for organizing charity, whose problems of procedure and method formerly loomed large on the conference programs, launched a new body for the more adequate discussion of their affairs. This year the state boards, the oldest and perhaps the most reluctant group to accept the new situation, followed their example. New topics have crowded out the old debates; a broadened emphasis has brought new subjects to the foreground. It is as if the conference had asked itself: How far shall our deliberations center on helping the poor, succoring the needy, protecting the defective, and how far shall they deal with the creation of better conditions of life and labor for the whole people? Citizenship, wholesomeness, growth are words replacing custody, defectiveness, and special treatment.

Glance at the titles of the standing committees which blocked out discussion at the conference of 1902: state supervision and administration of charities and correction; the feeble-minded and epileptic; the insane; hospitals, dispensaries and nursing; tuberculosis; destitute and neglected children; juvenile delinquents; needy families in their homes; the treatment of criminals; politics and charity; neighborhood and civic improvement. Seven out of eleven deal with special classes of defectives, dependents, or delinquents. Two covered a part of the field now covered by the single committee on children; two more a part of that covered at Cleveland by the committee on courts and prisons. Nowhere were the problems of industry touched upon, nowhere was mention made of any of those forces seeking to eliminate venereal taint from future generations. Only in the title of the last committee is there a glimpse at those wider-reaching movements which include, not this or that special division of the subnormal, but humanity at large, in its normal phases and accustomed haunts.

The conference seems to have said to itself: We are almost 2,000 strong. We are of every shade of opinion and activ-

ity. At our annual meetings we speak directly to the populace of a whole city. Through our delegates we speak to distant sections of the country and through the press we have the ear of a nation. We must teach the things which are of first importance, the things which concern the common citizenship. We must begin with the normal, and treat those conditions of life in which average manhood, womanhood, and childhood shall be spent. If the man who devotes eleven months every year to the relief of family need, or to immigrant colonization, or to shortening the hours of industry, will come to this conference we will send him away with a new vision of our combined aims and a fresh perspective of his own task. These aims are not of interest to specialists alone. They need the intelligence and the conscience of all mankind.

How, except as a result of some such change as the one here described, can explanation be made of the committee on standards of living and labor which devoted this, its third year, to the formulation of a social platform for industry,¹ on the ground that industry "must submit to such public regulation as will make it a means of life and health, not of death or inefficiency." Copies of this social program were sent to the Republican and Democratic conventions, where efforts were made to have them incorporated in the party platforms. Women's clubs, church conferences, federations of labor, and associations of manufacturers will be urged to agitate them, with the ultimate aim federal and state legislation to put them into effect.

In its treatment of immigration the conference showed a further determination to shape the conditions of life for masses of people. As usual, debate centered on the precise angle at which our national portals should be allowed to swing. There was disagreement in the committee, but a listener could gain no other impression than that a majority, favored a wide open door, with no literacy stairway leading to the threshold.

The immigration problem thus

¹See page 517 of this number of THE SURVEY.

trenched, not only on the field of industry but on that of racial selection, in which also this year's discussions were distinctive. With the accumulation of facts concerning sex hygiene which has gone on so rapidly during recent years, and with the clearer perception of society's obligation to protect itself and posterity from the blight of suicidal vice, a practice has sprung up in some of our colleges of gathering together the male freshmen and putting them through a rigorous two hours' instruction in the causes and effects of venereal contagion. In Cleveland the scene of this clinic was transferred and the class became 2,000 men and women who sat silent for an hour while the veil was lifted from the mystery of sex relations and the physical aftermath of libertinism was stated in terms of race ruin. One of the instructors was a woman, Prof. Jessie Phelps, who told her mixed audience in Cleveland what she is constantly telling mixed audiences of prospective teachers in the state normal school at Ypsilanti, Mich.

Under the auspices of the same committee which arranged this program, the conference listened for the first time to a scientific outlining of the basis and program of eugenics. "Elimination of the inherently unfit and anti-social element of society, with propagation of the higher and better strains of human life" were declared by Bleeker Van Wagener, president of the American Breeders' Association, to be the aims which eugenics sets before us, "and to the study of causes and effects, of methods and means, we are now called." "The only way to secure innate capacity is to breed it," held Dr. C. B. Davenport, who continued:

Here is where the problem of the eugenist comes in—elimination of the worst by segregation during the reproductive period; instruction to the middle class, how to marry so as to avoid reproducing specific weaknesses; encouragement to those carrying the best solid traits to leave a large progeny in order that the number of those carrying these traits, which are so valuable to the nation, may be increased to the utmost.

This encouragement, he argued, might take various forms, such as reduction of the income and inheritance taxes in pro-

portion to the number of surviving children.

Not only the sober facts of work and the sobering responsibilities of parentage, but the joy and meaning of play found ample expression at Cleveland. Speakers who discussed recreation before the conference held briefs for all America. Dancing was held up as an absolute necessity for youth, coupled with emphatic assurance that there can be decent dance halls. In presenting the report of his committee, Joseph Lee of Boston said that the world has been successively gripped by periods of rhythmic madness. Greece at one time went mad with music. The Dark Ages quenched her fire only to see it rekindled in the Renaissance, and Puritanism put out the light only to have it flame forth again in the twentieth century. Today all phases of life in America reflect it. "The rhythmic madness," he said,

is not confined to dancing proper, or improper. Our popular songs are all dance music and are kept running in our heads so that we waltz through our sermons, write prescriptions in three-four time, and add up columns to the music of the "grizzly bear." The failure of Mr. Taft to capture the popular imagination is traceable to the deficient sense of rhythm. The people are all dancing to the Roosevelt ragtime, the Bryan lyric waltz and the La Follette dithyramb. Even our politics now are set to music.

Too simple rhythm is what is driving us mad. That is the great danger in our dance halls and in the arts, in fact. Simple rhythm acts as a narcotic, an anesthetic, relaxing the conventional inhibitions, putting conscience to sleep. Safety is in the active, the creative, in the effort more worthily to present an ideal of beauty.

One way to keep boys good is the promotion of romance. Girls already are sufficiently romantic, but boys should read Scott and Lorna Doone while still young enough to take them seriously. Romance and chivalry will do more for boys than much chastisement.

The reviews of the section meetings which follow bring to the surface many another of the major matters discussed at Cleveland which gave further evidence of its shifting emphasis from the technical to the universal, from special classes to primary groups, from defectiveness and delinquency to normal

growth. With these, commonwealths, even more than cities, have concern, and Ohio, as well as Cleveland, had much to offer in the way of inspiration and leadership. If tradition were looked to for sanction, no better auspices could be asked than those of the old ordinance governing this very territory which decreed that "religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." What is the conference but a means of education? But to come down to current times it is astonishing to note in how many instances Ohio's Constitutional Convention, which adjourned but a few weeks before the conference members invaded the state, anticipated the demands which they were to make in Cleveland. To list only those

which have been mentioned approvingly from the conference platforms, we find the convention empowering the legislature to regulate the hours of labor, establish a minimum wage scale, and provide for the protection of the life, safety, comfort, and health of employees; making eight hours a day's work and forty-eight hours a week's work on all public works; empowering the legislature to enact a compulsory compensation law for injured employes and those disabled by occupational diseases; prohibiting contract labor in penal institutions and providing that all goods made there by the state shall be marked "prison made"; and altering court procedure with a view to the more perfect fitting and higher speeding of the wheels of justice.

No wonder Father Kerby called the conference a "continuing constitutional convention."

COMMITTEES OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE

IMMIGRATION

WILLIAM JAY SCHIEFFELIN

Chairman

The report of the immigration committee urged measures for distributing and assimilating immigrants, and while it favored barring the unfit at ports of embarkation and more thorough inspection at ports of entry, it did not recommend the restrictive measures now before Congress. On this question the committee was divided, one part supporting the literacy test and the other maintaining that the present law is adequate if properly enforced.

The recommendations upon which the committee united were as follows:

Every effort possible should be made by private individuals and associations, and so far as possible by the public school authorities, to further the rapid assimilation of immigrants by teaching them English, the elements of citizenship, and so far as practicable other needed subjects closely related to their work. Particularly should this be done in the construction camps and the so-called immigrant colonies in our city and industrial districts, and especially by extending to them sympathetic greeting, void of any trace of race prejudice.

In order to relieve, so far as possible, congestion in many of our industrial centers, it is urged that the powers of the division of information in the United States Bureau of Immigration be extended as suggested by the immigration commission so that as full infor-

mation as possible be furnished the immigrants regarding opportunities for work, and especially for the purchase of land suitable to their needs.

That there be established, also, further immigration stations at Chicago and other interior points.

That there should be the closest co-operation with state immigration bureaus, which should on their part act in harmony with private companies who wish to aid in the settlement of lands by the immigrants, such state bureaus taking an active part in such work so as to prevent fraudulent or harsh treatment of the immigrants.

That in order to prevent undue hardships at our ports of entry, as well as more successfully to exclude such undesirable immigrants as criminals and persons of immoral character, our medical inspection at foreign ports be made more rigid and that the federal government station abroad agents to prevent the sailing of criminals and persons coming for immoral purposes.

That the medical force at our ports of entry be decidedly strengthened, experts in mental diseases and other obscure diseases being furnished at the larger ports.

That the boards of inquiry be further improved and manned with the most efficient, sympathetic, and judicially minded men possible.

That the steerage accommodations in all steamers be raised under legal inspection to the standard of the better ships.

That competent government officials, both men and women, accompany the steerage pas-



Photo by Moffett, Chicago.

1. Charles W. Birtwell, chairman committee on sex hygiene; 2. William Jay Schieffelin, chairman committee on immigration; 3. Sherman C. Kingsley, chairman committee on children; 4. Owen R. Lovejoy, chairman committee on standards of living and labor.

sengers, and that the regulations provided for steamers from foreign ports be extended as far as is in any way practicable to coastwise steamers.

That in order to enforce more rigidly the provisions regarding criminals and women imported for immoral purposes, the time for deportation of girls thus imported be extended until they can give evidence against the criminals.

That the statement made by ill-informed persons regarding the undue proportion of criminals and paupers among immigrants is a mistake and has aroused unwarranted hostility, the report of the immigration commission showing that it is impossible to prove that the proportion of criminals in the country has been increased by immigration.

That the application of any religious or political test, exclusive of illegal, immoral beliefs and practices, is unjust and unwise, and that in consequence the so-called Root amendment to the Dillingham bill should not become a law.

Several members of the committee who favor the literacy test supported such a measure on purely economic grounds, urging that the continued influx of immigrants will neutralize the measures for distribution, and that the migratory immigrants threaten American standards of living.

Other members of the committee opposed any further test for admission saying that the immigrants now arriving do not threaten our political, social, or economic well-being, and that foreign-born laborers have demonstrated their ability to follow wise leadership and improve their standards of living—citing the anthracite coal miners and the cloak-makers in New York as convincing examples of this contention.

A portion of the paper of Prof. Edward A. Steiner on the church in relation to the immigrant was read, and then Dr. Kate Waller Barrett made an eloquent plea for immigrant girls and for effective measures to protect them and punish those who abuse them.

Hugo Eugene Varga in the course of a paper on wife desertion among Austrians

and Hungarians proposed legislation to minimize this evil. Umberto Coletti supported his plea. N. A. Erikson cited successful examples of immigrant colonization and urged that far more assistance be given immigrants to settle on the land. Mr. Coletti spoke of the successful Italian colonies and Julia Felsenthal and the chairman also spoke in behalf of co-operation among the foreign farmers in disposing of their products. A letter was read from A. W. Clark advocating a national effort to distribute immigrants in the country.

SEX HYGIENE

CHARLES W. BIRTWELL

Chairman

After a dark picture by George L. Jones of the Baltimore Children's Aid Society of the ways in which sex problems are encountered in social work, the committee on sex hygiene passed with a sense of relief to the hopeful constructive program of sex education. "The most effective form of sex education," said Ira S. Wile, M.D., of New York, "is one which consists of individual teaching where the information may be graded to the intelligence of the child, and where it is possible to draw from the child some idea of his own sex knowledge and experience." Dr. Wile placed at the head of all preventive agencies the "training of parents to give their children the sex education that has been traditionally denied them." He joined in the demand that sex education should be interwoven with nature study, botany, biology, ethics, literature, and other studies, as a normal part of education.

"The first essential," Dr. Evangeline Young said, "in the equipment of one who would give instruction in sex is a wholesome and unembarrassed attitude of mind toward the entire subject of the origin of life and the processes accompanying it." Again, "we should remember this one thing above all others, that curiosity or interest in matters of sex and the origin of life must never be confused with the child's own sex development." That

"a child inquires, point-blank, in regard to some sex fact," is no sign of evil thought. It is the "sophisticated adult" whose mental attitude is at fault.

The investigation of "Venereal Diseases in Children," undertaken for the Massachusetts Society for Sex Education was presented by Dr. William P. Lucas of the Harvard Medical School and physician in charge of the children's department of the Boston Dispensary. From ten sources, chiefly hospitals, no school records being available, Dr. Lucas collected 2,369 cases of venereal diseases among children for the past ten years, 1,384 of gonorrhoea, 885 of congenital syphilis. His investigation revealed varied sources of gonococcus infection. The report as to curative measures was unpromising. "Our efforts," Dr. Lucas said, "will have to be exerted mainly in preventive lines" through "education of the physician, of the school teacher, of the school nurses; and a complete physical examination with a view to finding out the sources of infection in every school, and so treating or quarantining such cases that they are no longer sources of infection."

Gratifying, indeed, was the report by Clifford G. Roe, of Chicago, general counsel and executive secretary of the American Vigilance Association, of the concerted action of civilized nations against international traffic in vice, the part our own federal government is taking against interstate vice, the new expedients and laws, as for instance, the "Iowa Injunction Law," and above all the wonderful present trend of opinion from the old hopelessness and acquiescence to the belief that, with "moral codes and customs changing through education and enlightenment, by persistent effort commercialized vice can be annihilated." During the discussion of eugenics Dr. Henry H. Goddard, of the Vineland, New Jersey, Training School; ventured the belief that 50 per cent of prostitutes are feeble-minded, which Dean Sumner in the evening preferred to raise to 80 per cent. Not only the negative but the positive side of eugenics was brought out. "Strains," said Prof. R. M. Yerkes, of Harvard University, "good or bad, breed true." He preferred to call eugenics an art rather than a science, and furnished the brief definition: "The systematic effort to improve the nature of man."

At the final session Dr. George W. Goler, health officer of Rochester, N. Y., and Dr. Foster Kennedy, lecturer on neurology in Cornell University Medical College, suggested the vital part the medical profession and the hospitals must take in any effectual movement for sex education and hygiene. Attention was naturally paid to the necessity of making venereal diseases reportable.

The most striking event in the series of meetings on this subject was the address of Prof. Jessie Phelps of the State Normal School at Ypsilanti, Mich. Her subject was The Normal School in Sex Education. Speaking from notes, she told definitely of her subjects and methods with her normal school class in sex education and hygiene. Never have I seen a more attentive audience, free

from all suggestion of excitement, as if experiencing with genuine satisfaction the treatment of a traditionally embarrassing subject with a frankness matched only by the delicacy of presentation and the wholesomeness of the personality of the speaker. It was as if the audience saw here finally a reason for great hope in spite of the tragic facts our meetings had brought out. They gave Professor Phelps nothing less than an ovation.

Dean Walter T. Sumner followed with an address on Some Aspects of Progress in Sex Problems. He gave ugly facts from the report of the Chicago Vice Commission of which he was chairman, and in his vigorous treatment of sex problems spoke of various important social measures, including the health certificate at marriage with which his name is peculiarly identified.

STANDARDS OF LIVING AND LABOR

A. J. McKELWAY

Secretary, Southern States, National Child Labor Committee

The platform of social standards for industry presented by this committee, of which Owen R. Lovejoy was chairman, is printed on page 517 of this issue.

At the first section meeting the hazards of labor were discussed. J. W. Paul, head of the mine rescue work of the federal Bureau of Mines, outlined its work. The writer showed that the fight for better child labor legislative standards is all but won, and that the problem next to be tackled is the administration and enforcement of the law.

In the discussion that followed, Dr. John Hayner of California, who has made exhaustive studies of coal mining accidents in America and Europe for state and federal governments, declared that the Bureau of Mines is greatly hampered in its work by the restriction placed upon its activities in the act creating it. He asked the aid of patriotic Americans in the passage of amendments now pending, especially that relating to publicity with respect to the causes of mine disasters.

The report of the chairman of the committee was distributed in printed form. Mr. Lovejoy's address was impressive and illuminating, and met with an appreciative reception from his audience. In his search for the causes of the evils so fearlessly described, his statements were so carefully framed as to minimize controversial opposition.

The chairman was followed by an incisive address by Mrs. Florence Kelley on minimum wage boards, showing the progress made in this field.

George R. Lunn, the Socialist mayor of Schenectady, spoke on the eight-hour day in all industries. The request of some members of the conference last year to have their points of view presented by Socialists, single taxers and so on, was met by arranging for speakers of these persuasions under the standards of living and labor program. Mayor

Lunn's address would have been more instructive if he had given some concrete information concerning the adoption of the eight-hour day where it has already been granted, and its reasonableness in other industries, presuming upon the intelligence of the conference as to understanding the Socialist point of view. But the familiar *Carthago delenda est* had to be sounded throughout.

The second section meeting of this committee discussed the topic Distribution of Industry in Relation to Congestion, Rent, and Taxes. Louis F. Post of Chicago, editor of *The Public*, the chief organ of the single tax doctrine, read an exhaustive statement of the need and feasibility of this reform.

At the mayors' luncheon Mayor Newton D. Baker made exactly the appeal to civic patriotism that was needed to show the hopefulness of the whole program on the standards of living and labor.

The platform on standards of living and labor was presented at an all day session beginning with a general presentation of the idea of an "industrial minimum" by Paul U. Kellogg and followed by the discussion of wages by the Rev. John A. Ryan, St. Paul, and Rabbi Rudolph Coffee of Pittsburgh; of family budgets by Margaret F. Byington, author of *Homestead*, the Households of a Milltown; of congestion and taxation by Benjamin C. Marsh; home work by Pauline Goldmark of the New York Bureau of Social Research; industrial diseases by John B. Andrews; control of sanitary standards by Julius Henry Cohen, the board of control of the suit and cloak manufacturers' association, and of child labor by Edward N. Clopper of Cincinnati and Richard K. Conant of Boston. Harry Thomas, president of the Ohio Federation of Labor, broached the general subject of unemployment insurance.

In the afternoon the section adjourned, continuing as an independent meeting under the auspices of the National Child Labor Committee at which the program presented by the committee was adopted with one or two textual changes. A minority report presented by Mr. Marsh calling for "the gradual untaxing of building and the laying of the tax burden upon the land values" was not adopted.

CHILDREN

SHERMAN C. KINGSLEY

Chairman

In his review of important developments in the social field, Julian W. Mack stated that the most significant event of the year was the recognition by the federal government of its duty to children, as shown by the establishment of the national Children's Bureau. It was, therefore, especially fortunate that the committee on children was able to secure as speakers for its general session: Julia C. Lathrop, recently appointed director of the bureau, who described her new work as "an expression of the nation's sense of justice, the greatest and most complete expression of

the democratic ideal that every child shall have a chance"; Jane Addams, who pointed out the fact that normal homes will be benefited by the standardization of the work of child-caring agencies; and A. J. McKelway, who told of the campaign for the establishment of the bureau and voiced the feeling of the entire audience when he said: "We hope the new bureau will grow into a department of human welfare." The chairman of the committee, Sherman C. Kingsley, enumerated some questions of child care still awaiting an answer. With the population of the country fast changing from rural to urban centers, the problem of rearing children in untried city environments is becoming acute. Not a single state in the union can tell accurately the number of its positively dependent, delinquent and defective children and few can estimate them. A definite state and local program based upon knowledge of actual conditions would help to clarify and harmonize the child welfare work of the entire nation.

The various section meetings of the committee further emphasized this idea. James A. Garfield, speaking on a program of action for a Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, conceived the true function of these societies to be an intermediary agency between the charity associations and the courts.

Wilbur C. Phillips presented a carefully developed program for infant welfare which has been successful in Milwaukee. The idea is to divide the community by population into units small enough to be easily handled and to make each unit a center of municipal activity in caring for mothers and babies. "The actual cash loss," said Mr. Phillips, "represented by one dead baby would care for twenty babies for one year."

Perhaps the most interesting session of the conference was the spirited discussion on the funds to parents' act which lasted four hours and ended only when the lights went out. Judge Merritt W. Pinckney of the Chicago Juvenile Court defended the spirit of the law and felt that, properly safeguarded and administered, it would be a benefit to the community. Frederic Almy based his objection to the law on his belief that the public would not stand for fit salaries for the relief workers and it would therefore be impossible to secure adequate administration of the funds. "Home-made children," he said, "undoubtedly give the best results. The institution child must go, but until we can have skilled social engineers to harness the forces of public relief, I am opposed to the public pension method of keeping the child at home." Homer Folks said the attempt to secure adequate relief from private sources, which he considered preferable to public relief, had never been intelligently tried on a large scale. If, after trial, the relief still proved inadequate, he believed that a grant from the public funds would be a lesser evil than the break-up of the family. Other arguments advanced were that in the Chicago experiment the established agency, the court, had not been relied upon, but had been supplemented by the

advisory committee; that the number of children removed from their homes because of poverty alone was overestimated; that old age insurance and working-men's compensation acts would go far toward removing the causes of dependent widowhood; that the administration of relief was not the function of a judicial body; that experiences with a similar law in Milwaukee and St. Louis have proved the possibility of securing public officials capable of doing efficient work.

The Monday section meeting heard the place of the school in a community program for child welfare set forth by William A. Wirt, who as superintendent practices in the schools of Gary, Ind., what he preaches to the educational systems of the country. Hearty applause greeted his description of the school plant, open eight hours a day and six days a week where the curriculum is subordinated to the child and trains for actual life. Dr. Helen T. Wooley explained the work in vocational guidance by which Cincinnati is trying to bridge over the years between fourteen and sixteen, and train for paying employment after that time. "The work certificate," said Philip Davis of Boston, "should not be a divorce from the school system but a marriage certificate."

The chairman of the committee, in opening the Wednesday session, reported on the findings of a questionnaire which the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund sent to each state in the union, asking for the number of children in institutions, public and private, the number uncared-for, the state agencies for children's work, the most pressing needs in the children's field, and suggestions for a state program for the promotion of child welfare. Thirty-six states responded, showing an amazing amount of work still to be done and an utter lack of co-ordinated effort. Roger N. Baldwin then described the methods by which St. Louis is trying to remedy this condition. A central council composed of representatives from the various church, labor, school, charitable, political and commercial groups passes on any problem that concerns the city as a whole and can be divided into committee groups for discussion of questions that affect only a few of the agencies. Further functions are to settle disputes, to prevent duplication, to set high standards, to express the collective opinion of the component bodies in legislative form and thus to shape the community consciousness in terms of orderly progress.

HOUSING AND RECREATION

JOSEPH LEE

Chairman

The section meeting Friday morning was (actually) upon the skittishness of the working girl, her independence and horror of being patronized, and how, in view of this, to

get team play into her life. Diana used to do it by giving hunting parties. The Amazons and suffragettes have done it by getting up tribal war—the girls against the boys. How shall *we* do it? Jean Hamilton told of how the working girls' clubs do it, accenting the importance of *real* independence, including finance. George D. Chamberlain spoke of boys' clubs with their occasional parties. Mrs. Robert A. Woods told how women's trade unions provide a new loyalty. Frances G. Curtis suggested the possibilities of discipline and team work in athletics and Robert A. Woods spoke of the need of neighborhood organization as a second line of defense where the family fails.

At the general meeting Friday evening Joseph Lee maintained that the vertigo, dancing-dervish effects of rhythm, as seen in political and religious orgies and to some extent in dance halls, are to be corrected by the cultivation of the arts that rhythm underlies, including dancing, even coquetry being preferable to no art at all. Mrs. Charles H. Israels, field secretary on commercial recreation of the Playground and Recreation Association of America, told how dance halls may be made decent where public opinion is concretely brought to bear on them. Frank L. Boyden's address on what a country school has done was itself a good example of recreation. He kept the audience so limp with laughing that they may not have realized that he was describing the utter capture of a country town, including every individual boy and girl of high school age, and the management of their social life, by an old New England academy under his direction.

At the section meeting Monday morning Beulah Kennard gave a most interesting address on the eternal feminine and how the shifting social status of women has complicated its operation. Woman represents the conservative element—the unchanging demands of race life and race perpetuation. The new demand that she shall be also an individual, with direct personal relations to political and industrial life—the new freedom—if rightly recognized and given scope, will not destroy her aboriginal character but will make her more of a person, as righteousness is more than innocence.

In the discussion Frances G. Curtis spoke of the ideals of girls from fourteen to sixteen and the importance of providing the right personality to embody them and relieve the matinee idol. Mrs. White of Elizabeth Peabody House, Boston, spoke of the way working girls have been led to put their idealism into neighborhood improvement in the West End. Jean Hamilton said that if we would make our civic purposes thoroughly clear the girls would help. The advantage of trade education, including continuation schools for the dangerous years from fourteen to sixteen, was spoken of. The mobilizing of the mothers, using outside the home the mothering power no longer fully utilized inside, was variously suggested.



1. H. C. Bowman, chairman committee on public supervision and administration; 2. Bailey B. Burritt, chairman committee on courts and prisons; 3. Joseph Lee, chairman committee on housing and recreation; 4. Jane Addams, president National Federation of Settlements.

MEDICAL AND SOCIAL WORK

LUCY WRIGHT

General Superintendent Massachusetts
Commission for the Blind

The interdependence of medical and social work was cordially and practically recognized at Cleveland, both by physicians and social workers. There were many evidences that even if, as Alice L. Higgins says, the language of social workers is sometimes mysterious to physicians in words of two syllables and that of physicians mysterious to social workers in words of six syllables, each came very near in this conference to an understanding of the workings of the other's mind.

The discussion on the relation between medical and social work occupied itself largely with the various forms of the "day's work" in cities where medical-social workers are now on duty—New York, St. Louis, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Boston, and others. A most significant report was that of the weekly social conference following the medical clinic at Indiana University, where under the supervision of a member of the sociology department, medical students do the follow up work in the home, for patients selected for social care. The announcement of the second-year course in medical-social service at the Boston School for Social Workers came as a substantial contribution toward the great need for trained workers in this field, where the demand so far exceeds the supply.

Dr. C. Morton Smith of Boston cordially recognized the place of the social worker in the clinic which battles with syphilis. This was an illustration of the message for which the social worker must ever turn to the physician. He gave warning and encouragement on the treatment of syphilis. He reported that at least 45 per cent of syphilis cases are due to inheritance and innocent infection, and that it is needlessly and unfairly handicapping to work against this disease to class it as venereal. He spoke encouragingly as to the chances in life for syphilitic children if properly and promptly treated. Dr. Smith's paper was itself evidence that there are common fields of service for medical and social work

in which both not only serve but together create new methods of attack.

The keen analysis and substantial plans for work and study outlined by Dr. Michael M. Davis, Jr., were a most important contribution to the coming "day's work." Dr. Davis outlined a plan for surveying, and testing the value of, medical-social work at hospitals and dispensaries and brought out clearly the point often overlooked, but really one of the chief distinctions of this division of social work, that here we find a point of contact with a large group of human beings, above the bread-line and not otherwise known to social agencies.

Mary E. Richmond pointed out that medical-social workers were present at the conference in some such proportion as eighty to seven hundred or more, and urged upon the seven hundred that they try to get the point of view of the medical-social worker and modify their own ways rather than go home to create necessarily new agencies.

"Hands and heads were made before agencies!"

At the general session, the common fields of service which concern both groups were outlined by Dr. Alexander Miller in his chairman's report. The work of his committee had been divided into seven sections and the chairman of each section had summarized in writing the relation between medical and social work as illustrated in the field best known to him. The following were the seven subdivisions: medical and social aspects of infant mortality; certain important social diseases; interdependence of medical and social work in hospital social service; prevention of blindness and conservation of eyesight; insanity and epilepsy; occupational diseases; visiting nursing.

At this meeting, the audience found themselves, following Dr. Miller's paper, with a convenient printed outline of Dr. Cabot's address, as follows:

EDUCATIONAL ASPECTS OF HOSPITAL-SOCIAL WORK.

1. THE EDUCATION GOTTEN IN THIS WORK DIFFERS FROM MOST EDUCATION IN THAT: Every one is both teacher and taught; Teaching is mostly by demonstration and practice; Two professions are teaching each other.

2. **DOCTORS LEARN FROM SOCIAL WORKERS:** That the patient is a family symptom, a trade symptom, etc.; That good treatment involves knowledge of patient's finances, customs, prejudices, etc.; That health may not be the most important consideration; That manner is as important as matter in advice to patients; That cases are not closed when they disappear from clinics.

3. **SOCIAL WORKERS LEARN FROM DOCTORS:** A higher ideal of the function of records; The importance of prognosis as a basis for all social plans; An intense concentration and self-control; How to think with ideas as tools; The ramifications of insanity, neurasthenia and sex.

4. **DOCTORS AND SOCIAL WORKERS LEARN FROM PATIENTS:** That nobility when unconscious is raised to the nth power.

5. **PATIENTS LEARN FROM SOCIAL WORKERS AND DOCTORS:** That not all well-dressed people are snobs and vampires.

6. **ALL LEARN FROM SUCCESS:** That 100 per cent philanthropy is a magnificent and most precarious adventure.

7. **ALL LEARN FROM FAILURE:** That the only certain satisfaction in social work is the sentimental and mystical relations which outlive the collapse of medical and social theories.

The climax of this group of meetings came in Dr. Cabot's interpretation of the Educational Aspects of Hospital Social work. He defined the relation as one between *professions*—between peers. It is a clarifying statement and a generous one, and one social workers must try to live up to. Dr. Cabot supplements it by a definition that may raise a new set of questions, but will help clear up any remaining haze and discomfort that may surround the relation between social and medical workers when they meet. He says that the physician and nurse are fitted by experience and training to look after the physical needs while the subject matter for social workers is *character*.

COURTS AND PRISONS

JOSEPH T. WILLIAMS

Criminal Courts Committee, New York
Charity Organization Society

The committee on courts and prisons discussed five topics: social problems and the courts; women offenders; non-support cases and domestic relations courts; farm colonies for the treatment of offenders; and prison labor. Throughout the meetings one sentiment was overwhelmingly in evidence—that the spirit most desired in courts and prisons is not vindictive justice but rather belief in the redeeming qualities in men and women.

The chairman, Bailey B. Burritt, in discussing Socialization of the Courts, interpreted the criminal court as not limited to the legal function of punishing offenders and enforcing the law. The courts, he said, should include a careful survey of the social conditions which cause crime and an understanding of the motives of individual offenders with a view to their reformation. He referred to the movement of socializing the courts as part of the larger welfare movement which has already affected the church, the school, and the whole range of communal undertakings. Every case which comes before the magistrate is not only a legal but a *social* problem. The question whether our courts will adapt themselves

to new social and economic demands and be influenced by the ideas of progressive social philosophy was optimistically discussed by Prof. Roscoe Pound of Harvard University. Dr. William Healy, director of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute of Chicago made a strong plea for the scientific study of methods of treating law breakers. As things are now, he said, millions are devoted to stopping crime but not one public penny for finding out how to do it well.

Katherine B. Davis, superintendent of the New York State Reformatory for Women, outlined the plan for a scientific study and classification, before sentence, of women convicted in New York city, which was described in a recent issue of *THE SURVEY*.¹ Following Dr. Davis, Jane Addams, Maud Miner, and Chief Magistrate McAdoo of New York agreed that there should be a careful sorting-out process after conviction, and fitting institutions or other means making for reformation be provided according to the results of such examination.

The value to the courts of co-operation with private welfare societies was emphasized. Magistrate Howard P. Nash of Brooklyn, N. Y., emphasized the need of adequate preliminary investigations before cases came to trial in these courts. Judge Nash said that eventually an adequate number of well-trained investigators in the public service would attend to the preliminary investigating, but for the present this work can best be done by private relief societies. Minnie E. Low, superintendent of the Bureau of Personal Service of Chicago, described the operation of the Chicago Domestic Relations Court. Of about 6,000 cases during the first year of this court, nearly half were settled outside of court through the medium of philanthropic agencies to which the cases had been referred by an officer of the court, known as the social secretary. Preventive efforts in keeping potential litigants out of court has been the greatest triumph there. Judge S. M. Black of the Juvenile Court of Columbus, Ohio, said that a large percentage of the boys and girls who appear as delinquents in the juvenile court come from homes divided or which have been abandoned by the father. According to the Columbus system deserters are committed to the workhouse and forty cents per day is allowed for the support of the family which in many cases means more than if the man is left at large.

That the old time unsanitary prison cell with its dreary repressive life for the prisoner is being succeeded by something vastly better, was made plain at a meeting held at the City Farms, a tract of about 2,000 acres twelve miles outside Cleveland on beautiful undulating hills. Harris R. Cooley, director of the farms, said that the plan had proved a great success. It had shown that outdoor life under open skies in healthy surroundings is not only an effective remedy for tuberculosis and insanity, but also for vice and crime.

¹See *THE SURVEY*, May 18, page 285.

J. T. Gilmour, warden of Central Prison, Toronto, told of a similar experiment in Toronto.

The discussion on prison labor centered on the question of providing fitting work for prisoners. The contract labor system received special attention. Milton Goodman, president of the Reliance Manufacturing Company, Chicago, defended contract labor on the ground that it saved expense to the state and kept the prisoner from idleness. Thomas R. Slicer, chairman of the National Committee on Prison Labor, declared the contract system vicious. Salvation for the prisoner is in effective work, but the profits of his labor should go to his dependent family and to himself. John P. Frey, editor of the *National Molders' Journal*, said that trade unions are strongly opposed to the contract system but that they do want the prisoner to be kept at a kind of work which has a training value. John J. Sonstebly of Chicago, attorney for the United Garment Workers of America, declared that the contract labor system is merely a scheme for private gain.

FAMILIES AND NEIGHBORHOODS

WILLIAM J. KERBY

Chairman

In his report as chairman of the committee on families and neighborhoods Dr. Kerby laid emphasis on the nature of the National Conference, which he called practically a constitution-making body. He put forth the idea that all political and industrial constitutions fail for certain classes and that a conference such as this is in fact engaged in developing a supplementary constitution which will adjust policies and develop principles and modify institutions in a way to secure normal elementary rights and decent opportunity to the helpless social classes.

The committee favored the creation of a standard program of fundamental topics for this committee to cover in a period of years. It favored active co-operation with organized labor in all fields where it comes into contact with relief agencies, but in particular it favored co-operation in meeting the problem of wife-desertion. The labor union was represented as being in position to render direct and efficient service in the matter through its records and its press. The committee favored the earliest possible utilization of the United States Postal Savings Bank for the development of thrift among partially dependent families and it favored the development of a series of leaflets to be used systematically when dealing with the poor in order to instruct them more reliably against their own ignorance, lack of foresight and carelessness. The committee voted adversely on the proposal to develop social activities other than medical in hospitals, particularly in smaller cities. The chairman expressed himself as strongly favoring the plan under specific limitations. He alluded to Providence Hospital

in Washington where remarkably vigorous and many-sided social activities are conducted in addition to medical charities.

Charles F. Weller took up in great detail the problem of preserving the individuality of the family. He called attention to the mistakes by which relief agencies defeat their own purposes at times and suggested that every care be taken to build up normal social relations between the poor and those who assist them. He advised too that the poor be organized among themselves in their own interest. James F. Jackson championed the interests of the family and the maintenance of its integrity. He brought out the fact that many state institutions make the mistake of dealing with the individual as an individual, failing to see him and to deal with him as a member of a family.

Rev. C. N. Pond, in discussing a state program of charity reviewed sympathetically the relations among all agencies of relief and brought out a spiritual interpretation of charity as the fundamental bond of unity among these agencies.

Mary Goodwillie argued for the development of a high type of worker to specialize in case work. She found that lack of means and the relatively small number of those capable of giving such training, are difficulties in the way of this. The great need of endowment to further such training was pointed out.

After a review of the well-known facts concerning burial among the poor, Rev. Quincy L. Dowd, of Roscoe, Ill., advocated the thorough investigation of cemetery affairs generally and the education of the public in matters of burial and cremation. He urged efforts to get back to simplicity and common sense in burial matters; legislative control of the undertaking business with publicity schedules, municipal cemeteries and city crematories and the creation of a bureau of burial affairs in municipal government.

Mrs. Arthur M. Dodge, president of the Federation of Day Nurseries, expressed herself in favor of the pensioning of dependent mothers. She stated that the friendly visitor and the trained nurse must be found in the equipment of any satisfactory day nursery. In many cases, she said, children are taken even when both parents are working, if conditions appear to make that necessary. It is her belief that the higher standards which the child unconsciously absorbs in the day nursery, react on the home and on the mother with excellent results in home management.

Mrs. William E. Gallagher, chairman of the St. Mary's Day Nursery of Chicago, described the conditions which hamper the poor in all of their trade relations. She pointed out the danger of taking the every-day buying out of the hands of the poor and also the cost in mistakes, in time and in money of permitting them to do their own purchasing. This led to the natural conclusion that educational work of a high order must be done among the poor in order to meet this situation. The

speaker commended highly the reports of the Conferences of Sealers of Weights and Measures which show the range and extent of the frauds of trade which, while perpetrated on society at large, are particularly severe on the poor. The work of the visiting nurse in educating the poor along these lines was strongly commended.

PUBLIC SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION

H. C. BOWMAN

Chairman

The report of the committee discussed to what extent state boards should administer and manage state institutions; and to what extent the state should supervise and control private institutions. It was stated that the time has passed when the supervisory powers of boards of charities and the administrative powers of boards of control can be discussed with profit, and that the time has come when institutional officials, like all other departments of government, must realize that they must get closer to the people; that the system which covers the field and accomplishes results is the best system for a state, regardless of the name; that institutional people too often forget the very purpose for which their institution was created and the thing runs along rather for its own benefit than for that of its patrons or the state; that the duties of state boards should cover both the business side and the professional side of state institutions, and that there must be perfect fealty of the board to the state and a corresponding loyalty of the institution to the board. It was declared that the superintendent is the agent and executive officer of the board, and the board is entitled to the same faithful service from a superintendent as the superintendent is entitled to from each employee.

The report held that all private charitable institutions and associations should be under state supervision whether receiving state aid or not. The question of who supports them was held to be of very little importance, but the public is interested in knowing that the function assumed by private groups is properly performed. Almost every project of public benefit it was declared has some element of peculiar personal profit to individuals, and hardly any attempt along the line of a private purpose is without some colorable pretext of public good. Individuals are eager to earn an easy living by starting orphanages or home-finding societies or rescue homes and using the greater part of the money collected to maintain themselves.

The position was taken that private charitable institutions and associations should be required to incorporate and have a board of substantial business and professional men or women, and then should be supervised by the state board. The best way to secure state supervision of private charities was said to be

similar to those now followed in California and Kansas. The Kansas law covers the field better than the law of any other state. It is made a crime punishable by a fine of not less than \$10, nor more than \$1,000, for any person to solicit funds in more than one county in the state, for charitable purposes without first obtaining a certificate from the state board of control.

Charles F. F. Campbell, executive agent of the Ohio State Commission for the Blind, in the course of a talk on the care and prevention of blindness, used stereopticon views to illustrate conditions and results. Referring to the fact that 40 per cent of the blind in this country are needlessly blind he said that states need not build great institutions and work shops for the blind. What is needed is individual assistance in the way of furnishing a small amount of capital to start them in business or to aid in securing them suitable employment in factories and other lines of business where the blind can make honest livings and be self-respecting.

In discussing the problem of dependent and neglected children, as seen from the point of view of state supervision, C. E. Faulkner superintendent of the Washburn Memorial Orphan's Home, Minneapolis, Minn., declared that when the causes which undermine the integrity and comfort of family life are discovered no greater power can be summoned to the aid of the state in their prevention than the law of natural affection. Children, he said, should be allowed the duty as well as the pleasure of sharing in the effort to protect and rehabilitate the family life. The state should use all the means at its command to preserve the integrity of the family and promote the welfare of the child. Public and private institutions have the same goal, the welfare of the child. The morals of public guardianship demand that wards of the state shall have equal opportunity in fitting themselves for special vocations with children who have the advantages of manual training in the public schools.

W. A. Gates, secretary of the State Board of Charities and Corrections of California, showed the necessity of a uniform law dealing with the deportation of insane persons, paupers and others from one state to another.

The essentials of the uniform law are a uniform period of residence in the state and a provision that all deportation should be by state authority, not by that of counties or municipalities. A year, said Mr. Gates, is probably the most satisfactory period. Probably more states have adopted that period than any other. A man moving from Massachusetts to Minnesota, he continued, gains a legal settlement in one year's residence, and then loses his residence in Massachusetts. If he then comes to want he is a charge upon Minnesota and cannot be returned to Massachusetts. If a man moves from Minnesota to Massachusetts he must remain five years to gain a legal settlement, and if he comes to want at any time within five years he can be sent back to the state whence he came.



1. Brother Barnabas, president National Conference on Education of Dependent, Truant, Backward and Delinquent Children; 2. Lee K. Frankel, president National Conference of Jewish Charities; 3. Thomas Chew, president Federated Boy's Clubs; 4. Robert W. Hebbard, president National Association of Public Relief Officials.

THE OTHER CLEVELAND CONFERENCES

THE JEWISH CHARITIES

LOUIS H. LEVIN

Secretary

The Seventh Biennial Conference of Jewish Charities had a larger attendance than any of its predecessors. At the session which concerned itself with desertion, the committee on desertion, of which Morris D. Waldman of New York is chairman, presented its report. Morris M. Goldstein, director of the National Desertion Bureau gave a description of the operation of the bureau during the fourteen months of its existence. This was a convincing demonstration that an active campaign against desertion along the intelligent lines laid down by the bureau can control the evil. The mere fact that of 869 deserters reported to the bureau from all parts of this country, exclusive of a few from Europe and one even from Asia, 561 were located by the bureau, indicates how efficient have been its methods.

It should be remembered that in all these cases the whereabouts of the deserter was unknown when the case was brought to the bureau, and in some instances he had disappeared five years or longer ago. But locating the husband is only the beginning of the job; disposing of the case by reconciliation, arranging for support or criminal prosecution is even more important and quite as difficult. The results obtained are impressive. In 181 cases reconciliation has been effected, and in forty-five cases it is pending; arrangement for support has been made in 145 cases with ten more to hear from; twenty have been arrested, and twenty-eight may have to be brought before the criminal court; the applicants themselves were left to dispose of thirty-four cases in which the husbands had been located; twenty-five were found in foreign countries and could not be reached; in twelve cases a technicality of law defeated the plans of the bureau. On the other hand, in twenty-one cases the applicant was considered to be so much at fault that further work on the case

was abandoned; thirteen proved to be cases of collusive desertion; in ten the applicant refused to prosecute; in six the sickness of the man made further action undesirable. But eleven cases of the 561 located remain to be taken up.

The record made in disposing of these troublesome cases was of such an extraordinary nature as to win for the bureau the hearty support of the conference. The work heretofore done was made possible by a generous gift of \$5,000 from the New York Foundation for the purpose of trying out the bureau, and the conference undertook to raise \$7,000 a year for the next two years for its support and the extension of its work. Besides the results achieved in disposing of cases where desertion had already taken place, the deterrent effect of the bureau's activities can be seen in the dropping of the number of new cases of desertion brought to the attention of the United Hebrew Charities of New York from 144 in the year preceding the establishment of the bureau to ninety-nine during the year it was in operation.

A paper prepared by a committee, of which Prof. R. J. H. Gottheil of Columbia University was chairman and Henrietta Szold of New York, secretary, dealt with an investigation of the Palestinian charities which was undertaken at the suggestion of the Central Conference of American Rabbis. This conference called attention to the numerous appeals for help from that country in behalf of associations and organizations, the value of whose work is unknown to the great mass of contributors. For the first time, perhaps, the charities of an oriental country have been investigated from the modern point of view. It was found that besides organizations run by private persons, sometimes partly in their own interest, there exist others whose management and equipment meet every requirement of a modern charity-worker in America. This report placed utter condemnation on the begging letter, which is one of the natural products of the Holy Land, and spoke no less positively in regard to institutions the

character of whose work earned the committee's disapproval.

A plan for pensioning social workers was elaborated by Prof. H. L. Sabsovich of New York. Professor Sabsovich showed what astonishing purchases in the way of annuity and insurance can be made for comparatively small sums, once administration expenses are eliminated. It would not be surprising if social workers, non-Jewish as well as Jewish, were to take this paper as a basis for establishing a pension system which would not only operate to their own advantage, but would also show the way to a sound pension system for many other groups.

A change was made in the constitution by which the president of the section of social workers becomes an additional vice-president of the National Conference of Jewish Charities. The officers elected were: Cyrus L. Sulzberger, New York, president; Charles Eiseman, Cleveland, Aaron Cohen, Pittsburgh, and Morris D. Waldman, New York, vice-presidents; Bernard Greensfelder, St. Louis, treasurer; Louis H. Levin, Baltimore, secretary. Morris D. Waldman of New York was chosen president of the section of social workers.

THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF SETTLEMENTS

ELEANOR H. WOODS

South End House, Boston

Three sessions of settlement workers held at Cleveland last month drew over a hundred persons directly connected with settlements from New Orleans to Toronto and from Boston to Honolulu. The program dealt with the opportunity of the settlement both in its more wide-reaching influences and in its work of concrete analysis and attack upon specific problems. Both in the discussion of an address by Robert A. Woods on Organizing the Broader Influences of Settlements as well as in that following the report on the problem of the adolescent girl, two main aspects of settlement work were reaffirmed as fundamental and the essentials of the original settlement impulse.

Graham Taylor, on the one hand, insisted upon the necessity to the broader aspects of settlement influence of a careful knowledge of the territorial community in which the settlement is placed. Without such acquaintance the fulcrum is lost. It is gained by participation in local affairs, both political and social, without partisanship. The *raison d'être* of the settlement, found in re-attaching the individual, family, neighborhood, or district to a normal share in the life of the city and nation, necessarily leads the settlement resident to work on broader lines in the larger community. In this field, he finds it is absolutely essential to reach back to his local experience.

The other aspect of the settlement relation is that of sympathetic interpretation to the

larger world of these facts gained in the more intimate acquaintance of the neighborhood. Jane Addams referred to this function as one upon which the hopes of the first settlement residents had relied. She felt that the combined study upon a single aspect of our social life by the federation of settlements as carried forward in the report on the problem of the adolescent girl was a substantial and gratifying result in the way of meeting that early expectation. The report, which called forth a valuable discussion, was based upon a thousand replies from various sources to the schedule issued last winter by the National Federation of Settlements. A special report from New York presented by Harriet McD. Daniels gave intensive corroboration to the conclusion to be gathered from the study thus far pursued.

While the report as it stands can be considered only as an incomplete statement devoted mainly to objective conditions, it may be regarded as an important preliminary step to further concentration of interest in measures for constructive and progressive work for girls. It will put the organized service of experience and a thorough analysis of the situation by the settlement workers into use for the whole country.

Indications of concrete results to be gained are the following next steps suggested by those taking part in the study: The multiplication of recreation, both indoor and outdoor, on playgrounds carefully supervised; an increase in opportunities for girls to know older persons of resource and good will who are in contact with the girls' homes, including public school vocational visitors; trade education; propaganda for intelligently interesting girls in labor organizations and industrial conditions; an increase of agencies for the spread of neighborliness in every city and local neighborhood.

These and kindred phases of the subject will be followed during the coming year, with the report on the past year's work as a basis for a still more exhaustive study. Perhaps the most noteworthy contribution of the present report is the definition of a good home collated from the replies returned. "A good home is one in which the father and mother really head the family, are sympathetic with their children, have a real standard of living; live in rooms not badly overcrowded, which permits the girl a certain degree of privacy and allows a night's rest; secures food up to the average; and where there are no boarders. Taking this definition at its lowest terms, the highest percentage of good homes given was 50. The average from all answers was less than 10 per cent."

A contribution of especial importance in the light of this definition was made at the third settlement meeting by Mabel Kittredge of New York, who discussed her experience of the past ten years in establishing house-keeping centers, or model flats for teaching purposes, in tenement house districts.

She pointed to the fact that the work of

the home, lacking competition as it does, provides no other stimulus to efficiency. It is a question of making home management catch up with the increased knowledge provided through science and with the business systems of the store, office, and factory. Some method must be devised by which the practical knowledge of the scientist shall pass into the possession of school girls. The health of the nation really depends upon our discovering the best method.

The housekeeping center trains the natural domestic tastes of children and should be connected with the regular school curriculum. It was brought out by Mrs. White of Boston that these tastes are particularly susceptible of cultivation in the play instinct of small children. The consensus of experience was strongly in favor of introducing housekeeping training into the schools much earlier than the cooking now provided. The lessons should not be dissociated in the child's mind from the aspect of a practical home, and should teach methods of work which mean better health, a minimum of necessary labor, the satisfaction of practical needs with intelligent consideration for the beautiful.

REMEDIAL LOAN ASSOCIATIONS

ARTHUR H. HAM

Russell Sage Foundation

Sixteen of the twenty-five societies now constituting the membership of The National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations were represented at the third annual convention in Cleveland, June 13-14. The reports of the chairman, the secretary, and the writer showed that the past year has in many respects been a remarkable one in the progress of the remedial loan movement. Chief among the developments has been the awakening of a widespread and intelligent interest in the small loans problem on the part of the press, courts, legislatures, and civic and social organizations.

This year has been the first to witness the imprisonment of a usurer in this country. In addition to many convicted and fined, no fewer than six of these gentry have been placed behind prison bars. There have been an unusual number of court decisions that will play an important part in the ultimate success of the campaign against the loan shark. While not a great amount of remedial loan legislation has been enacted, an increasing number of bills introduced contained many of the provisions advocated by the National Federation.

Each member of the federation submitted a brief report of the year's work. These reports in addition to showing a healthy growth of remedial loan work in each city represented, indicated an increased co-operation with relief societies and other social institutions and a better understanding by the local press of the ideals of remedial loan work. One ex-

ception to this rule was shown by the paper read by H. A. Cone, manager of the Provident Loan Society of Detroit. In that city during a campaign of enforcement directed against the loan sharks, the public prosecutor took occasion to criticize the work of the Provident Loan Society and demanded the dismissal of Mr. Cone, the manager. Unfortunately, he presented his charges not to the directors of the society but to the newspapers. The charges were subsequently investigated and found to be baseless, and the directors of the society publicly expressed the utmost confidence in Mr. Cone.

J. T. Exnicios reviewed the history of the attempts in the District of Columbia during the past three years to secure the enactment by Congress of a proper remedial loan law. He showed that in spite of the fact that a bill authorizing the monthly interest charge of 2 per cent has had the support of the district commissioners and many social and civic organizations, Congress is apparently about to enact a law allowing only 1 per cent monthly interest, on the theory that poor borrowers cannot afford to pay more. The failure of Congress to take account of the experiences in many states showing that the business cannot be conducted profitably at 1 per cent Mr. Exnicios attributed to the members' fear of disapproval of their constituents, and stated as his belief that Congress is more likely to follow in the wake of the state in this matter than to enact a law that may serve as a guide for states that have not yet secured adequate remedial loan laws.

Considerable interest centered in the report of the membership committee on the so-called "Norfolk plan." This will be discussed in a later issue of THE SURVEY.

The new members admitted during the year include the Chattel Loan Society of New York, the Utica Provident Loan Association, the Provident Loan Association of Sioux City and the Provident Loan Association of St. Paul. The application of the latter society for admission had hardly been acted upon when the news came of the unfortunate death of the manager, A. W. Gutridge, who had for several years served the Associated Charities of St. Paul as secretary.

FEDERATED BOYS' CLUBS

GEORGE D. CHAMBERLAIN

Executive Secretary

Essentials in Boys' Club Work was the general theme of the sixth annual conference of the Federated Boys' Clubs held in Cleveland last month.

The many classes in handicraft, manual training, electricity, mechanical drawing, etc., with talks on various professions, have all helped superintendents in their efforts to be of practical assistance to their boys.

Joseph Lee, president of the Recreation and Playground Association of America, named several good reasons why we should give

more thought to meeting the Sunday needs of the boy. He believes that boys and young men can do many things on Sunday that are infinitely more harmful, for instance, than playing baseball. He would reserve Sunday morning for church going, but believes that Sunday afternoon should afford opportunity for recreation and quiet sports on the part of the masses who must work through the week days.

The planning of a boys' summer occupation is something which interests an increasing number of workers with boys. The remarkable work done by the Omega Club at Elmira, N. Y., was described by Director Rufus Stanley. Summer has a new meaning for the boys of Elmira and vicinity. They have combined work and play with marked success, and under the leadership of Mr. Stanley have developed qualities of manhood that are at once apparent to the visitor.

A paper on organizations within a boys' club by J. W. Plant, superintendent of the Syracuse Boy's Club, brought out that many workers with boys deprecate the creation of independent local organizations for the many phases of boys' activities. In the case of boys' brigades, Knights of King Arthur, Boy Scouts, Seton Indians and other similar movements, it is thought to be unnecessary to create independent local organizations. The Y. M. C. A., boys' clubs, churches and schools can easily introduce one or all of these into their activities without any machinery other than that of the parent organization. The creation of new local institutions, where work is similar to that already being done, should be discouraged.

In discussing the question of religious teaching in boys' clubs, it was generally agreed that if a boy is taught to be clean in speech and act, and always "on the square" in work and in play, it is as far perhaps as a superintendent is justified in going, in the conduct of a non-sectarian club. Experience had taught some of those present that wherever an attempt has been made by the Y. M. C. A. to operate a non-sectarian club for all classes of boys it has generally failed.

C. J. Atkinson, superintendent of Toronto Boys' Dominion, who has just completed a six weeks' tour of the "states," during which he visited and studied twenty-six boys' clubs, reported a growing interest in the movement.

Mayor Newton D. Baker of Cleveland, who is a lover of boys, said in an address to the conference: "It is manifestly impossible to measure boys by the foot or the yard and fit them into a position on the rule, for example, that two yards of boy make a lawyer. It is a wonderful thing that we can have a corps of experts who can find for the boy his correct place in life."

Governor Thomas R. Marshall of Indiana, who a year ago was president of the Indianapolis boys' club, told the delegates among other things:

"The boys' club movement does not want to abolish the home. Its purposes are in

strict accord with the highest ideals of home. The movement has three sides to it. One side has to do with the relation of the boy to the home. Another side is the relation of the boy to himself, and this is by far the most important side. The third side has to do with the relation of the boy to the state, and this is of moment, for how long can we maintain our ideals of justice, fair dealing and of honesty if year after year more of the oncoming citizens of America shall be permitted to grow up immoral, unacquainted with the great principles of life, and careless or indifferent to the right or the wrong of principles."

THE NATIONAL PROBATION ASSOCIATION

ARTHUR W. TOWNE

Secretary

In point both of attendance and interest the annual conference of the National Probation Association in Cleveland reached the high water mark. Boston compared notes with Seattle, and Toronto exchanged experiences with the southern states. The practices which have come into use during the last few years in both juvenile and criminal courts and in the probation service were evaluated, and various improvements and extensions were suggested.

Two important actions were taken. It was felt that the time has come for the National Probation Association, instead of limiting its efforts principally to conducting an annual conference, to undertake more active educational propaganda. Half of the states are without adult probation laws, and in most places where probation is used—whether with juvenile delinquents or adult offenders, a need exists for such information and help as might be furnished by a representative organization carrying on its work all the year round. Accordingly, an executive committee was established and authorized to raise funds and to employ an assistant secretary. Bernard Flexner was elected president and Arthur W. Towne secretary.

The conference also adopted a resolution calling for the enactment by Congress of a probation law for the federal courts.

The report of the committee on juvenile courts and probation was made by Mr. Flexner, and that of the committee on adult probation by Frank E. Wade of Buffalo. After giving a comprehensive review of progress during the past year, Mr. Flexner presented for discussion the gist of a chapter from the handbook which his committee has been preparing for publication by the association. The central thought was that juvenile courts and probation officers should utilize and co-operate with all the preventive and constructive agencies and forces in the community. The influence and effectiveness of a probation officer can be greatly enhanced by the assistance of settlement and charity workers, teachers

July 6, 1912.



*Photo by Holmes
& Bishop, Baltimore.*

1. Ernest P. Bicknell, national director American Red Cross; 2. George S. Addams, president National Probation Association; 3. Rev. Frank Mason North, chairman Commission on Church and Social Service; 4. W. N. Finley, chairman Executive Committee of National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations.

and clergymen, and various other persons. Another desideratum set forth was the greater socialization of the police.

Mr. Wade criticized the action taken by some legislatures in restricting the use of probation to certain classes of offenders. The wiser course, in his judgment, is to leave free range to judicial discretion in selecting the defendants who seem suitable for probationary treatment. He also pointed out defects in the system which prevails in some states of placing adult probationers under the control and supervision of the managers and traveling agents of prisoners and reformatories. Better results are secured, he declared, when the oversight is exercised by resident probation officers.

It was shown that children awaiting trial must not only be spared from the baneful associations and influences of a police station, but also from indiscriminate mingling with older and more hardened juvenile delinquents in juvenile detention homes. One way of accomplishing this was proposed by Probation Officer Roy M. Cushman of the Boston Juvenile Court. Children in that city are frequently boarded out in carefully chosen private families until their cases are disposed of by the court. While this expedient has its advantages, there seemed to be a pretty general consensus of opinion that special detention homes or shelters, when properly administered, are desirable.

SOCIETIES FOR ORGANIZ- ING CHARITY

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

Field Secretary

At the first annual meeting of the National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity Mary E. Richmond presented a highly valuable paper on Schemes Versus Standards. In it the question of the intake of a charity organization society was discussed. Miss Richmond asserted that we must get away

entirely from the old conception of a society as the general investigating agent for the community if we are to advance our standards. We must recognize our task as that of family rehabilitation, and what may grow out of it. The training of workers for other agencies might easily be considered one of the functions of the society as well as demonstration experiments looking to the acceptance of higher standards by other agencies. Except in the matter of the confidential exchange, the society should not be considered the general omnibus. On the side of the community program the ideal was stated to be certainly that of working toward the proper independent organization rather than undertaking it under the committee system. In cities of less than 100,000 the experience of the field workers for the extension of the movement had been that, because of the limitations upon possible funds for social purposes and because of the need of obtaining the best possible grade of trained leadership, it was generally necessary to work on the committee plan, but whenever opportunity came to bring about separate organization advantage of it should be taken. But the responsibility of the society for seeing that the necessary community program was carried out could not be side-stepped, provided only and in all cases that at the bottom of the program was intensive family work.

Alice L. Higgins made a report for the program committee on medical and social co-operation. One of Miss Higgins' strongest appeals was that social workers should recognize that the medical workers had much to teach them even in their own field, and that there had been far too prevalent an idea that contact meant only enlightenment on the medical side. A better understanding was one of the biggest promises of the future in which the social worker would profit at least as much as the medical.

The report of Francis H. McLean, general secretary, indicates that during the eight months beginning October 1, 1911, thirty-two cities had been definitely assisted in organizing, and that twenty-nine were on the way.

Attention was called to the appalling revelations of the field work with reference to the absolute indifference of many communities toward the proper support of properly organized health departments. In some of the far western cities indeed the appropriations to health departments were measured by hundreds instead of thousands of dollars. The public health problem was indeed the most common one facing the societies.

The association has definitely marked out a program which may be expressed in this slogan: "Organization as fast as possible in cities of 10,000 or over, experimental organization in cities of less than 10,000, all expansion to be regulated by adequately holding on to the ground which is gained."

The association created a committee on the problem of the homeless men to formulate a working program for the societies.

A budget of \$15,000 was voted for the second year's work, which means the addition of a third field worker.

THE RED CROSS

ERNEST P. BICKNELL

National Director American
Red Cross

One of the subjects discussed at the meeting of the American Red Cross in Cleveland last month was the work of relief in connection with the Mississippi river flood. Brief reports were given by Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the Red Cross, who has had charge of the work for the society, and by C. M. Hubbard, one of the special Red Cross representatives who spent some weeks in the flooded district.

Measures adopted by the Red Cross for the relief of survivors of the Titanic wreck were described by W. Frank Persons who is in immediate charge of this work under the direction of the New York Red Cross Emergency Relief Committee.

Jane A. Delano, head of the Red Cross Nursing Service, described the method by which more than 3,000 graduate nurses have enrolled under the Red Cross flag in all parts of the United States. These nurses hold themselves in readiness to respond instantly to the call of the Red Cross in time of war or disaster. Committees in charge of enrolment have been formed in several hundred cities. The promptness with which nurses answer a call was illustrated during the Mexican border troubles in 1911 and during the recent Mississippi flood. In both instances more nurses than were required volunteered and were ready to start to the place where they were needed within a few hours after the notification was received.

A summary of the amount and value of tuberculosis work supported by the sale of Red Cross Christmas seals was given in a brief paper prepared by Philip P. Jacobs, assistant secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

PUBLIC RELIEF OFFICIALS

Harmonizing in its leading ideas with the work of the committee on public supervision and administration of the National Conference of Charities and Correction the program of the National Association of Public Relief Officials this year presented as its general theme, in the language of tradition, the American poor law. But the well-worn expression went unused, while the association asked itself: What are the common practices in the official relief of poverty in the United States? What does the official group among social reformers propose to do about our growing problem of defectiveness and insanity? What indication of progress is there in the present status of the public almshouse?

In his treatment of the poor laws of the several states, Alfred H. Simpson of the New York State Charities Aid Association characterized these regulations of public relief as being woefully out of date. There is everywhere too ready an agreement that the machinery of relief cannot be improved. A. L. Bowen, secretary of the Illinois Charities Commission, said in discussing rural public relief: "It is peculiar in its organization, peculiar in its administration, peculiar in its isolation in the public mind, and peculiar in the indifference with which taxpayers regard its criminal waste and corrupting influences." Nor did the speakers cease their searching inquiry until they had brought forth bodily the old skeleton of municipal outdoor relief. This was one of the chief surprises of the meetings. Fred R. Johnson, who has recently been called to the superintendence of the department of public charities of Bridgeport, Conn., presented the type of relief work done by such city bureaus as the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare as being entirely practicable and commendable. The argument was substantiated by the testimony of T. J. Edmunds, of the Cincinnati Associated Charities. And Secretary Wilson of the Board of Public Charities of the District of Columbia, confessed frankly that the old subject should be opened afresh, for, he said, "there is no more logic in abandoning public outdoor relief because of bad administration than there would be in abolishing the metropolitan police because of graft in the force."

The new light that has been thrown on the problems of insanity and defectiveness in the last few decades was thought to bring these questions forth as matters of great concern in the development of public policy. In spite of scientific advancement in some sections, Dr. Thomas W. Salmon of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene showed that "every stage in the date of the insane, from 1780 to 1912, is represented at the present time in the treatment and procedure of the different states." Dr. Frank P. Norbury, alienist of the Illinois Board of Administra-

tion, indicated the scientific objective of public administrative work in this field: "To prevent the multiplication of biologically and morally degenerate classes is one of the newer problems given us as a possibility in the ideals, at least, of the new science of eugenics."

The joint session of the association with the conference committee on supervision and administration was given over to discussion of the practical problems of infirmary management. Harris R. Cooley described the Cleveland colony plan. Specific points of good administration were taken up in the light of recent progress made in those directions in four states—California, Indiana, Missouri and Ohio. This section meeting closed, as did the other sessions of the association, with that feeling manifest which was expressed by Robert W. Heberd of the State Board of Charities of New York in his presidential address: "That much of the work of practical charity is poorly done . . . and that it is our duty to understand our problems better and to do our part to bring about the improvements that are necessary . . . are the principal reasons for our existence as a separate and distinct organization."

It was decided to enlarge the scope of the association during the coming year to include all those engaged in charitable and correctional work in an official way. The decision was made on the ground that there is at present no clearing house of information directly relating to official work in this field and that therefore no very effective training school for this class of officials and employees in the public service exists. At the same time it was acknowledged that many very important problems having to do with the improvement of official relief and correction are going undiscussed. The new name, American Association of Officials of Charity and Correction, was therefore adopted and its officers chosen as follows: President, Robert W. Heberd, Albany, N. Y.; Secretary, W. T. Cross, Columbia, Mo.; Treasurer, R. W. Hill, Albany, N. Y.

BACKWARD AND DEPENDENT CHILDREN

E. L. COFFEEN

Secretary

In preparing the program for the Conference on the Education of Backward, Truant, Delinquent and Dependent Children much attention was paid to institutional vocational training and the opportunities of institutions for helping the agricultural movement of the country and the individual study of the child under institutional care and outside of the institution.

The keynote of the conference seemed to center about individual study of the child. President Barnabas and the executive committee succeeded in attracting to the conference men who are leaders in the handling and

study of unfortunate children. Among those who addressed it were A. D. Dean, Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.; F. H. Nibecker of Glen Mills, Pa.; Charles H. Tuck of the Department of Agricultural Extension of Cornell University; E. R. Finch of New York City; Judge Robert J. Wilkin of Brooklyn; C. W. Wilson, Westboro, Mass.; Dr. George N. Parker of New York City; Dr. Martin L. Collins of New York City and C. B. Adams of St. Charles, Ill.

Alexander Johnson, secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and Dr. S. Wolfenstein, superintendent of the Jewish Orphan Asylum of New York gave practical discussions on institutional administration and employees. The question of institutional scholastic training was dealt with by Dr. Bernstein of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Orphan Asylum of New York and O. E. Darnall, superintendent of the National Training School for Boys at Washington, D. C.

J. Prentice Murphy of the Children's Aid Society of Boston and Bradley Hull of Cleveland, Ohio, clarified many of the confused points with reference to the moral and legal aspects of the abandonment and surrender of children.

THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE

CHARLES S. MACFARLAND

Secretary

In a meeting of the Commission on the Church and Social Service of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America held at Cleveland, June 13, the following action was taken regarding the work of the commission.

It was decided that the literature of the various denominations of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America should be issued jointly by the commission. The secretaries of the various denominational commissions on the church and social service are to make their work interdenominational, including their secretarial visitation and organization. It was decided to hold a two-days' conference on the church and social service at Chicago in December in connection with the second quadrennial of the Federal Council. The literature committee was authorized to arrange for the publication of several handbooks on social studies to be distributed among the churches to be used by classes in studying the ways in which the church can be of service in all matters of social uplift. It was voted that use should be made of THE SURVEY as a medium for the circulation of social service news, presented from the viewpoint of church workers.

* * *

An episode which was flashed up in the headlines of the Cleveland newspapers was

the introduction of a resolution by Benjamin C. Marsh of New York "requesting the speaker of the House of Representatives and the president of the United States Senate to appoint a joint investigating committee to inquire into the extent to which the charities of the country are interfering with the due course of justice by deceiving the people as to the real causes of poverty and fighting against measures to prevent poverty, and to make such recommendations in the premises as it may see fit."

* * *

Not on the official program but largely attended was a meeting called to consider what common ground there may be between socialism and the social worker.

* * *

At a meeting held in Cleveland, June 17, in the interests of the National Association for

the Advancement of Colored People, Charles Chestnutt, novelist, gave an interesting account of the Negro in Cleveland, showing his favorable civil status. One colored man sat in the last legislature, colored men are on the police force, and several colored men served on the committee appointed by the mayor to represent Cleveland at the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

* * *

Never before did so many speakers at the conference interject side pleas for woman suffrage. Indeed, one afternoon the Colonial Theater was packed from the footlights to the fire escapes with a crowd which had gathered on short notice to hear Judge Mack, Jane Addams, Mrs. Florence Kelley, Owen R. Lovejoy, Maude E. Miner, and Sophonisba P. Breckinridge help along the local efforts to make "Ohio next."

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

X

ORGANIZED INDUSTRY AND ORGANIZED RELIGION

GRAHAM TAYLOR

A New England mill manager raised the question stated in the title of this article by thinking out loud in the hearing of the writer to this effect: "I am manager of the mill and a member of the church in my town. As mill manager I have the livelihood and workaday lives of over 2,000 men and women employes and their families under my care and influence. As church member I bear my share of responsibility for the spiritual welfare of these and other fellow townfolk. And yet the mill and the church have too little to do with each other to aid me in fulfilling my responsibility in each for the other. Have I not a right to expect my church to help me work for my mill people? Should I not be able to make the mill more helpful to the church than by contributing directly or indirectly toward its financial support?"

Another loyal churchman and generous giver to social and church work for improving living and working conditions found himself in this dilemma. The secretary of the manufacturers' association, to which this employer belongs, attacked the social workers for promoting legislation expensive to the manufacturers. Its promoters defended themselves

and their proposed laws on the ground that existing conditions subverted the aims and success of religious and social work. "I find myself paying two sets of people to undo each other's efforts, while the industrial and religious interests with which I am personally identified are arrayed against each other."

These are concrete statements of the demand for the help, and the protest against the harm, which organized industry and organized religion may be to each other. If, then, as we have seen,¹ industry and religion have so much in common and are so interdependent in fulfilling their essential human functions, should there not be less antagonism, or less of a sense of irrelevancy, and more sympathetic co-operation between the organizations of both? If so, what shall it be? What may religious and industrial organizations do for and with each other?

First of all they may secure and exchange information of the actual conditions under which work is being done and the workers are living in any locality or community. It is the business of the churches, of employing corpora-

¹See THE SURVEY, June 1, 1912, *Industry and Religion: Their Common Ground and Interdependence*.

tions, and labor unions to know just what these conditions are. It is to the interest of each of these organized interests to be thus informed. Publicity is good public policy. Secretiveness is worse only than ignorance of, or indifference to, the facts. Each interest owes it to itself, and to the other, to know and make known whatever is conditioning life for better or worse. If the churches ignore these facts they stultify their own prayers, preaching, aims, and hopes. If employing industries pay all attention to the material interests of their plants and products and none to the human factors of their problem, they are bringing back upon themselves disasters which their neglect or injustice has brought upon others. If labor organizations heed not the conditions of the trade and market which their employers are facing, as well as the working and living conditions under which they themselves live and work, they are in no position to get or keep their rights to bargain for their members or with their employers.

Labor organizations have been foremost in calling public attention to and demanding the recognition of the conditions against which their members are struggling. Indeed, they are to be credited with forcing the observation of these facts both upon employers and upon political economists. Had they not done so political economy might have continued to be the "dismal science" which so long faced practical conditions with abstract theories; employers would have reckoned less with the cost of living in fixing wages; and legislation would have been slower and feebler in enacting laws against child labor, the overwork of women, unprotected dangerous machinery, and occupational diseases; laws for the minimum wage, industrial insurance, and old age pensions. Employing corporations are following quickly and fully in studying conditions and basing far-reaching and effective policies for preventing injury, assuring safety or insuring against loss, furnishing facilities and comforts, encouraging thrift and community interests, promoting welfare and progress. These things are and can be attained only by industrial organiza-

tions, seldom by individuals, however well disposed. Only organized effort is adequate to produce them. Some of them require the united effort of employers' and employees' organizations working together in effective co-operation. Heavy have been the losses, disastrous the delays due to the refusal of employers and employees to exchange their knowledge of facts. Complaints of the conditions existing at the Chicago Stock Yards were made by their employees, but were unheeded both by the companies and the public, years before the government investigation warned the world against them and inflicted the national scandal and loss. The dynamiting and violence which have inflicted upon organized labor its deepest disgrace and damage might have been prevented had it not been for labor's distrust of all sources of information outside its own ranks.

Is it not possible, yes even probable, that if a third party commanding public confidence were known to be accurately informed of living and working conditions, the other two parties directly at issue would have less occasion for distrusting, misunderstanding, and fighting each other? Would not each of them fear an informed and aroused public opinion more than they do each other? Would they not be more inclined to get together by mutual concession than to stand out against each other in the face of the facts thus firmly held between them by those friendly to both? Is this not the function of religion thus to anticipate and prevent injustice and discontent, misunderstanding and strife? Dramatically did the first of these surveys of industrial conditions make its entrance upon the arena of our contemporary religious life and action. It was after the despairing East London missionaries had raised their "exceeding bitter cry" over the conditions under which lives were lost in that great and terrible city wilderness, that the British Empire and the civilized world were startled by their little pamphlet bearing the arousing title *The Bitter Cry of Outcast London*. Amidst the many hysterical responses immediately elic-

ited by it, one man went to work like a master workman. He was Charles Booth, the merchant-man shipper whose ships were carriers of British industries across many seas. He alone set out upon a voyage of discovery to find the facts as to the conditions of life and labor in London. As one after another of his seventeen volumes appeared, during the twenty years of research, such movements as these met the complex situation as it came to be better understood. The social settlements arose. The Salvation Army was marshalled. The London County and other borough and county councils developed their reconstruction work. Garden cities grew. Town-planning evolved from the new science of cities. In great succession the industrial acts of Parliament carried on and out the factory acts of the last century and began to transform and supersede the poor laws of nearly four hundred years. Before the bar of public opinion, Mr. Booth and other inquirers for the facts of social conditions were cited to give the evidence upon which parliamentary elections turned and imperial policies were determined.

In America, the Pittsburgh Survey led the progressive people and agencies of that city to initiate far-reaching movements which are destined to improve the conditions of life and labor. The United States Steel Corporation instituted an inquiry of its own into working conditions in its plants, and its stock-holders endorsed the order to abolish the seven-day week and the recommendations to reduce the twelve-hour day and to guard against over-speeding; accepting more direct responsibility for knowing and improving the sanitary, economic, and social interests and relations of the employees. The local surveys made for the Men and Religion Forward Movement have laid the basis for the churches' new interest in and understanding of their fields; for new enterprise and policies in their work; for new co-operation between themselves and with public and volunteer agencies.

Already the churches of many localities have found that they could achieve

together what they could not have attempted apart. Moreover, the federation of all the churches could fearlessly face local conditions as no group of local churches did, or perhaps could, do. The way in which the issue between the steel workers and churches at South Bethlehem, Pa., over Sunday labor and other maladjustments was handled is in evidence. The declaration of industrial faith and policy by the Federal Council of the United Churches of Christ set a standard for all the churches such as no single church or small group of churches could have set for themselves.

The churches, therefore, can discover the living and working conditions of their own communities for themselves and others. The more they co-operate in so doing the wider, more accurate and authoritative, and the more practically useful will be their surveys of conditions and their efforts to improve them.

The judicial impartiality with which these facts must be gathered and interpreted should also characterize the attitude of the churches toward the organizations of both labor and capital. Inconsistent with this fidelity to fact and judicial judgment is it for churches and ministers to ally themselves with either one more than the other. Denominational committees or departments should bear a title which includes both. "Industrial" is a better surname for the committee or department than "labor." "Fraternal delegates" are as much needed by employers' associations as by federations of labor. Ministers, who are not craftsmen, have no more claim or right to belong to a labor union than to a manufacturers' association. In either case it is either disingenuous or emptily honorary. The church stands for all, if for any. Its ministry is mediatorial. As such the minister should refuse to be classified, should be a mass-man not a class-man, should stand in between, and by the fatherhood of God declare "All ye are brethren." This intermediary position and attitude of the churches allows of no weak, noncommittal, timidly compromising spirit. It

calls for a stern sense of justice, a squaring to facts, a peace-making, with emphasis upon the making. It means insistence upon fair play, and the free speech and the full hearing of the other side, without which nothing is fair. It sometimes involves a demand for the impartial enforcement of law, and at other times a protest against the abuse of the police power to silence the voice or crush the rights of the weaker, poorer party, or the one taken unawares or unprepared.

To these ends "free-floor" discussions are sometimes valuable. When and where demanded to give voice to the silenced, to assert and maintain the freedom of speech and the right of public assembly, the church cannot consistently deny the claim of the wronged or the weak. But there are many risks and more hard experiences involved in assuming responsibility for the use and abuse of this *carte blanche* bill of rights. If each one's claim is limited to three minutes, we can all stand anything three minutes, especially if the others must endure the exercise of that liberty by us, the infliction of which we have suffered at their tongue. Even so, discussions which rang with reality at first tend to become spectacular at last. Fearless, frank utterance of sincere conviction plays to the galleries after a while in response to the applause which it elicits from others. It proves to be as difficult to keep all sides on the floor, as to keep one side from monopolizing it. When those who should be participants become spectators; when those who should stand up for their own convictions and answer back those who attack them, only urge the loose talker to be wilder; when the worse such men become the better they are liked for the fun they give the others, then the free-floor becomes a circus-ring, the speakers are clowns, and the chairman, however sacrificial his sincerity may be, becomes a mere ring-master. So whenever the freedom becomes license, and the floor becomes a stage and the speech becomes unreal, stop it. For it has fulfilled its purpose and is now undoing the good

it has done. Good history may be poor policy. Begin over again with a smaller group, all of whose members seek light. Or plan to carry out in action some line of talk that can be translated into deed.

If what was at first taken seriously comes to be facetious and insincere, let it not give room to cynicism. The real struggle goes on as grim, hard, hand to hand, just beyond this mimicry. Doubt not the need of interposition, human and divine.

Here, then, if anywhere, is the world's call for the church's religion of intercession and vicarious sacrifice. If there is a cross, here is where by its sign we conquer or it is conquered. Is there anything more subversive of what religion is bound to do for every man, woman, and child, than to allow the worst passions to be aroused by injustice, than to fail to prevent fratricidal strife, than to stand aside and let organized industry be organized warfare?

Does this ministry of mediation, this attitude of interposition, this intercessional study of concrete situations, general conditions, and authoritative facts, transcend the capacity of the modern church? It surely does surpass the courage and faith, the influence and resources of the divided churches. But it did not when the church was more united. Then it interceded between warring nations and races. Then it interposed its truce between armies in battle array. Then it mediated the very "peace of God" on earth. Even now when the divided churches temporarily unite, much more permanently federate, their cross of self-sacrifice is still the sign by which they conquer. The united religious forces are still adequate to meet and master the situation in almost every community. But their mastery is only that of truth, no longer that of asserted authority. It is the mastery of authoritative facts, patiently, practically, intelligently applied to concrete situations that wins religion's way.

New bases are being laid, new fulcrums are being fixed for the levers of religion's old power in the surveys, the parish policies and the federated efforts

which the churches are making on their local fields and within the denominational and national spheres of action. In the enactment and enforcement of laws the churches should take their full, large share with and through the National Child Labor Committee, the national and local consumers' leagues, the Association for Labor Legislation, and the Woman's Trade Union League. Collectively by parish, denomination, and inter-denominational agitation and education they can watch or initiate, influence and help enact laws for protecting and promoting the interests of working men, women and children. They can, without being partial to mere class interests, unite with employers or with organized labor, either or both, in securing legislation clearly demanded by public welfare. How well worth while it is to promote and join in such co-operative efforts was strikingly demonstrated in the success of four Illinois commissions.

Fire protection of mines from any recurrence of the Cherry mine conflagration and the revision of the mining laws of the state were accomplished by miners, operators, and three representatives of the public, without opposition from the legislature and without hindrance from a large strike in the industry. The law to prevent occupational diseases was formulated and passed in the same way. Labor's representatives on the employers' liability commission proposed this toast to the principal employer serving on the commission:

Here is to Charles Piez! One of the best fellows of our long remembrance; one of the finest of Chicago's citizens; one of the most unselfish of Illinois captains of industry; whose good fellowship has been our good fortune and pleasure; whose sterling citizenship has been our inspiration; whose unselfish, public-spirited service has been the glory of a worthy life. All hail, Charles Piez!

At the final session of the Illinois Industrial Commission for protection from dangerous machinery, the labor members surprised the others by presenting a little souvenir with these generous sentiments:

We believe that the spirit of fairness manifested by the members of the commis-

sion representing the employers emphasizes greatly the value of conference and a discussion of our problems to the end that we may find the common ground upon which both sides may stand without sacrifice of either principle or self-respect.

Appreciative of "those unselfish representatives of the great third interest—the public," the working men added this tribute:

Under less favorable circumstances the duty imposed on this section of the commission would have been to hold the balance of power, to act as mediators in an effort toward harmony. In the presence of such able men much of this spirit of mutual confidence was born—because in the presence of such gentlemen the evil spirits of sharp practice, undue influence or mutual distrust would have fled abashed.

Was not this a coming of "the Kingdom of righteousness, peace and joy in the holy spirit"? Would it not have been the function and glory of the churches to have prompted and promoted such a translation of the faith and hope of the Gospel into the deeds of men and the act of legislature? Could anything but the joint influence of organized industry and organized religion have brought about such a triumph of the spirit of God?

Let the churches organize within their denominations to educate their own fellowship. Let the Social Service Commission of the Federal Council of the United Churches of Christ organize, represent, and express their interdenominational attitude and action. Then in the still larger fellowship embracing the Jewish and Roman Catholic faiths, there will be the organized religion to co-operate with the organized industry of the American people for the peace and progress of our great democracy and for the coming of the "Kingdom of the Father."

[THIS IS THE NINTH OF PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH IS RUNNING PERIODICALLY IN THE SURVEY. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I. LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II. THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16; III. PERSONALITY, A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE, JANUARY 6; IV. THE CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE, JANUARY 20; V. CHANGING CONDITIONS OF A WORKING FAITH, FEBRUARY 3; VI. THE RELIGION OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS, MARCH 2; VII. THE FAMILY: FIELD, FUNCTION AND TRIBUTARY AGENCIES, APRIL 6; VIII. SURVIVAL AND REVIVAL OF NEIGHBORSHIP, MAY 4; IX. INDUSTRY AND RELIGION: THEIR COMMON GROUND AND INTERDEPENDENCE, JUNE 1; THE TITLE OF THE NEXT ARTICLE WILL BE: THE CHURCH AND THE COMMUNITY AS DEPENDENT UPON AND TRIBUTARY TO EACH OTHER.]

THE COMMON WELFARE

DUTCH DAYS ON THE HUDSON

The critics may quarrel as they will over the use of the word "pageant," but until something better is invented it stands for the living pictures which unfold the history of any community. Such a pageant took place recently at Croton-on-Hudson, New York, under the direction of Mabel Hay Barrows Mussey, who turned from Greek representations, with which her name has been chiefly associated, to depict life as it was when the Dutch, some of whom may have been her own ancestors, made their home on the beautiful wooded banks of the lordly river.

Charming posters in Dutch colors—orange and blue—announced the event and people came from near and far to witness it.

The bit of history selected was from the seventeenth century. It was not an attempt to unroll the entire historic picture of a forgotten past, but to make vivid the life of those far-off days when the old and the new Netherlands were so alike in dress, customs, manners and beliefs. All the music used was of that period and though new words were adapted to the quaint songs, they were the same simple melodies that the Dutch boys and girls, men and maidens, were singing long before the Declaration of Independence rang out upon the world. Scores of those who took part were lineal descendants of those early settlers.

The site chosen for the pageant was ideal. Magnificent trees, under whose shade Horace Greeley used to walk, encircled the natural amphitheater, and

the Hudson with the blue hills beyond gave a wonderful setting.

A windmill, gay with hundreds of brilliant tulips about its gray walls, swung aloft its weird arms, which moved slowly and rhythmically—unaided, it must be confessed, by wind. It was the central feature in the pretty scene. In its lower story dwelt the Miller, his Wife, his Daughter and Ten Children, who took their little porringers and had their bread and milk *al fresco*. A row of picturesque booths, built of weather-beaten boards, housed the butcher, the baker, and other village folk. These lined one side of the Markt place, while close by the basket-maker, the fisherman mending his nets, and the village blacksmith were busy at their tasks. Vendors of simples, ribands, waffles, eggs, thread and needles, and dairy products enticed the passers-by to purchase their wares. Spinning and weaving were carried on by expert hands. The cows went by to pasture and the stately and dignified schoolmaster led his procession of children, walking with folded hands and singing as they went to his leading from the great black letter singing book. Singing also, the village maidens danced over the green as they went out to bleach their linen. A christening, a wedding procession—the bride on a pillion—a dance of the burghers, numerous fascinating

folk dances, and the always attractive minuet, followed in succession with hardly a halt even for the tolling of the bell and the solemn march of the Aanspreker, as, clad in black, with streaming crêpe, he passed through the Markt place announcing the death of an old villager.



ONE OF THE DANCES.



ROUND THE OLD WINDMILL.

There comes a sudden interruption to this homely life. The boys who have been flying a kite come rushing down the hill in terror. They have seen the coming of a band of Wilden (Indians) creeping through the forest, single file. But the visit proves a friendly one and the pipe of peace is smoked and gifts exchanged.

Night falls. The kolf (golf) sticks are put away, the booths are closed, the curfew rings, and silence settles on the little Dutch village.

It was a genuine pleasure to see such accuracy of detail in costumes and properties, such smoothness of action, and such lack of self-consciousness, for the actors seemed to ignore the fact that they were being looked at. More than one hundred and fifty of the villagers took part. For music there was a harp, a violin, a clarinet and a cornet.

This pageant was not given for fun, nor for teaching history, though both would have been good excuses, but primarily to interest the community in concerted action for public welfare, and secondly to add a few ducats to the treasury of the Croton Health League which stands for preserving and pro-

moting the health and good times of the people.

STRIKING HANDS FOR A SOCIAL EMERGENCY

Mayor Cotterill, of Seattle, has issued a call for "a council of social agencies." The occasion which he and a committee of representative citizens urge as an imperative demand for such a concerted movement is the impending opening of the Panama Canal. This is expected to stimulate immigration that "will so augment our social difficulties as to create a social emergency." It was therefore put up to these agencies to form some kind of federation which shall serve "as a bureau for the dissemination of social intelligence and as a clearing-house for the interpretation and development of their social work, without disturbing the autonomy of the individual organizations."

Fifty or more agencies engaged in social work responded to the mayor's call and heartily agreed to organize, under the guidance of a committee of twenty-five, twelve of whom were appointed and given authority to name the other thirteen. The twelve first named are:

Matthew B. McBride, for the Roman Catholic churches; Rabbi Samuel Koch, for the Jewish synagogues; Sydney Strong, for the Protestant churches; Frank B. Cooper, for the public schools; J. K. Hart, for the university; Mrs. I. H. Jennings, for the Women's Federated Clubs; Paul K. Mohr, for the labor, and Frank W. Baker, for the commercial organizations; H. H. Gowen, for the charities associations, and J. E. Crichton, for the city board.

This new council of social agencies, it is thought, will be a splendid preparation for next summer's session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. And the National Conference will give the council an auspicious start.

THE FARMS OF THE FLOOD SUFFERS

In all large disasters tales of distress and heroism are apt to overshadow, in the public mind, the less dramatic features of the situation. For this reason most people find that they do not have a clear conception of the routine, if anything so emergent and various can be called routine, followed by administrators of relief. It is especially interesting, therefore, to get a close-range view of some of the methods which the American Red Cross has been adopting in the Mississippi flood region.

The Red Cross has been active in organizing local relief committees throughout the flooded district. This is in accordance with its custom of always endeavoring to make the largest possible use of local interest and initiative. Entirely aside, however, from what the Red Cross has done there have sprung up in various points, strong local relief committees. These have been in charge of the relief camps and have become closely familiar with the needs of the refugees sheltered in the camps. The Red Cross maintains close relations with these committees, making the best use of their familiarity with conditions. In Louisiana, for example, with the Red Cross recommendation, a combination of the local committees of New Orleans and Baton Rouge has been converted into a state committee. Upon this the governor as president of the Louisiana Red

Cross Board represents the Red Cross. The latter plans to carry out a large part of the rehabilitation work which must be done in Louisiana through the closest working relations with this state committee.

It is not possible to make a definite statement as to the length of the period in which work must be continued, says Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the Red Cross, who continues:

When we have re-established people in their homes and have given them seed for planting and food for themselves and animals sufficient to maintain them for several weeks, it will undoubtedly be possible for a majority of those assisted to care for themselves thereafter.

As soon as these people have planted their crops and been re-established at home many of them will be able to command credit with merchants. Some will have to be carried until new crops are harvested next fall. I should say that some relief will have to be provided until September or October, although I hope that much the greater part of it may be completed within the next six weeks.

It is quite impossible to make an accurate estimate of the amount of relief fund needed. I believe, however, that with one hundred thousand dollars in addition to the funds already in the hands of the local committees we should be able to meet the most urgent requirements of humanity. This would mean that we would provide a minimum of seed for planting, a minimum assistance in the repair of buildings and that we would be unable to undertake to provide many things necessary to make our work complete and effective. It is not possible to give an estimate of the demand which may arise for medical service, nursing, and supplies. If the flood is followed by serious outbreaks of typhoid and malaria the demands upon us may be extremely heavy. Health conditions at present are fair but no one can predict with certainty the outcome.

With the subsidence of the water the bodies of thousands of dead animals will be left scattered through the country and there will be much danger of the corruption of the water supply. The various local relief committees have a total of about \$50,000. This will be expended in connection with the money which comes to the Red Cross. With a total of \$150,000, or much better, \$200,000, Mr. Bicknell believes that the situation can be taken care of without discrediting the public generosity, but he adds:

As I have indicated above, this is a rough estimate based upon the best information which I have been able to get together as to the min-

imum amount of relief money with which the most urgent demands may be met. If we undertake to supply needy farmers with all the seed which they should have, and if we help them to purchase horses and mules necessary to enable them to carry on their farm work effectively, we shall be involved in a very much greater expense than the amount estimated above.

THE RAVAGES OF THE BOLL WEEVIL

An estimate based on a careful census of certain relief camps indicates that substantially 50,000 persons, composing the families of small farmers, have been driven from home by the flood. These constitute the class which will require the greatest amount of assistance, for they lack resources and credit. The plantation owners, in most instances, will have sufficient credit to re-establish themselves and to care for their laborers, although there will be some exceptions. Cotton planters have suffered great losses for several years through the ravages of a boll weevil. As a result the flood found many of them greatly weakened financially and some of them will undoubtedly fail in their efforts to continue cultivation. On the other hand many of the smaller farmers will have sufficient assets and credit to pull through without much help.

The time element is an important factor in the situation. If the flooded farmer is to raise a crop this year he must get his seed into the ground within the next two weeks for the crop of cotton, and within three weeks for corn or peas. The crop on which chief dependence is placed is cotton. If the farmer cannot get his seed into the ground in time to promise him a crop, he will in many hundreds of instances, be compelled to abandon his farm and move to some other part of the country where he can obtain day labor on plantations or in the lumber mills. While this will save his family from starvation it will mean financial ruin and the loss of the little property which he has been able to accumulate.

The flood has affected the states of Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana. The water has already receded from most of the land submerged in Missouri, Ken-

tucky, and Tennessee. It has receded from a considerable portion of the submerged land in Arkansas and Mississippi. The farmers in the country from which the water has receded are back on their lands struggling to regain a foothold. Such money as has been available for rehabilitation has been expended so far in helping these farmers return to their lands.

The chief problem lies, however, in the state of Louisiana, which has suffered a heavier loss, probably, than all the other states combined. The army was recently preparing to withdraw its men and discontinue its emergency relief operations. Following its withdrawal and coincident with the receding of the flood the task of getting people back on their lands and setting them on their feet will fall wholly upon the shoulders of the Red Cross and the local committees.

A SUNDAY WORK BILL FOR THE POST OFFICE

The movement for Sunday closing of the post offices has reached such proportions as only to need a boost to make Sunday closing—or at least a minimum of Sunday work—universal throughout the country. At present about 75 per cent of our post offices are cutting down work on that day. Some of these follow the so-called Toledo plan of keeping open an hour in the morning, to allow access to lock-boxes; others deliver mail through the carrier's window during this time. The sorting of mail, which formerly kept some 15,000 men employed on Sunday, is eliminated by both these classes. In almost all cases where work is cut down on Sunday, the office force gladly reports earlier on Monday in order to deliver on schedule time.

The progress of the movement, which was started about two years ago by Ernest A. Eggers, a carrier in the New York post office, is in no small part due to the support of the churches represented by the Lord's Day Alliance, local ministers' organizations, the Epworth League, and the Christian Endeavor Society. The Post Office Department early showed itself in sympathy, and this favorable attitude was communicated

through the columns of the *Postal Record* to the local postmasters, who were instructed to use their own option in the matter of closing. The postmaster of Colorado Springs set the example, followed in the fall of 1910 by the large post office at Detroit. Since then the movement has spread rapidly, with little opposition. In the post office appropriation bill for 1910 the postmaster general put his approval on record by inserting a clause providing that compensatory time off may be permitted during the week to clerks doing Sunday work. This he followed up by two successive circular letters to postmasters urging the discontinuance of Sunday work. Not all postmasters have as yet responded to Mr. Hitchcock's suggestions, and the employes therefore supported the Reilly bill which has passed the House and which limits the work of clerks and carriers to eight hours, performed within ten hours on six days in the week. This law is of special importance to post office clerks, at present the only group of government civil service employes whose hours are totally unregulated by law.

The Post Office appropriation bill last year was the occasion for bringing out serious grievances in the working conditions of post office employes. While the bill was under consideration strikes were going on among the "insurgents" in the railway mail service and vigorous protests were made by a little group among the post office clerks. Little was done to improve conditions by last year's bill, beyond some very unsatisfactory legislation in regard to steel mail cars. The continued agitation of the few organized in bodies not controlled by the departments, whom every effort was made to disband, finally penetrated to a certain extent even into the most conservative organizations of postal workers, so that at their annual conventions practically all declared for pensions. Two—besides the insurgent National Federation of Post Office Clerks—pledged their support of the Lloyd anti-gag bill providing that civil service employes shall not be removed without a hearing, and that membership in a labor organization shall not be sufficient cause for removal.

The Lloyd bill has passed the House as part of this year's appropriation bill. Many of the postal organizations went on record for a larger percentage of promotions to the upper ranks of clerks and carriers, and three others urged legislation enabling those of the lower ranks, the substitutes who had served eighteen months or more, to pass immediately on regular appointment into the second or \$800 a year grade. This year's appropriation bill, as it passed the House, contained the provision that 75 per cent, instead of 50 per cent, of those on the eligible list should be promoted. The demands in regard to substitutes have not yet been met. Nor has any retirement bill been passed, though three have been up for discussion.

RETIREMENT AND PENSION SCHEMES

That of Representative Hamill of New Jersey is a straight pension scheme (H. R. 9242) like the Goulden bill of earlier sessions, calling for no contribution from employes. This is supported by five post office organizations and by a majority of all civil service employes and is being agitated for both in the columns of the *Chief*, the organ of the civil service, and by mass meetings in New York, Philadelphia, Washington, and other large cities. The Hamill bill has disability as well as pension provisions. Another is the Austin bill, which is contributory, but which provides an increase of 15 per cent on all salaries. The latter is supported by a minority of employes, who hold that straight pensions mean, in the long run, "deferred pay," that is, a forcing down of salaries. A parliamentary objection urged against this is that a law combining both pension and increase of salaries is a "legislative impossibility." A third bill is the plan of compulsory contribution without an increase of salary introduced at the last session by Representative Perkins. This compulsory savings plan is based on the model outlined in Document No. 745, 61st Congress (the Savings and Annuity Plan Proposed for the Retirement of Superannuated Civil Service Employes), which is the last of the series of federal reports on retirement

systems prepared for the Committee on Civil Service and Retrenchment by Herbert D. Brown. Hearings on the Hamill bill were held in January before the Committee on Civil Service Reform, at which all forms of retirement were discussed. As Postmaster General Hitchcock and the secretaries of the treasury and the navy are all strongly in favor of a retirement system there seems reason to believe that one of these bills will be passed at this session. In addition to these responses to some of the specific demands, a better provision has been made by this year's appropriation bill for replacing wooden by steel mail cars, a certain fixed percentage being required each year, and the appropriation for railway mail clerks' per diem travel allowance was increased. Though no other legislation on conditions in the railway mail service was passed the last annual report of the postmaster general advocates a more generous scale of pay for railway mail clerks on the ground of the high skill and arduous toil required of them. The report has this to say of conditions in the railway mail service, as brought out by the recent investigation of the cost of transporting mail:

In certain branches of that service most unsatisfactory conditions were disclosed. Employes on certain lines were compelled to work exceptionally long hours, while in other parts of the service a sufficient period of train duty was not required. In many instances the sanitary condition of the cars had been neglected and the health of the employes thus jeopardized.

The second assistant postmaster general this winter sent out requests for recommendations from division superintendents for improvements in lighting, heating, and sanitation in railway mail cars. This official action is most interesting in view of the charges of bad and unfair working conditions brought by the exasperated railway mail clerks last summer.

[Two weeks ago the Democratic party in convention at Baltimore adopted a platform which calls for an investigation of agricultural credit societies in Europe to ascertain whether a system of rural credits could be devised suitable to conditions in the United States. The Republican platform adopted at Chicago contains a similar recommendation.—ED.]

EDITORIAL GRIST

AGRICULTURAL CO-OPERATION IN GERMANY¹

VICTOR VON BOROSINI

Modern methods of agriculture require technical schools, traveling teachers, exhibits and experimental stations, as well as considerable money for the buying of land, buildings and improvements and for temporary expenditures. In Germany, instruction is provided by the government. Funds for long or short periods, the former secured by a mortgage on the farm, are the subject of special laws throughout Europe, providing the farmer cheap credit and security against the recall of his loan. Governmental institutions often issue marketable safe titles for investment and the German co-operative banks, which have been imitated in other countries, are recognized not only as rural savings depositories, but satisfy temporary needs of credit. In 1908 over 12,000 such banks held about \$400,000,000 in current accounts or in the savings, while they had granted over \$250,000,000 credit. During the panic year 1907, the rate of interest of the imperial bank was over 7 per cent, while the co-operative banks maintained a rate of 4 per cent. Over 92 per cent of the co-operative societies assume unlimited liability.

In 1848 Raiffeisen established a co-operative cattle buying society with joint responsibility, loans to be inside of five years. Later loans were made for other purposes.

The first rural co-operative bank, founded in 1862, drove out the usurers in the district. Loans were granted by this institution for five to ten years, with the right to call them in in special cases. This right to recall money improperly used gives the co-operating societies of each small district where all members know the business and standing of the rest, a strong moral power. The capital of a co-operative cannot be alienated, but in case of dissolution must be used for some work of public utility. Each society with at least seven members in good standing, has a board of five man-

agers who decide on new members, loans and purchases, and who in their turn are controlled by a council of supervisors, who also examine the work of the cashier, the only paid officer. A general assembly approves the general policy and keeps track of the finances. The working capital is derived partly from shares, but mostly from deposits. Profits are divided among shareholders, the reserve and district welfare work, such as improved roads and school houses. Average running expenses in 1908 were 18 per cent of the capital. Through their central organizations the banks have increased their power, expended their activity and accomplished a division of labor among the members. Some societies have become successful agents for the purchase of raw materials at wholesale and for the sale of farm products.

Another important function of the central organizations is that they insure good quality and fair price in supplies. In 1904 one-fifth of all purchases were sent in for examination, revealing in one-third of all the cases short measure, for which \$65,000 was paid as compensation. By making possible the collective use of bulls and stallions, by establishing dairies, and by the collective use of machinery, especially steam ploughs,

the co-operative societies render to German husbandry most valuable services. The co-operatives are of special value to smaller landowners; the large landowners' greater needs of capital are frequently met by semi-public institutions.

To counteract the pernicious activity of landjobbers, the governments have created land-banks and commissions for interior colonization of eastern Germany, which are tending to break up large estates into small farms. These agencies buy estates and setting aside the necessary land for schools, churches, roads and wells, which they construct themselves, divide the remaining land into individual plots on which they build farm homes. These are sold to farmers from Germany, Russia and Hungary, who must possess some capital, but who may also borrow from the land-bank at low prices, the title to the property being secured after the whole amount has been paid back. If the colonist wants to sell out he must get the ratification of the bank. To rural laborers in these colonies are given a house with some ground for raising vegetables, and sometimes, even pigs and a cow. Their main source of income must come, however, from the labor they perform for the surrounding farmers.

BOOKS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

FIFTY YEARS OF PRISON SERVICE: AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY

By ZEBULON REED BROCKWAY. Charities Publication Committee. 425 pp. \$2.00 postpaid.

Among the unusual number of important books relating to social work which the past year has brought forth, perhaps the most distinctive group is made up of the books about social workers. Mrs. Lowell, Letchworth, and Brockway, three of the New York pioneers and leaders in philanthropy and penology, whose influence has extended far beyond their own state; Booker Washington, Tom Johnson, and Henry D. Lloyd, who in different ways have made many men think seriously and act courageously on social problems; in England Hyndman¹ and Ruskin, the veteran of English Socialism and the prophet crying in a wilderness for reforms which have in part

been accomplished and are in part included in the program of statesmen or in the dreams of large numbers of disciples; and in Japan the "peasant sage" whose principles for improving social conditions were so curiously like our own.

In the leisure of recent years Mr. Brockway has reviewed the eighty-five years of his life and especially the half century from 1848 to 1900, during which he was engaged almost uninterruptedly in prison service. It is a remarkable story, and it is told with all the vigor and decision characteristic of the superintendent of Elmira Reformatory. The personality shows in every sentence, and we cannot be too grateful to Mrs. Barrows for having done her editorial work with a delicate touch. For the long line of events and the development of the theories connected

¹See THE SURVEY of May 11 for review of *The Record of an Adventurous Life*, by H. M. Hyndman.

with Mr. Brockway's name which have had so powerful an influence here and in Europe, it will be necessary to read the entire book. We cannot, however, forbear quoting a passage which seems to represent its spirit: "Let me ask the kind reader not to impatiently dismiss the recital of these apparently trifling incidents, for in truth they form a not unimportant part of the record of my life. To the unreflective they may seem trivial, as at the time of occurrence they were lightly passed or quite unnoticed. But no event in any human life is truly trivial. Character is but the sum and product of all impressions ever received, added to hereditary tendency. It is these simple experiences which develop positive tendencies of mind and lead to the formation and confirmation of opinions which help in the avoidance of evil and the execution of good. The belief that elements of individual character are thus largely formed, that in the incidents of a life beyond the individual control the choices themselves are predetermined, is the warrant for recalling such details."

THE LIFE AND WORK OF WILLIAM PRYOR LETCHWORTH

By J. N. LARNED. Houghton Mifflin Company. 472 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.11.

Mr. Larned is an admirable historian of the long, serene, harmonious life of this "student and minister of public benevolence," who, before he had reached middle age, deliberately withdrew from private business and made public service the first concern of his life. His special interests during his twenty-three years as commissioner of the State Board of Charities were dependent and delinquent children, the epileptic, the insane, and his influence in securing better care for them is well known. "Letchworth Village" will commemorate his work for the epileptics, as "Letchworth Park," his beautiful Glen Iris estate, will stand forever for the people of the State of New York a reminder of his love of nature and his generous desire to share the beauties of his home with his fellow-citizens. The story of his life "is almost wholly a story of noble labors. . . . He toiled for the bettering of conditions among the unfortunates of his part of the world, as others toil for the rewards that come back to the laborer's self, in luxuries and gratifications that go with wealth, or in the honors of public life. To the extent that he had what might be called wealth, in a comparative sense, it can almost be said that he took to himself no luxuries from it and little of the gratifications that depend on wealth. He gave himself the great indulgence of Glen Iris; but he held that only as a life tenant, preparing it always for public possession and use. . . . It is because he made so little of the personal side of his life, and took into it so much from the other life around him, that the account of it is meagre in biographical incident. What he did has no dramatic quality for a reader's entertainment. . . . Mr. Letchworth was one of the happiest of men: in his benevolent se-

renity of temper; in the warmth of fellow-feeling which made mankind interesting to him; in his many friendships; in the assurance he could feel of holding a high place in public esteem; and, above all, in the satisfying fruits of his work."

THE LIFE OF JOHN RUSKIN

By E. T. COOK. The Macmillan Company. 2 v. 540, 615 pp. \$7.00; by express \$7.70; of THE SURVEY \$7.60.

It hardly seems possible to refer to this book without calling it "definitive." It is written by the editor of the "definitive" edition of Ruskin's works, who says modestly that he "cannot honestly say" that he has read every one of the twelve hundred books, pamphlets, and articles listed in the best bibliography of Ruskiniana, but that he has "probably read more of them than most other persons." Ruskin's life was a long one, too, though many of the later years were but a death-in-life. To a remarkable degree it was private and secluded. There were few events, but on the other hand he made for himself a great event out of the blowing of a rose, the passing of a cloud, a sentence from Plato or Job or Saint John. His habit of minute observation of the beauties of a flower or the truth of an idea is an impressive thing. We should of course take special interest in his influence as a political economist and social reformer—his emphasis on the importance of social conditions, his repudiation of *laissez-faire*, his pleas for educational reforms which should give free scope to all for self-development, his ardent desire for a better organization of industry—but we confess that we lingered rather over the picture of the little boy of eight, ten, and twelve years, seated before his study table in the recess consecrated to him, and engrossed in his "works"—long poems on his summer travels, after the manner of Wordsworth's *Excursion*, and a mineralogical dictionary, not to mention pursuits more common to his years. He was always a child in his parents' home during their life-time. When he was forty years old his father was overheard asking an Oxford tutor if he could not "put John in the way of some scientific study of political economy."

HENRY DEMAREST LLOYD

By CARO LLOYD. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 2 v. 308, 390 pp. \$5.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$5.30.

A very different life was this one from any of the three we have just glanced at, but like all three of them in the strong religious influence of his childhood home. There was an uncle who was so upright that he always carried two pencils in his pocket, one belonging to the company for which he worked and one to himself, which he used for the corresponding purposes. The children were at one time under the impression that God held the title as a result of election, having confused their theological studies with their practical knowledge of New York politics. This biography

is also of a different type from any of the three preceding, as indeed each of them is of a distinct character. This story is written by Mr. Lloyd's sister, with the help of several of his near friends and relatives, and has all the touches of loving intimacy which give the sense of personal acquaintance. It is like making a new friend to read it. His life was not finished. He was "cut off in the afternoon of life, with many hours of work yet before dark." His fundamental article of faith, as formulated in one of his note-books, is one that must be the basis of all really effective social work: "We had rather fail seventy times seven with the people and succeed at the last, than succeed without the people at the first attempt."

A PEASANT SAGE OF JAPAN

Translated from The *Hotokuki* by TADASU YOSHIMOTO. Longmans, Green and Company. 264 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.50.

Kinjiro Ninomiya (1787-1856) was a social worker of the days just before the disappearance of the old feudal order in Japan. After his death he received the title of Sontoku, Respector of Virtue or The Virtuous, and this name has displaced the one given him by his parents. Out of a childhood and youth of extreme privations he developed an austere philosophy and morality which he first applied uncompromisingly to his own life and then used for the benefit of others. By extraordinary efforts he recovered his ancestral estates, then sold them to provide money for a philanthropic undertaking. In his early manhood he was asked by a samurai whose family was fallen on evil days to take charge of his affairs. Convinced that the good of the clan required that he should undertake this, Sontoku reluctantly accepted. He required the samurai to adopt a regime of the strictest economy and to do nothing without his consent for five years; he secured the co-operation of all the servants; and at the end of the five years the debts were all paid and there was a balance on hand. The samurai wished to give Sontoku this balance. He accepted one-third of it and distributed it among the servants, returning home as poor as when he had come. After this the chief adviser to the Shogun, a man of high aims and great ability, wished to appoint Sontoku to an influential position in the government, but did not see his way to do it because he was only a farmer and "the spirit of the age judges a man by his position and not by his worth." He summoned him, however, to rehabilitate an estate which had become extremely poor and demoralized. After three years' hesitation Sontoku agreed to do it, if after making a preliminary study of the situation, he was able to discover the cause of the distress. He visited every house and "studied the land and the people" and then had a frank talk with the lord, who gave him an absolutely free hand. He undertook the responsibility, though it meant ruin to his own house and failure in the conventional idea of filial piety. He accomplished restoration here as he had in the

previous case, by inculcating habits of industry and economy. He would live no better than the poorest and worked incessantly, holding court at daybreak to settle disputes, going all day among the people, instructing them at night. A man sent by the lord to help him turned out to be a knave and caused some embarrassment because, being of superior rank, he could not be treated with authority and Sontoku could not afford the time to convert him to his point of view. What he did was to ask his wife to ply the enemy with *sake* and delicacies so that he spent all his time feasting and was too drunk to consult with the villagers when they sought him with their plots. His policy for restoration included cultivation of all the waste corners and opening up of wild land, improvement in methods, provision for bad seasons when they could be anticipated, and assistance in the way of seed and implements to those who were too poor to buy them, in addition to insistence on his fundamental principles of industry, frugality, and fair dealing. Observing that in some cases people whom he helped liberally only sank the deeper into distress, he concluded that charity was no kindness to those who would make no effort to reform their evil courses, and accordingly began to refuse help to those who, after he had instructed them earnestly, gave no signs of reformation. This procedure, naturally, was severely criticized, not only by the poor who were affected, but also by certain of the lord's retainers, who felt that discrimination was unkind and unjust. The Doimyo, however, upheld Sontoku without argument, and his critics were convinced by results that he was right. From this time on, until his death in his seventieth year, he passed all his time in such tasks as this, going from one poverty-stricken or famine-ridden district to another, and everywhere bringing order and prosperity by the application of his principles. Sympathy, careful study of the individual and adaptation of treatment to his particular needs, search for underlying causes, efficient utilization of resources, and insistence on the importance of material resources, were as characteristic of Sontoku's philosophy and methods as they are of our own. He started a co-operative loan society twenty years before similar organizations were started in Germany. An incident which occurred towards the end of his life illustrates his theories. The governor sent him to try to settle the controversy between two villages which were always quarreling. He began building water-works. When the work was finished there was more than enough water for both villages; the hostility disappeared; industry increased; and soon both villages were in a prosperous condition. Their ill-will, Sontoku explained, "was not natural to them, but arose out of the scarcity of water, for which they contended. . . . Their poverty, too, which was caused by their lack of water, was responsible for their quarrelsomeness, for there are few things more conducive to mean, cold hearts than dire poverty. . . .

The lack of water was not really due to the small quantity available, but to its waste and abuse—and this you will find to be true in all cases of poverty." Many disciples gathered around Sontoku in his later years, and one of them after his death wrote this account of his life. The Emperor caused it to be widely circulated and recently it has been republished by the Department of Agriculture and Commerce.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN JUNE

FESTIVALS AND PLAY. By Percival Chubb. Harper and Brothers. 402 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.14.

THE CHURCH AND SOCIETY. By R. Fulton Cutting. The Macmillan Company. 225 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.

ENGLISH APPRENTICESHIP AND CHILD LABOR; A HISTORY. By O. Jocelyn Dunlop. The Macmillan Company. 390 pp. \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.15.

THE BAWLEROUT. By Forrest Halsey. Desmond Fitzgerald, Inc. 211 pp. \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.84.

REPORT OF SECOND ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR STUDY AND PREVENTION OF INFANT MORTALITY. The Franklin Printing Company. 416 pp. \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.15.

THE PATH OF SOCIAL PROGRESS: A DISCUSSION OF OLD AND NEW IDEAS IN SOCIAL REFORM. By Mrs. George Kerr. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 364 pp. \$.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.70.

ELECTRICAL INJURIES. By Charles A. Lauffer. John Wiley and Sons. 77 pp. \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.54.

REPLANNING SMALL CITIES. By John Nolen. B. W. Huebsch. 218 pp. \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.66.

PRACTICAL METHODS OF SEWAGE DISPOSAL. By Henry N. M. Odgen and Cleveland H. Burdett. John Wiley and Sons. 132 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

THE TREATMENT OF THE OFFENDER. By The Prison Association of New York. Argus Print. 228 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.

OUR JUDICIAL OLIGARCHY. By Gilbert E. Roe. B. W. Huebsch. 239 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

WOMANHOOD AND ITS DEVELOPMENT. By Luella L. Rummel. Burton Publishing Company. 221 pp. Cloth, \$1.50; by mail of the THE SURVEY \$1.58.

APPLIED SOCIALISM. By John Spargo. B. W. Huebsch. 333 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

THE CLOSED SHOP IN AMERICAN TRADE UNIONS. By Frank T. Stockton. The Johns Hopkins Press. 184 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

MRS. SPRING FRAGRANCE. By Sul Sin Far (Edith Eaton). A. C. McClurg and Company. 347 pp. \$1.40; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.53.

THE STRANGLING OF PERSIA. By W. Morgan Shuster. The Century Co. 423 pp. \$2.50 by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.67.

THE LIFE OF ELLEN H. RICHARDS. By Caroline L. Hunt. Whitcomb and Barrows. 328 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.66.

A REPORT ON VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN CHICAGO AND OTHER CITIES. By a sub-committee of the Committee on Public Education, 1910-1911, of the City Club of Chicago. City Club of Chicago. 315 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.67.

THE TREND OF THINGS

Are newspaper and magazine writers free to tell the truth? If not, why not, and what can we do about it? These are the questions to be thrashed out at a National Newspaper Conference which is to be held under the auspices of the Extension Division of the University of Wisconsin at Madison, July 29-Aug. 1. A paper read by Livy S. Richard, editor of the *Boston Common*, on "What the Newspapers Can't Do" at Madison last October started discussion among a group of journalists which led them to request the University of Wisconsin to call such a conference. To show that the desire for the conference is not restricted to any class of journalists a state committee of approximately 100 of the leading newspaper and magazine men of Wisconsin, representing all political views and interests in the commonwealth, was organized to further the project. Among those who have agreed to participate are Melville E. Stone, manager of the Associated Press; William J. Bryan, editor of the *Commoner*; William Allen White, editor of the *Emporia Gazette*; Fremont Older, editor of the *San Francisco Bulletin*; Normal Hapgood, editor of *Collier's Weekly*; and Charles H. Grasty, of the *Baltimore Sun*. William T. Stead, of the *London Review of Reviews*, who was lost on the Titanic, was to have been a participant also.

The questions presented to the conference will be analyzed and considered at the various sessions as follows:

Tuesday Morning, July 30: Is the Newspaper Reading Public Getting All the Truth It is Entitled To?

Tuesday Evening, July 30: Can the Impartiality of the News-Gathering and News-Supplying Agencies be Fairly Challenged?

Wednesday Morning, July 31: How is News Service Affected by—

1. The Constantly Increasing Cost of the Newspaper Plant?

2. The Increasing Proportion of Total Newspaper Revenue Derived from the Advertisers?

3. The Non-Journalistic Interests of the Capitalist Owner?

Wednesday Evening, July 31: If the Newspaper is to play Its Due Part in Social Advance, Can it be Run as Simply a Business Proposition?

Thursday Morning, August 1: Can Commercial Journalism Make Good, Or Must We Look to the Endowed Newspaper?

Thursday Afternoon, August 1: Or Must We Look to the Public Newspaper?

* * *

BREAD AND ROSES

JAMES OPPENHEIM IN THE AMERICAN MAGAZINE
["Bread for all, and Roses, too"—a slogan of the women in the West.]

As we come marching, marching, in the beauty of the day,

A million darkened kitchens, a thousand mill-lofts gray

Are touched with all the radiance that a sudden sun discloses,

For the people hear us singing, "Bread and Roses, Bread and Roses."



From *The Masses* Cover May Issue, 1912. By Alice Beach Winter.

As we come marching, marching, we battle, too, for men—

For they are women's children, and we mother them again.

Our lives shall not be sweated from birth until life closes—

Hearts starve as well as bodies: Give us Bread, but give us Roses!

As we come marching, marching, unnumbered women dead

Go crying through our singing their ancient song of Bread;

Small art and love and beauty their drudging spirits knew—

Yes, it is Bread we fight for—but we fight for Roses, too.

As we come marching, marching, we bring the Greater Days—

The rising of the women means the rising of the race—

No more the drudge and idler—ten that toll where one reposes—

But a sharing of life's glories: Bread and Roses, Bread and Roses!

COMMUNICATIONS

COMPENSATION LAWS IN CALIFORNIA

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of May 18, on page 316, appears the statement that the act of California in regard to workmen's compensation has been amended since 1911. This statement is not quite accurate. The law originally passed is still in force and has not been changed in

any particular. Two additional bits of legislation were enacted, compelling employers, physicians, and insurance companies to report all industrial accidents causing disability of one week or more.

A constitutional amendment was passed in October, 1911, enabling the legislature to make the compensation compulsory instead of elective. This has as yet not been done by the legislature.

AARON L. SAPIRO,
[Secretary Industrial Accident Board of
the State of California.]

CATCHING UP

TO THE EDITOR:

Fearing that some of us may come to have a too exalted idea of our progressiveness in advocating pensions for widows, etc., I quote the following extract, which I chanced upon in looking over an old book on China, by John L. Nevins, published by Harper Brothers in 1869:

"Societies for affording pecuniary aid to widows are very common, and exist either independently or in connection with societies embracing several distinct objects conjointly. Immediately after the death of her husband, a widow receives a larger stipend than at any subsequent time, in order to assist her in providing for her young children. This allowance is gradually diminished."

We appear to be gradually getting abreast of China.

R. M. BRADLEY.

Boston.

JOTTINGS

A MINIMUM PROGRAM FOR NEW YORK

The New York city tentative budget for 1913 is to be in the hands of the committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment on or before July 15. Efforts are being made to have social workers unite on a minimum social program which may be submitted to the budgetary committee. A conference was called for June 25 by the Neighborhood Workers' Association and the New York Federation of Churches. It was decided that such a program should be prepared and that the chairman, William J. Schieffelin, should be empowered to appoint committees composed of organizations acquainted with the work of one or more departments of the city government. These committees should each report a few outstanding needs to the social group gathered at a subsequent meeting. It was understood that there should be co-operation with the department heads and other city officials. The program thus presented will be adopted by a majority of the organizations represented and supported

before the tentative budgets are presented, and up to the time the whole budget is finally adopted.

It was distinctly understood that no organization pledges itself to confine itself entirely to the items suggested to the conference or settled by them. The plan of a minimum program implies union by many on a few essentials. Suggestions for consideration by the committee may be sent to either the Neighborhood Workers' Association or the Federation of Churches.

TO PLAN PUBLIC FESTIVALS

Believing that a decided need exists in New York city for some strong organization which shall plan and carry out all festival celebrations and pageants, such as Fourth of July and Labor Day celebrations and festivals like the Hudson-Fulton affair, a number of people recently formed a Committee on Festivals and pageants to fulfil this function. The initiative in the matter was taken by the Arts and Festivals Committee of the Neighborhood Workers' Association, which sent out a call reciting that

"Public and private subscriptions are made for these purposes, but no one especially trained and experienced body now exists which can carry out these festivals with the maximum of efficiency and effectiveness.

"It has been suggested that a committee of private citizens be formed to offer its services to the New Public Recreation Commission, which would take these matters of festivals and pageants in hand. Such a committee should be formed of a variety of people, artists, educators, social workers, etc., each interested in some particular phase of the problem.

"The Arts and Festivals Committee of the Association of Neighborhood Workers of New York has done a considerable amount of work along this line, during the last five years. But it realizes that a much stronger group must be formed to cope with the larger problems successfully. This committee wishes to act as an organizing nucleus for such a group and any experience or information which this present committee has accumulated will be entirely at the disposal of the new organization"

At the appointed meeting there seemed to be no disagreement as to the need for such a committee. It was agreed that the persons present together with the Arts and Festivals Committee of the Neighborhood Workers' Association should form themselves into the permanent organization named above. It was decided to devote several months to accumulating all available data on the subject; to finding out what had been done along similar lines by other organizations and to seeing what would be the possibilities of co-operating with them. The committee, of which John W. Alexander is chairman and Katharine Lord secretary, will report next October.

BEST SELLERS AT CLEVELAND

The demand for books and pamphlets over THE SURVEY's counter at headquarters during the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Cleveland gives some idea of the books social workers are reading this summer.

Omitting pamphlets, the greatest call was for the following, in the order named:

- A New Conscience and an Ancient Evil, Jane Addams (\$1).
- The Delinquent Child and the Home, Sophonisba P. Breckinridge and Edith Abbott (\$2).
- The Spirit of Social Work, Edward T. Devine (\$1).
- Fatigue and Efficiency, Josephine Goldmark (\$3.50).
- The Child in the City, Edited by Sophonisba P. Breckinridge (\$1.50).
- Social Forces, Edward T. Devine (\$1).
- Preventive Treatment of Neglected Children, Hastings H. Hart (\$2.70).
- Wider Use of the School Plant, Clarence A. Perry (\$1.25).
- Handbook of Settlements, Robert A. Woods (\$1.50).
- Penal Servitude, E. Stagg Whitin (\$1.50).
- How Two Hundred Children Live and Learn, Rudolph K. Reeder (\$1.25).
- Among School Gardens, M. Louise Greene (\$1.25).
- One Thousand Homeless Men, Alice Willard Solenberger (\$1.25).

Of the thirteen titles, seven are Russell Sage Foundation Publications; three more are brought out by Charities Publication Committee. Six of the thirteen are 1912 books; the others older.

To those who were not at Cleveland—or to those who were—these books, one or all, will be sent post-paid in return for legal tender to the amount given after each. All thirteen of them for \$20. They're books no social worker can skip.

CHARITIES PUBLICATION COMMITTEE

105 East 22d Street, New York

THE COMMON WELFARE

THE JAILS AND PRISONS OF IOWA

Criticism of state prisons has led a number of governors lately to public utterance and action. Governors West, of Washington, Hooper of Tennessee, and Aldrich of Nebraska have all figured prominently in the last few months because of definite attitudes one way or another toward prison reform. A scathing report has just come from a commission appointed by Governor B. F. Carroll, of Iowa, to investigate conditions at Fort Madison and the charges against the warden and others. The governor appointed George Cosson, attorney-general of the state, and authorized him to associate with himself two other gentlemen. Mr. Cosson chose M. A. Roberts and C. Sheldon. This committee made a careful inquiry and reported that the charges against the personal character of the officials were unfounded, but that the physical conditions of the prison and the system of management required thorough overhauling. After a journey of investigation and interviews with persons of experience in other states, the committee made recommendations which may be of far-reaching importance.

On the evil effects of the contract system they said:

"A large number of the complaints were due to the system in use rather than to the warden or those in charge of the institution. This was impressed upon the committee from time to time during the entire investigation, and one thing which is responsible for a great many of these complaints is the contract labor system. The objections which the committee has formed to this system were impressed upon us as a result of this investigation from almost every angle, from witnesses friendly and hostile to the present warden in the matter of paroles, in the matter of the management by the Board of Control regardless of the nature of the testimony, and the evil effects of contract labor became manifest.

The evils mentioned are: Disagreements as to counts between the prisoners and the employes of the contractors; the secret introduction of drugs by represen-

tatives of the contractors; acts of injustice within the shop by the contract foreman; the detention of strong and efficient workers by the contractors when they had a right to parole; the subordination of the warden himself to the control of outside parties, and the practical slavery of the prisoners when the state shares responsibility with irresponsible outsiders. The system, they declared,

tends to destroy discipline; it impairs reformation and destroys hope on the part of the prisoner; it is injurious to the manufacturer employing free labor; it is unfair competition to free labor because it tends to destroy the living wage, and lessens the opportunity for labor; and on the whole it is economically unsound.

The report urges the importance of useful and steady industry, saying that "enforced idleness is not only a crime against the prisoner and his family, but is economical idiocy—and this is true whether the idleness is a part of our system of punishment of felony or misdemeanor; in other words, whether it is a part of the penitentiary system or a part of the jail system, except where the jail is used merely as a place of detention."

The report then examines the various substitutes for the rejected system of contract labor. It considers the state account system of Minnesota, Illinois, and Michigan; the method of public works and road-making in Oregon and Colorado; the penal farms of Mississippi, North Carolina, Arkansas, Louisiana, West Virginia, the District of Columbia, Ontario, and Ohio; and some of the foreign experiments which were discussed in the International Prison Congress at Budapest.

The committee recommends the establishment of a new prison on the colony system, so as to afford opportunity for complete classification, segregation, and individual treatment of prisoners. To this farm would be sent first offenders who are not depraved and vicious by nature. Those who require special manual training should be sent to Anamosa,

thinks the committee, and the board of parole should have authority to transfer long-term offenders and recidivists to this farm. The farm should contain at least two thousand acres, near enough to the capital city for frequent inspection by the chief executive official and members of the legislature, and yet not too near to any city or town. Farm work should be under the scientific direction of the professors of the state agricultural college. It is claimed that a prisoner thus trained could easily secure employment at farming; that this form of work would best build up the physical and moral energy of the prisoners; that it would increase the food supply of the commonwealth; that it would furnish a means of properly segregating the criminal insane and those on the border line of insanity. The state could send the young men who had not previously been convicted of a felony and who had lived a city life to Anamosa to become skilful apprentices, while those who are better fitted for farming could be trained on the state farm. The members of the committee are very sanguine that the state can secure good management and make the labor of the prisoners profitable.

Another part of the report recites the abuses and evils of the American jail system, citing the admonition of Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise at Washington: "Let me ask that from your great fund of heart and self-sacrifice you give consideration to the thousands of petty offenders now passing through your city and county jails in such appalling numbers."

AMENDMENTS TO STATE LAW

The general condition of jails in Iowa, as elsewhere, is declared to be bad. It is stated that there is no productive labor and

the jail which is sanitary, admits plenty of sunshine, and in which there is any proper segregation of prisoners, is the rare exception and not the rule. In some cases the sheriff admits intoxicating liquors and drugs. The fee system continues and makes the interest of the sheriff hostile to that of the public and of the prison. The state is responsible for the enforcement and administration of law, and so long as the punishment is inflicted by local authorities, the nature of the punishment will be as varying as the number and

character of the jailors and sheriffs in charge of the prisoners.

The state, it is remarked, should never surrender jurisdiction over one of its subjects, whether he be convicted of a felony or a misdemeanor.

The committee, therefore, recommends an amendment to the law which will compel the sending of any prisoner who is convicted of violating state law,—if the crime is less than a felony, and if the convict has not been released under pardon, parole or suspended sentence,—to one of the penal farms to be established. No person, according to the recommendation, should be committed for a period shorter than thirty days, except for contempt or some special circumstance. If the offense committed is not sufficiently serious to warrant his commitment for a period of thirty days, then he should either be paroled or given some time, if necessary, with the right to pay the fine upon the instalment plan. The short term sentence of from two days to two weeks is declared to be as wrong as it is foolish.

It goes without saying that any law under which it is possible for a man to serve seventeen sentences in a year, and an average of from five to ten every year, and from one hundred to two hundred in a life-time, is both archaic and vicious.

These illustrations indicate the importance of this report as a contribution to progressive legislation on the subject.

PHILADELPHIA'S BABY SHOW

Fifty-six baby carriages in an afternoon; two hundred babies in an hour; sixty-seven thousand people in a week—there is the proof that the Philadelphia Baby Saving Show has been a success. More than this—it reached the very persons for whom it was intended. The attendance has been made up almost entirely of mothers from the most congested districts of the city.

During a period of seven years the deaths in Philadelphia of children under two years of age formed 24.7 per cent of the total death rate. Last year 5769 of these babies died. The physicians, anxious to reduce this mortality and

knowing that half of it was due to ignorance, organized with social workers and Director Neff, of the Department of Public Health and Charities, a committee on Infant Hygiene. The first act of this committee has been to hold the Baby Saving Show.

After two months of preparation, the exhibition opened in mid-May in Horticultural Hall, in the largest auditorium in the center of the city. The name, Baby Saving Show, was in itself a splendid advertisement, and columns of newspaper space, together with banners that stretched across the principal streets of the city, told everybody about the show.

"Follow the arrow"—this in English, Italian and Yiddish, met the visitor on entering the hall. She followed it past models of the wrong and right kind of dairy farms, to where under the heading syphilis and heredity she learned why so many children are born without a fair chance in life. The heredity and eugenics booth told the mother and the future mother the dangers of alliance with the feeble-minded and the defective. Housing conditions and their influence upon the child were illustrated with charts and pictures. There was a bad room and a good room—just \$2.87 and a little ingenuity was the difference between them.

Booths upon the care of the mother before the birth of the child and the care of the child at birth taught the expectant mothers—and there were many of these present—things that otherwise they would scarcely have learned before the birth of their babies. In these two booths nothing that a mother ought to know was omitted. Lay figures, pictures and charts, together with the equipment necessary to a sick room, emphasized the lesson—and there was a nurse to explain and advise.

The prevention of blindness, a model kitchen, the care of milk, the fly, kitchen utensils, communicable and noncommunicable diseases were illustrated in various booths. In another section food stuffs had been reduced to calories of energy for those—mainly physicians and social workers—who wished to learn dietetic values. Then the mother saw

four booths of the kind of clothes she could afford to make for herself and her baby.

IMPORTANCE OF BREAST FEEDING

But the motif that constantly made itself felt was the importance of breast feeding. At every possible opportunity this was emphasized. Special charts told the rules for breast feeding and explained methods for artificial feeding should breast feeding be impossible.

Other sections illustrated the work of children's agencies and told the mother how to call upon them for help. There were a number of booths on "What is Bad for the Baby." Here were patent medicines, soothing syrups and pictures illustrating the wrong ways of holding and carrying the baby, etc.

The color scheme of the show was green and white. Although some of the exhibits came from considerable distances, this idea was rigidly followed. A uniform system of lettering was used. All this added greatly to the attractiveness. There were demonstrators and aides who explained the exhibits, not only in English, but also in the language of the visitors—whatever that happened to be.

Downstairs in the lecture room moving pictures upon health subjects preceded and followed simple, straightforward talks upon the care of the baby. There was a rest room for mothers to leave their children while they saw the show. On one day 357 babies were checked here.

After leaving Horticultural Hall, the show was taken to the Ghetto and to the Italian quarter, where in four days 25,000 people visited it. Then it went to the Kensington mill district, and so on, until every mother of the poor has had a chance to see it. In connection with the show a booklet upon the care of the baby has been distributed. During the progress of the main show in Horticultural Hall a Conference on Infant Hygiene was held. Physicians and social workers from many states attended this conference, and much that was new was brought forth. Both the Conference and

the Show treated only of infants under two years of age.

Social workers give the credit for the show to the physicians of Philadelphia, who, working harmoniously together in a marvelous series of committees and subcommittees, evolved the most complete Baby Saving Show that Philadelphia has ever seen. And to Philadelphia these social workers would add the words "or any other city."

8-HOUR DAY IN BLAST FURNACES

The Cambria Steel Company recently began a gradual change from a twelve-hour day to an eight-hour day in its eight blast furnaces. In a statement issued by President C. S. Price and published in the *Iron Age* it is explained that this change had been in contemplation for a long time. When other companies were introducing a six-day week in the twelve-hour routine of blast furnaces last year, the Cambria Company decided to try an eight-hour day with a seven-day week instead. The statement reads:

The men preferred seven eight-hour days, with fewer men per turn, which would be a practical offset to the seventy-two-hour basis. This was submitted in November last, and, after careful consideration during the winter, will be given a gradual tentative trial, both for conservative reasons and of necessity because additional men will be needed which may require a long time to obtain.

The *Iron Age* explains further that it was found that the eight-hour day could be established by an increase of only one-seventh in the working force, the same addition that would have been necessary if the change to the six-day week of twelve hours per day had been adopted instead. Hence the workmen will suffer a reduction in weekly earnings of about fourteen per cent which is the same reduction as in the case of the six-day plants. Measured in terms of hours, however, the reduction at Cambria will be from eighty-four to fifty-six hours, 34 per cent or about two and one-half times that of the to-day, twelve-hour schedule recommended by the American Iron and Steel Institute.

HOSPITAL BUREAU BILL

S. S. GOLDWATER

Mt. Sinai Hospital, New York

There is invested in hospital plants in this country today about a quarter of a billion dollars. American hospitals are spending annually for support between thirty and forty million dollars.

And yet half the population of the country, approximately, is without access to hospitals—a condition of affairs which a civilization like ours cannot and will not tolerate.

As against 500 hospital beds per 100,000 of population in the European capitals, and 350 beds, approximately, in New York state, there are states where there have been provided thus far only fifteen to twenty beds. As American hospitals increase in size and number they should advance in efficiency. Hospital administration concerns the whole country. A hospital may be conducted by the National Government, by a state, by a city, a village or a benevolent corporation, but whatever the source of its support, its proper administration is of importance to the whole community.

The following is an extract from a letter received from the chairman of a citizen's committee in a growing town in the state of Missouri:

I am addressing you as a member of the Hospital Information Committee of the American Hospital Association, desiring information in regard to establishing a public hospital in our city of Mexico. We have a population of 10,000 people, three trunk lines of railroads, and several large manufacturing plants, but are without a hospital of any description, and the nearest one is located over one hundred miles away.

The citizens of the town have taken up the matter and formed a committee, of which I am chairman, to formulate plans for establishing immediately a public hospital. The information we particularly desire is the best form of co-operative body to effect for the hospital, that is, whether we should have an association, a society or a company, and suitable constitution and by-laws for governing such society.

There is doubtless a good deal of information printed on the subject and a great many successful hospitals organized along the aforesaid lines, which of course we have no knowledge of. If you can lend us any aid showing the proper way to organize the hospital and a form of constitution and by-

laws, we shall be under very many obligations to you.

This Missouri town is but one of hundreds of small communities throughout the country which are now or presently will be face to face with all the perplexing problems incidental to the construction and organization of a hospital where none has previously existed. Where shall these people turn for aid? How can they profit at the outset by the experience of other communities? How shall they avoid the waste of hard-earned funds and well-intentioned effort in the earlier stages of the growth and development of an important communal enterprise?

The rapid growth of the American Hospital Association, organized "for the promotion of economy and efficiency," indicates the existence of common hospital problems. A study of the publications of this association reveals an honestly confessed lack of knowledge, a common impulse toward standardization, a strong desire for increased efficiency.

In the hope of promoting the scientific development of hospitals, a bill has been introduced in Congress by Representative Doremus of Michigan, and by Senator Fletcher of Florida, authorizing and empowering the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service

to collect, receive, maintain and classify in such a manner as may be accessible to federal, state, municipal and other hospital authorities, plans of hospital or dispensary buildings, descriptive matter relating to their equipment, rules and regulations, reports of institutions, reports of committees engaged in the investigation of hospital problems, and other literature relating to hospitals, dispensaries, nursing associations, and other agencies for the care of the sick.

The bureau is empowered under the bill to convey the information thus obtained to hospital authorities and to institutions of learning.

In the introduction of this bill the American Hospital Association has had the co-operation of the Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service, as well as the support of the Secretary of the Treasury. The proposed bureau, if established, will bear to hospital administration a relation similar to that which

now exists between the United States Department of Education and public education in the several commonwealths. The maintenance of the bureau would be so inexpensive that it may be difficult to make Congress realize the tremendous power for good that the bureau would represent; but the bill has been so cordially endorsed by hospital workers, so sympathetically received by members of the committees to which it has been referred, that hope is entertained that it will be enacted into law before the end of the present session of Congress.

CLEAN UP WEEK IN LACKAWANNA

ELIZABETH S. WILLIAMS

In his article on Lackawanna last October, Mr. Fitch says:

This summer after a seven months' absence from Lackawanna, I was able to recognize an accumulation of refuse between two houses as the same that I had noted on my previous visit.

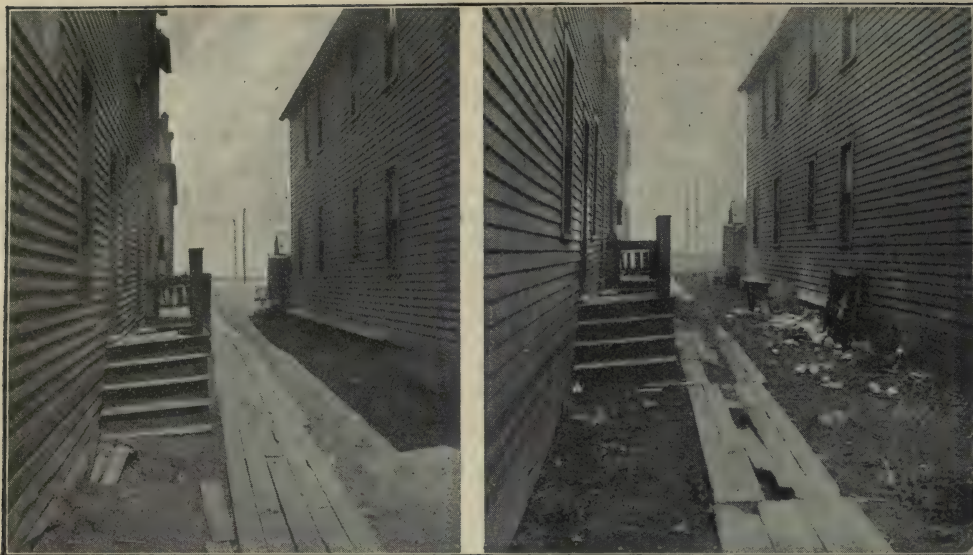
If Mr. Fitch should visit Lackawanna now, we assure him that he would look in vain for that pile of rubbish, or any other of any considerable size, for Lackawanna has had a Clean-Up Week.

Last year to be sure there had been a Clean-Up Campaign between Mr. Fitch's two visits, but like many other beginnings it was small and left many a refuse heap to go on adding to itself undisturbed.

The custom was established, however, and this year the work was carried on much more vigorously and comprehensively. The plans were worked out carefully by the commissioner of public works in co-operation with the sociological director of the Steel Plant, and some weeks beforehand, the Common Council voted that the week May 20-25 be set aside. Then every possible means was taken to bring the plan to the attention of the people, and make its object clear.

The weekly newspaper kept the matter before its readers by notes and editorials. Just preceding the 20th, placards were placed in every available spot, store windows, inside and outside, saloons, on telegraph poles, and fences. Circulars

THE SURVEY, Oct. 1, 1911.



TODAY AND YESTERDAY.

were distributed to householders giving particulars as to the way to proceed. Many of these were distributed among the foreign population by the workers of the Social Center and an interpreter used to explain their meaning. What took the popular fancy more than anything else, however, were the buttons, a red background with white lettering,

Help make Lackawanna a clean city.

Four thousand of these were distributed among the school children and others, and the demand for them far exceeded the supply. Now several weeks after, one sees them not infrequently, a reminder to "clean up."

A full week beforehand signs of activity were apparent, but Monday morning the work began in earnest. Yards were raked up, sheds and stables were cleaned out and whitewashed, some even were completely demolished. The city teams immediately began going about collecting the piles heaped up by the householders and—a resource which contributed to make this campaign much more effective than last year's—a force of men was put to work cleaning up the vacant lots. Over four hundred and fifty loads of rubbish were carted away.

One of the two moving picture shows co-operated by putting upon its screen from time to time, "Do you share in making Lackawanna a clean city—May 20-25?"

On Saturday afternoon, the last day, the city officials made a tour of inspection together. Some especially unsightly spots which needed more radical treatment came to their notice, and plans were made to take them in hand, but on the whole they felt that the work had been highly successful.

It can not be expected of course that in one week the peasant habits of many of Lackawanna's citizens can be entirely changed, but the object lesson has been written large. Now, after several weeks there has been no return to the old conditions, and by this one great effort the task of keeping the city clean has become much more possible.

It is not an easy task for the two city departments to whose lot it falls, the Department of Health and the Department of Public Works, but they are realizing as never before that cleanliness is the foundation upon which that fairer city of Lackawanna, for which we all hope, must be built.

CIVICS

PRIVATE GIVING VIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

ELSA DENISON

BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH, NEW YORK

When anyone speaks of Mr. Rockefeller's gifts to education, most people think of his donations to colleges and universities. Yet Mr. Rockefeller is benefitting thousands of school children through the "Hookworm Commission." Through the schools, all children, besides receiving treatments and medicines, are taught how to help in the sanitary crusade. The only way for a philanthropist to fight the hook-worm was through health boards and public schools.

Private giving which does not enlist schools cannot reach all the children. Benefits that public-spirited people would like to give to children are postponed because, though school superintendents see that definite things are wanted in their own schools, they know that "taxes are now so high that added millage will make a burden hard to be borne."

Are schools to remain unprogressive and inadequate for lack of improvements, successfully tried in other cities, on the ground that there is danger of lessening the taxpayers' responsibility if private gifts are received by schools?

There are one or two communities where so much has been done for schools by rich estate-holders, that townspeople will not supply even running expenses. This reflects on the efficiency and methods of the givers, not on the desirability of outside interest in schools. Few superintendents have suggested to will-makers and other donors that there are infinite numbers of ways in which outside giving can convince the citizens that certain changes and additions to the school system must have public support.

One will-maker saw that the opportunity of benefitting "all children under sixteen years of age" lies most consistently and completely in the public schools. She asked the Bureau of Municipal Research how \$10,000 or \$20,000 a year could be bequeathed to do the most good in her city, or to benefit the schools of the country. The bureau passed on these questions to the men and women who know the answers—the superintendents of city school systems.

From 142 cities the replies told of school needs to meet which would require lump sums of over \$3,000,000 and yearly maintenance equal to the income on \$7,500,000. This great sum of money is built up from many small needs—\$5,000 for playgrounds, \$250 for playground apparatus, \$100 for musical entertainments, \$1,000 a year for work in vocational guidance for boys and girls ranging from fourteen to eighteen years, \$1,000 a year for special care of sub-normal children, \$50,000 to build and equip ten kindergartens, \$300 a year for relief or scholarships for needy pupils, money for open air schools, etc.

Superintendents in cities of all sizes, whether in charge of 1,000 or 500,000 children, have listed the most vital needs of their schools, most of them so fundamental that taxpayers must—so the superintendents say—eventually support them. Superintendents feel that no private giving, either large bequests or small donations should be spent on traditional maintenance, but they do feel that only through private outside interest, will they be able to demonstrate effectively to the taxpayers the need for improved school conditions, new equipment, new buildings, progressive methods, etc.

Critics of the argument for private giving via public schools say that taxpayers meet the needs of the schools just so far as they understand them. "Let superintendents awaken their communities and have the needs met by taxation." The suggestion is sound, but how can superintendents act on it? It takes sometimes a whole generation of superintendents to convince taxpayers that increases in the school budget are desirable. The time required for convincing and the number of children who meanwhile do not receive up-to-date education, have been greatly lessened when outside private interest and money have been available to support actual demonstrations of what the schools would do with \$5,000 for domestic science or \$250 for playground apparatus.

In scores of communities manual training, kindergartens, the special care of backward

children, playgrounds, physical training, etc., are due to the interest and money of volunteer outside agencies and individuals. Every city can tell of school improvements due in part or entirely to outside interest—which means money. The Bureau of Municipal Research has estimated that in New York \$1,000,000 a year is spent by some 200 outside agencies in supplementing the work of the schools. It has been found true in hundreds of cities, as one superintendent writes, that "after having founded kindergartens upon this complete system (by private support requiring \$50,000) public sentiment would be so educated that no difficulty would be found in providing for their support."

Superintendents see how by giving through schools donors, they could help all children, while by giving through outside private agencies they help only a small percentage of children. The school men, more readily than others, can tell where the need for relief is not being met by organized charity or private giving; where scholarships in grammar and high schools would enable children worth educating to finish their courses. Small gifts from \$5 to \$200 for photographs, prizes, pictures, library books, musical entertainments, are needed in practically all schools and cannot everywhere be expected through taxes. What more satisfactory and personal way of giving money is there than supplying through schools beautiful objects and musical treats to hundreds of children who would otherwise not have them?

In several cities superintendents show that not money but services are needed from physicians, dentists and health specialists. Their services will convince the community that all school children should be made physically fit and will make it easier to appropriate money for inspectors or nurses. Of the thirty different wants, in supplying which, as superintendents suggested, private giving would help schools, only four—scholarships and material aid for school children, sick funds for teachers, and prizes, are probably not being supplied somewhere by taxes. All the others are considered in many cities as legitimate school expenditures.

The needs for private giving which are not local, but nation-wide, as suggested by 142 superintendents, would justify the income of a \$120,000,000 foundation and would affect 20,000,000 school children and 100,000,000 citizens. Superintendents show how all the

schools would be helped by experiments in school administration and methods; standardized courses of study; endowed agencies for the study of school problems in poor sections of the country; promotion of educational standard units and educational scientific management; research and general information about model schools; endowment of public lectureships for public schools "to make common the splendid accumulations of knowledge not now usable." Here is an opportunity for research as great as that which inspired the General Education Board, Rockefeller and the Carnegie Foundations.

Before rich men and moderate givers can know how to give, school people—superintendents, teachers and principals—must make known the needs of the schools by advertising through annual reports, newspaper stories and even, as one superintendent suggests, by an "educational evangelist, a sort of press agent, who by writing for newspapers, by public addresses and by special letters to parents in various languages, by personal conferences with individuals or groups of citizens, would do all that might be done to establish the right ideal of the function of the public school in a democracy and secure from all the people active, liberal support and co-operation."

This summer superintendents are planning their report on the work of the school year just completed. Some—a few only—will tell to their communities and to prospective givers, the details of what they wrote to the Bureau of Municipal Research. All of them have an opportunity to list needs as they see them in the order of urgency and to show (a) first cost, (b) maintenance cost, (c) whether properly a public charge (d) or suitable for private giving, (e) whether money or (f) service is needed. Such listing of needs in school reports will naturally lead to drawing a clear line between gifts that paralyze and gifts that stimulate public giving via adequate support through taxes.

THE SCHOOL CAMP

HENRY S. CURTISS

In some schools of physical education the students are now required to take a course in camping. This addition to the curriculum has sprung up in response to a demand for physical trainers to direct camps during the summer. During the last two decades the number of camps for school children has been increasing rapidly all over the country, and for two years the boy scouts have given

this tendency a new impulse. There are farm camps and mountain camps, nature study camps and athletic camps, study camps and scout camps. In Germany and Denmark, many thousands of children are sent to the country every year at public expense. We have a few municipal camps in this country, and a few camps belonging to private schools, but should not the camp, bringing as it does a contact with nature and the possibility of intimate social relations, form part of our public educational system?

Civilization has grown away from the life of nature, but we all seek to get back to it to rest. The childhood of the race was spent in intimate relationship with grass and trees and animals, and there are many brain centers in the child that respond most easily to the nature appeal. During the long summer vacation there is little for girls and almost nothing for the boys to do in the city. The heat in the tenements makes them well-nigh unendurable, and the streets are like ovens owing to the reflection from asphalt and brick. They offer frequent temptations, evil associations and a surplus of idleness which always leads toward delinquency. Rest and quiet growth, the greatest needs of the summer, are difficult under these conditions. Neurologists generally hold that such a life leads to degeneration in a few generations. The conditions are improving with the establishment of playgrounds, but no city playground can satisfy the nature hunger of the child. None of us choose to stay in the city during the summer, but for the child who has nothing to do, it is ten-fold worse.

For the average parent, it is often not possible to make suitable provision for his children during the summer. The summer hotel is expensive, and children are unwelcome. The artificiality of the life and the attention the children receive are both bad for them. If the family have a country home there is little fault to be found, except that for part of the summer at least it would be better for the parents and children to be separated in order that the parents may rest, and the children may gain the self-reliance that comes from a more independent life.

We have three common types of camps: The institutional camp of the church, Y. M. C. A., settlement, or boys' club; the fresh air or charity camp; and the private or pay camp. Each of these suffers from adverse conditions which are not inherent in the idea of camping.

In the institutional camp the children usually know each other, and are under the direction of people whom they know. They have a good time, but the camp is usually for two or three weeks only, and the children are still in the city for most of the summer. The fresh air camps are doing a fine work by bringing to the poorest city child some touch of nature and its joys, but it is a charity, and the children are not carefully selected. The timid child is often not reached, while the more aggressive one is sometimes sent out by several different institutions. The children

usually do not know each other or the people in charge of them. They are so homesick that most of them would come back the first night if they could. The private camp keeps the children for a longer time, but the expense is prohibitive for the average parent.

If the summer camp has come in response to a general and not a special need—if, in other words, it is a requirement of most children, there should be some public provision for it. As everyone knows, the English ideal of a school is a boarding school in the country. From the time he is nine until he finishes the university, the son of an English gentleman lives at the school and sees his parents only in the vacations. The English educator claims that this life is necessary in order to secure the social and moral training which comes from a many sided contact of the pupil with his masters and fellows. We in America do not accept this ideal. We believe that such an extended separation of parent and child is bad both for the home and the younger children; but it does produce manly self-reliant young fellows. Schools of the English type, such as Groton, St. Paul's and Lawrenceville, are rapidly springing up in this country. We regret the absence of social life in our public schools. We regret the slender opportunities for friendships between pupils. We regret the absence of traditions and a special spirit, such as distinguishes the boy at Eaton or Harrow. We regret most of all, the lack of intimate contact between pupil and teacher.

Does not the summer camp offer an opportunity for the union of these two kinds of training? May it not well take up the social, moral and athletic work which is so important in the English school? Certainly to me, the school seems to be the best attachment for the camp idea. I should like to see each of our large city schools possess a farm in the country as a part of its regular equipment. On this farm there should be dormitories or cottages sufficient to provide for all the older pupils of the school. Soon after the schools have closed, children should be sent out to these camps for the summer, either at their own or public expense, as the circumstances demand. Everything should be plain and simple. Nature would provide the pupils with pure air and water. They should have fresh vegetables every day from the farm, they should be encouraged to wear the commonest clothing, and they should do most of the work themselves—even to cooking the meals and making the beds. I would have half of each day devoted to working in the garden or the fields, or the carpenter shop, according to the interests of the children, and the other half given to play and the making of various collections. They should become familiar with and learn how to feed chickens, pigs, sheep and cows. They should become acquainted with all the common grains and vegetables, and learn how to raise them. They should make collections of all the common flowers, leaves and rocks, both for the camp, and the school, until each had a good mu-

seum. There should be a place to swim and fields for base-ball, tennis and golf. Every boy should receive regular coaching, and a very superior class of players would be developed. All of the older boys should be organized as scouts. Occasionally, there should be a long walk across the country to another camp, where match games might be played.

Moreover, every camp should be provided with a good library, the children's books being sent out from the city to these camps at the beginning of the vacation. Rainy and hot days and evenings would furnish opportunity for far more general reading than is now done by the average child.

This camp should be in charge of the regular teachers of the school—so far as possible—thus permitting a continuity of influence and an intimacy of acquaintance which would not otherwise be possible. These teachers should be extensively assisted by college and normal school graduates, for whom the training would be valuable, and whose services would not be costly.

By a camp of this kind, we would be able in the first place to protect the children from the manifold dangers and temptations of the city streets. We would be able to secure social and moral training through intimate contact of teachers and pupils. Finally the children would be brought into intimate touch with nature, become acquainted with its forms, and the inevitableness of its laws—a moralizing influence which no child can afford to miss.

This would not necessarily involve a very great increase in expense, as it would take the place of the vacation schools and playgrounds, and also of the fresh air and to some extent the institutional and private camps. For the child who is now sent to the country for the summer, it would be a positive saving, and for the child who ordinarily has to remain in the city it would be a saving of life's energies and a great awakening of its interests. It would not necessarily be much more expensive than boarding the child at home.

HOUSING CONDITIONS IN TEXAS

The housing systems prevailing in the leading cities of Texas—Dallas, Galveston, Houston, San Antonio, Fort Worth and Austin—inspiring happiness which it is his right to enjoy. The articles emphasize the fact that, though the evils of congestion in Texas have not yet assumed the same form as in New York, Boston and Chicago, there are nevertheless tenements which are shocking in their inadequacies and which harbor conditions that constitute a public menace. Among the familiar faults listed are inadequate sewerage, overcrowding, rear tenements and dark rooms, together with suggestions for correcting their present deficiencies and preventing future evils and complications are presented in a pamphlet printed by the *Galveston-Dallas News*. The Housing Problem in Texas is a study of the physical conditions under which the other half lives in the Lone Star State.

It consists of twenty-nine articles, originally prepared by George Waverly Briggs for daily publication in the *Galveston and Dallas News*. The series was first issued partly as a result of the Men and Religion Forward Campaign conducted in Dallas. Its keynote is that Texas is not giving the workman a square deal unless it insures to him a home suitable for the rearing of his children for clean and healthy living and the promotion of that abid-

JOTTINGS

PARK WALKS IN BOSTON

Believing that the main reason more people do not make greater use of the wonderful variety of parks in and about the city is that not enough invitation is extended, the Public Recreation League of Boston has been conducting for several months a series of park walks on Saturday afternoons. Parties are arranged for informal outings to the natural beauties in the vicinity of Boston. The walks are for the public without membership, dues, or other formality. Anybody interested is welcomed. The invitation is given through notices in the daily press, and by circulars sent out by mail. The example it is expected will incite private individuals to organize independent walks. Although each party has guides, their efforts are not so much to point out every feature, but to discourse upon a few and to hint of the others that lie just on this side or on that, and so induce the trampers to return in smaller parties by themselves. The Public Recreation League is really adapting to outdoor use the docent system which a number of museums have tried with success.

CIVIL SERVICE IN NEW YORK

The New York Civil Service Reform Association has issued a statement in which it declares flat-footedly that "for the past year the merit system in the state service has been subjected to a series of spoils raids in the interests of Tammany Hall," the statement continues: "The commission entrusted with the enforcement of the law has shown itself weak-kneed and easy-going, and has granted exemptions of nearly 300 positions in the service of the state and its counties. Had it not been for the efforts of the Civil Service Reform Association in opposing these attacks and arousing public opinion to the support of the merit system there would have been little, if any, check upon these raids. The attempts to secure more jobs which may be filled by the appointment of political workers who could not succeed in a competitive examination continue. The association is represented at every meeting of the commission and is continually on guard against political attacks of this nature."

Of forty-one bills opposed by the association in 1909 only one, it is declared, became a law, and of thirty-two fought in 1910, three. During the long session from January to October, 1911, it opposed 113 bills, of which twenty-seven were passed and signed by the governor.

HEALTH

TERRE HAUTE SOCIAL HYGIENE CAMPAIGN

STELLA COURTRIGHT STIMSON

PRESIDENT TERRE HAUTE FLORENCE CRITTENTON BOARD

THE SURVEY; some earnest, well read women experienced in civic affairs; a strong medical society with an intelligent secretary; a book, The Chicago Vice Commission Report; fifteen city organizations, all trying to do some good; a few well edited newspapers; and a fine physician, teacher, father in one personality. The result: a different social atmosphere in an Indiana city of sixty thousand, shown in the fact that the civic organizations and the professions have come a little closer together; that parenthood, especially motherhood, has a new meaning for both men and women, and that there has been some dissemination of the knowledge of vital facts which cannot but save some—perhaps many—of the rising generation of the city from disease.

The account of the Detroit Sex Hygiene Campaign in THE SURVEY of December 17, 1910, gave some of the social workers in Terre Haute, both encouragement and method of procedure. These women, among whom were Eliza B. Warren, Terre Haute's Jane Addams; Emma B. Moore, the Y. W. C. A. secretary; Rhoda Welding, the secretary of the Society for Organizing Charities; A. Jeannette Smith, superintendent of the Crittenton Home; Inez Van Cleave, city court matron, had been thinking deeply of some of the causes of the most serious social problems.

About the middle of January, a year ago, THE SURVEY was given to a number of the leading physicians, who after reading Mr. Finn's articles, said the Vigo County Medical Society would thoroughly approve a social hygiene movement in Terre Haute. A few days later, the social workers were invited to attend the next regular meeting of the society when an opportunity would be given to ask formally for its endorsement and co-operation. This was done and before the week was over, the secretary of the society, Dr. B. V. Caffee, arranged for a joint meeting with the social workers, Feb. 14, to discuss the following program on sex hygiene:

1. Necessity of Instruction.
2. Good Results Possible.
3. Progress in Public Sentiment.
4. Means of Instruction.

The first and last subjects were assigned to physicians, the second and third to women, one of whom, Rebecca Torner, was a teacher in the high school. There was so much discussion of the first three topics that for lack of time the fourth could not be considered, and the meeting ended with a resolution that the medical society appoint a committee to work with committees of other organizations for an educational campaign.

By the first of May a Citizen's Committee had been formed, consisting of the president, secretary and five or more board members of the following organizations: Society for Organizing Charities, Crittenton Mission, Vigo County Medical Society, Y. W. C. A., Council of Jewish Women, Social Settlement, Light House Mission, Civic League, Boy's Federated Club, Men's Club of the Episcopal Church, Congregational Church Club, Y. M. C. A., Board of Children's Guardians, Ministerial Association and the Women's Council, a federation of about thirty women's clubs.

May 5 a meeting of this committee was called and Dr. J. H. Weinstein's paper on The Means of Instruction in Social Hygiene, unread at the meeting of medical society and social workers, was the basis of an earnest discussion by the men and women of other professions and callings, who were found to hold widely differing views concerning segregation, the physical necessity for vice districts and venereal diseases. Chicago's vice commission's report had just been made and its findings gave additional emphasis to the necessity of education. This citizen's meeting appointed a committee consisting of the secretary of the Y. M. C. A., Will A. House; the secretary of the Y. W. C. A., Miss Moore, and the officers of the Woman's Council, Mrs. U. O. Cox, Mrs. Adolph Joseph, A. Jeannette Smith and Mrs. Joseph Diekemper, to arrange, if possible, for a series of talks in

the fall by Dr. Winfield Scott Hall, of the Northwestern University Medical College. The Woman's Council was asked to finance the campaign. When Dr. Hall arrived in October, he found the heaviest schedule ever assigned him, but he was equal to it; and when he left after making, with automobile help, seventeen addresses in three days, Terre Haute was not just the same place, for it was true as one of its best business men said two weeks later, "Dr. Hall made a most profound impression upon this city."

All the meetings were largely attended, the secretaries of the Y. W. C. A. bringing together the largest audience when Dr. Hall addressed more business girls and women, he said, than he ever met before at one time. The social workers within a week observed good results from this meeting.

The supper conference of the Citizen's Committee of a hundred of the representative men and women of the city around a great table in the Y. W. C. A. dining room was probably the most unusual feature of the program. Rabbi Leipziger asked the blessing, and after an hour and a half's enjoyment of the supper, Judge Charles S. Batt, of the city court, introduced Dr. Hall, who gave in his quiet, scholarly, forceful, convincing way, a message that certainly did "appeal to all that is noble and best in man and woman." Everybody realized, as perhaps never before, what motherhood meant. Many people who could not attend the meetings were reached by the city press which had been wisely helpful from the first. The papers gave fully and accurately Dr. Hall's very words, and they were read by hundreds of people in the neighboring towns.

Social hygiene education will be continued through the parent-teacher clubs and social centers of the schools, the physical culture departments of the Y. M. C. A., Boys' Club, Y. W. C. A., and the State Normal School, and through recently organized social service committees of existing organizations.

A report of the campaign was given at two conference meetings of the State Federation of Clubs, at the state Y. W. C. A. delegate conference, and at the State Conference of Charities and Correction, all held in Indianapolis the following week. Many requests have come to Terre Haute from over the state and it is hoped that Indiana may soon have a strong organization affiliated with the American Federation for Sex Hygiene.

In January, 1912, the Church Federation called together representatives of the city's organizations to plan for a Vice or Social Service Commission. Within a few weeks this commission of thirty-two members, one of them representing the city council, was organized with six committees for six lines of investigation. First: laws—state and city; second, attempts made to enforce existing laws; third, lists of immoral houses and inmates; fourth, lists of property owners; fifth, sources of supplies; and sixth, the best means of education.

The unusual success of the movement is but another illustration of the truth that *vision* not *division* in the efforts of social workers, church people, and professional men and women of the city, who knew each other only by name before, has brought about a community interest heretofore thought impossible, and the message of the far-seeing prophet of the old falling Hebrew monarchy has been found to be the message for the new rising social order.

OF AID IN SAVING BABIES

Social workers, health officers and all those interested in the problem of reducing unnecessary infant mortality will be interested in the report of the Committee for the Reduction of Infant Mortality, dealing with infant mortality and milk stations, which was issued July first. This committee is a subcommittee of the New York Milk Committee and conducted last summer a very vigorous campaign, maintaining thirty-one stations in the Borough of Manhattan.

The report is not simply a statement of work done but is a valuable contribution to the study of the problem. It deals in considerable detail with the method of organization of work for the reducing of infant mortality, especially in connection with milk stations. One of the most striking things in the report is the story of the co-operation which existed in New York during the past year. Emphasis is laid upon the fact that no single organization working alone could carry on the campaign to a successful conclusion. Relief organizations, milk stations, free ice funds, and health officials must all work together in order to accomplish this result.

The report takes special pains to show that milk stations are not simply centers for distributing milk, but that they are infant welfare stations in the largest sense of the word. Statistics quoted show that in the stations maintained by the committee only 40 per cent of the babies under one year were being artificially fed. Education is regarded as the essential factor in reducing infant mortality. The value of individual feeding formulas for bottle fed babies and the practicability of teaching mothers the home modification of milk are shown in a set of tables giving medical and weight histories of several thousand babies.

The cost of carrying on the work is given in detail and should be of considerable value.

In estimating results in New York a study has been made of conditions existing and results obtained in other cities. The ten largest cities in the United States were selected and results are compared. It is claimed that best conditions are found where the greatest effort has been put forth, and that the lower infant mortality for 1911 was not due to chance or to weather conditions, but to increased activity and efficiency.

The report emphasizes co-operation and education as the two essential weapons in the campaign.

JOTTINGS

NOT CONSUMPTIVE'S UTOPIA

Near the middle of April, at the call of Gov. O. B. Colquitt of Texas, a Southwestern Conference on Tuberculosis convened in Waco, Texas, to consider "ways and means of aiding the tuberculous stranger in the Southwest and to discourage further migration of indigent consumptives to southwestern states." Out of the discussions four main resolutions were formulated and adopted, together with plans for carrying them into effect. The first resolution declared the care of tuberculous strangers in the Southwest to be an interstate problem and called upon the federal government to convert abandoned forts and military reservations in the Southwest into *itoria* and hospitals. The fourth resolution advocates publicity as to the lack of free hospitals for stranger consumptives in the Southwest; the inability of charity organizations to aid such; the difficulty of securing suitable employment; and the fact that consumptives coming to the Southwest should have funds sufficient to carry them for about one year.

Third, it was declared that institutions for the care of consumptives are necessary in the prevention of tuberculosis, and the legislatures of the southwestern states are called upon to enact the necessary legislation to provide *sanitoria* and hospitals. The fourth resolution declares that tuberculosis cannot be eliminated without improving living and working conditions and describes legislation necessary to secure such improvement. Some of the legislation suggested would provide for greater efficiency of health departments, the reporting and segregating of cases, sanitary inspection of houses and supervision of construction, and sanitary supervision of factories.

COLORADO VIEWS ON WACO RESOLUTIONS

Physicians, ministers, lawyers, social workers and others gathered at the spring session of the State Board of Charities and Corrections of Colorado, took various positions upon the resolutions adopted at the Waco conference. A correspondent writes:

"Some took the view that no restrictions whatever should be placed upon the admission of this class of people, while others wanted restrictions. Some thought they should be stopped at the state line or if they arrived should be sent back to the community from which they came. Others advocated building free sanatoria to which they could come; but to this it was objected that the largest hospitals that could be provided locally would be filled in a week and still the sufferers from this disease would flock to these states with high hopes of the immediate relief to be gained from our fresh air. But if they do not have the means to command proper food, proper clothing, and proper housing, they are doomed to disappointment on every hand; they are not wanted in any occupation, are not permitted in hotels or boarding houses, are forced to beg for inadequate food and unsanitary housing, and homesick and destitute are destined to drag out possibly a few more wretched days than if they had stayed at home among their friends and loved ones. The most humane treatment, it was thought, would be to prevent the coming of those who are not provided with funds to cover necessary expenses for a sufficient time to gain the advantages of change and climate."

So engrossing was the discussion on this head that the project of organizing a state conference of charities and correction was abandoned at this meeting. An impulse to abolish anything thought to be useless was more than once in evidence, its first object of attack being county jails. One speaker was convinced that there was reason to abolish the county farm. This institution was declared to be an unwarranted expense, inasmuch as the residents are too old or feeble to work and helpers have to be hired to do the necessary labor. It was urged that the stronger prisoners at the county jail be compelled to work on the farm and provide for the aged dependents.

FIRST WOMAN SECTION OFFICER

A woman was this year for the first time an officer of one of the sections at the Atlantic City annual meeting of the American Medical Association. She is Dr. Rosalie Slaughter Morton, of New York, and was vice-chairman of the section on preventive medicine and public health, the chairman being Dr. Rupert Blue, surgeon-general of the United States Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service. Dr. Morton presided at a number of the meetings of that section. She was also alternate delegate from the New York State Medical Society to the American Medical Association, and alternate delegate for the section on preventive medicine and public health to the house of delegates of the association.

INDUSTRY

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON THE CONTINUOUS INDUSTRIES

JOHN A. FITCH

While the National Child Labor Committee and the Consumers' League have been downing the bugaboo of interstate competition, there has been arising a specter of greater magnitude, and, if we may believe those who declare that they have actually seen it, of more terrifying visage,—competition between nations for the foreign market.

The steel industry in America, now that the foreign trade has grown so important, is especially fearful that if the 8-hour day is adopted in the United States, Germany, where the 12-hour day and seven-day week also obtains, will drive our manufacturers out of the market.

It is just this condition that gives importance to a meeting in London on June 11 and 12 of the Commission on the Continuous Industries of the International Association for Labor Legislation. The continuous industries—those operating both day and night—have proved a knotty problem everywhere, on account of the tendency toward very long hours of labor, involving sometimes 18 hours, sometimes 24, sometimes even 36 hours of continuous labor at the week end. It was the feeling that continuous industries constitute so serious a problem as to make it desirable that they be considered by themselves, together with the fact that the products of some of the leading continuous industries such as iron and steel, glass and paper, enter so largely into foreign competition, that led the last delegates' meeting of the International Association for Labor Legislation, to provide for the appointment of a special commission on this subject.

At this June meeting delegates representing the Association were present from ten different countries. In addition the governments of Germany, Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Italy, Holland and Sweden were officially represented.

The entire first day of the conference was given up to a discussion of the iron and steel industry, the delegates from England, Germany and the United States—the three great steel producing countries—reporting upon conditions in their respective countries. Nothing could be of greater interest at this time when the United States is undoubtedly on the verge of a great movement for improved conditions for the steel workers, than the reports of the German and English delegates. In Germany, it was reported by Herr Giesberts, who is a member of the Reichstag, that 191,000 steel workers have a 12-hour day, but that during the 12 hours a two-hour rest period is required by law and is rigidly enforced. About 2,300 men have an eight hour day. In 1909 these

conditions were considered in the Reichstag and a resolution was adopted urging the Federal Council to establish a maximum of ten hours in the steel industry in general and limiting the hours at the furnaces to eight, to prohibit Sunday labor as far as possible and to restrict overtime. So far the Federal Council has taken no action, and it was made clear by the delegates that the chief objection brought by the manufacturers against such restrictions was the fear of the effect of a handicap in competition with the United States.

In Great Britain remarkable advances have been made in spite of competition with Germany and America. Beginning some fifteen years ago the eight-hour day has been extended until today half of the iron and steel manufactured in the British Isles is produced under an eight-hour day, and it is believed that in the near future other firms now working under the two shift system will change to three shifts.

The delegates were given an opportunity to visit the plant of Bolckow, Vaughn and Company, which is the largest steel company in Great Britain and where the 8-hour day has been in operation in the blast furnaces for 15 years. They were assured by officials of the company that the cost of production had increased only very slightly as a result and that they would under no circumstances go back to a 12-hour day. A. H. Crosfield, the English delegate, who had made an investigation into conditions in the iron and steel industry in order to obtain facts to place before the commission, reported that some English steel manufacturers who have the 8-hour day in their plants, told him frankly that they were not keen about having the 8-hour day established in Germany and America as they were not anxious to have their competitors share that advantage with them. Mr. Crosfield is himself a large employer of labor, as is also Thomas Schlytter, the Norwegian delegate who presided over the conference and made a stirring address in favor of the 8-hour day.

The other industries considered were especially paper and glass, with respect to which conditions are very bad on the continent. In Great Britain glassworkers have an 8-hour day while the paper mills run on the two shift principle. In the United States a 9-hour day is general in the glass industry, and practically all of the large paper mills have an 8-hour day. The most intolerable situation reported to the conference was with respect to the zinc industry in Belgium, where the regular daily shifts are 24 hours long, each shift followed, of course, by 24 hours of rest.

The commission closed its deliberations by the adoption of three resolutions:

1. Strongly recommending 8-hour shift for the continuous industries, expressing the belief that such an arrangement is now practicable for the iron and steel industry, and asking the International Association as soon as possible to address to the governments a request that an international conference be held with a view to arriving at an agreement among the interested governments as to the introduction by law of the 3-shift system in these industries.

2. Recommending that the various national sections of the association gather information regarding the continuous industries.

3. Recommending an International Conference with a view to reducing hours in glass works to 56 per week.

This last recommendation was made in view of the feeling of the delegates from the continent, where weekly hours in glass works range from 72 to 84, that a 48 hour week could not at present be hoped for.

Of course the United States could hardly enter into an international conference to agree on labor legislation, owing to the fact that such matters are wholly in the hands of the states, but it is of great significance to the United States that such a conference is likely to be called. It is also of great importance that there is so strong a movement in Germany for an 8-hour day—the German delegates numbering 9 or 10 supported the resolutions to a man. The only strong argument against an 8-hour day in Germany is the United States, and the only strong argument in the United States is Germany. The establishment of an 8-hour day in the United States whether by voluntary action on the part of the steel companies or by law would probably sweep away the whole difficulty and Germany and America could then join England in the establishment of a working day in the steel industry which would mean, in the words of Mr. Crosfield, "civilization instead of barbarism."

A STRIKE WITH DARK SHADOWS AND BRIGHT LIGHTS

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The power which the modern sub-divided organization of labor gives the fewer over the many is dramatically illustrated by the strikes against the newspaper publishers in Chicago. The refusal of a few pressmen to work on the Hearst papers not only tied up the press rooms of all the other morning and evening papers except the *Socialist* and one German paper, but by the rapidly following sympathetic strikes of the stereotypers', delivery wagon drivers' and newsboys' unions, paralyzed all the great publishing plants and their circulation departments.

So completely was this vast system of production and distribution prostrated, that for

days the second greatest American city was practically without newspapers or news. After the presses began to run, with a very limited force of non-union pressmen, their restricted product could not be marketed for several weeks. News-stands disappeared from the streets. Except in the suburbs and outlying residence districts where the papers were transported by train, all carriers deserted their routes. The few delivery wagons for which drivers could be found stood loaded at their destination, with no one to distribute them. Although police guarded the newspaper offices, the few remaining news-stands and the wagons, there was very little selling or buying. Wagon loads of papers were seized, scattered on pavements, and were torn up and burned on the streets. Messengers were not sent to procure papers even for the clubs, whose reading tables were left bare. Despite uniformed and plain-clothes police guards wherever the street sale of the so-called "scab papers" was attempted, the circulation very slowly resumed its normal proportions even in the center of the city. Now, two months after the strike was declared, there are large sections of the city in which no deliveries are made on the regular routes, and all but a very few of the regular dealers refuse to handle any except the "union papers."

Much of this is due to the fear of hoodlumism, into which the strike degenerated. Not only have dealers and carriers been afraid to distribute the "contraband" goods during this state of war, but individual buyers have had good cause to fear to be found on the streets or in the street cars with one of these papers in hand or in the pocket, because so many of them have suffered assault and injury. This state of affairs, of course, tests the public judgment of the grounds upon which such a strike, with such results, justifies itself. It moreover proves to have been a test of "trade unionism at its worst and best." The details of the disagreement so clearly display both the worse and better possibilities of trade union policy that they are worthy of specific emphasis.

Before the Hearst papers joined the Chicago Local of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, they had a special agreement with their pressmen which expired April 30. On that day they notified their press room crews that it would not be renewed, and that thereafter the work would be done under the general agreement existing between the publishers' association and Chicago Newspaper Web Pressmen's Union No. 7, of which union the Hearst pressmen were members, and under the agreement of which, with the publishers' association, all the other union pressmen were working. Because the number of men employed on each press was reduced to the same number running the presses in the other offices, the Hearst pressmen refused to work. This refusal to work under the terms of the general contract existing between the publishers' association and the pressmen's union

was, after due warning, declared by the publishers to be a strike. This was the fact, by virtue of the "collective bargaining" between the two bodies, although the pressmen claimed it was a lockout by these other offices, obviously in order to exculpate their manifest breach of contract. Thus with strange inconsistency, they denied to their employers the fact and the right of collective bargaining, while stoutly claiming it for themselves under the terms of the same contract.

Meanwhile the stereotypers, without any grievance or warning, left their work in all the offices, as did the delivery wagon drivers and the newsboys. The latter, however, are not employes of the newspapers; they are merchants, not craftsmen, and therefore disqualified from being considered a trade union. With equal disregard for legitimate trade unionism and for the autonomy of the contract-keeping unions involved, the Chicago Federation of Labor espoused the cause of the contract-breaking strikers, and even threatened to expel the unions which refused to strike from their membership in the Federation. This surely is trade unionism at its worst, if indeed it is trade unionism at all.

Fortunately the mailers' and the printers' unions, as well as the international officers of the stereotypers, stand out from first to last as the exemplars of trade unionism at its best. Undeterred by the ratification which the pressmen received from their international convention, President Freel of the Stereotypers' International Union, promptly withdrew the charter of the Chicago local, which the convention subsequently revoked by a decisive vote. Reaffirming their hitherto unflinching assertion of higher loyalty to the cause of organized labor than to any labor organizations, the members of the Typographical Union in refusing to call a sympathetic strike again exemplified the fact that those organizations serve themselves and each other the most which serve their common cause the best. Their stern and staunch steadfastness to principle, their scorn for unprincipled acts and men, their courage in denouncing such "blunders worse than crimes" as have "strewn the pathway of the trade union movement with the wrecks of blasted hopes", should be engrossed upon the scroll of organized labor's fame. The printers have acted in a way worthy of their great craft. Their leaders are worthy of their great following. Their rank and file registered their worth by supporting such leaders. To stem the tide of the bitterly unjust enmity which their steadfastness has aroused against them, to be generously just toward their detractors, to brave the peril of expulsion and of personal violence, to reaffirm their unshaken faith in the support of their stand by the American Federation of Labor, calmly to abide the decision by which they say "We will come back, as we did before, with our action better understood and our policies vindicated by the highest tribunal in the American labor movement"—this is to give highest expression to or-

ganized labor's self-respecting, respect-commanding loyalty to its contract agreements,—to trade unionism at its best.

The writer's views of the situation brought out in signed editorials in the *Chicago Daily News* have been as out-spokenly endorsed by the *Union Labor Advocate* and other conservative trade union papers as they have been by the Chicago publishers. But they have been bitterly denounced by the Socialist papers as "an attack upon organized labor," which they really defend against the attacks of those in revolt within the ranks and against the assaults of these papers. The printers publicly declare these Socialist papers to have "established a large circulation at the expense of the unions on strike and have incited strikers and strike sympathizers to acts of violence which, if committed against themselves, would be denounced as outrageous." "The loss suffered by the strikers and their families, the misery and want which must follow the continuance of the present tactics advocated by these papers," is well said to be "too big a price to pay for their increased circulation."

Thus, again, employers and the public are faced with the alternative; either such better trade unionism or something worse even than the worst trade unions, between which they are surely and swiftly being forced to choose,—a choice between these two, and no third.

RECENT MINIMUM WAGE LITERATURE

JOHN A. RYAN

The literature of minimum wage legislation is growing. The work of M. Broda (*La fixation légale des salaires*, Paris, Giard et Briere, 1912) professor in the Collège Libre des Sciences Sociales; is the first on the subject to assume the proportions of a book. It presents a complete, though brief, survey of all the efforts and measures for legal minimum rates of wages, whether direct as in the wage boards of Australia and Great Britain, or indirect, as in the compulsory arbitration law of New Zealand and the Industrial Disputes Act of Canada. From the pages of this volume we learn that beginnings of minimum wage legislation have been made in Austria, Germany, and France. The author is strongly in favor of such legislation.

The American Economic Review for March has two excellent articles on the same subject. "Wage Boards in England," by E. F. Wise, of Toynbee Hall, London, describes somewhat at length the working of the Trade Board Act in the four trades to which it has been applied. "Already," says Mr. Wise, "other trades are clamoring to be included. It would be safe to say that the measure of progress in the two short years that have elapsed, has exceeded the hopes of the warmest supporters of the act, and there is every indication that at last a weapon has been forged that will greatly diminish, if it does not destroy, one of the worst evils of our industrial system."

The Legal Minimum Wage in the United States in the same review was written by Prof. A. N. Holcombe of Harvard who is a member of the Minimum Wage Committee of the National Consumers' League. Professor Holcombe deals for the most part with the constitutional and economic aspects of the proposal. In his view, the obvious constitutional obstacle to minimum wage legislation, the theory of freedom of contract, has been read into the constitution by the courts, but "this novel interpretation of the fundamental law," says he, "can be undone by a change in the men who interpret it." He believes that "some immediate protection for the American standard of living is necessary, and an appropriate means is the establishment by legislation of a minimum wage."

UNDER PROTOCOL OF THE GARMENT TRADES

Bulletin 98 of the Department of Commerce and Labor is a compilation on conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes. It contains, besides studies of the subject in Great Britain, France, and Germany, the text of the Canadian Industrial Disputes Act of 1907, an account of the working of the Erdmann Act in the United States and of the experience of the cloak and suit industry of New York City working under the terms of the protocol of September, 1910.¹

As most of the publicity given to the cloak-makers' agreement has been along the lines of sanitary control of the trade, this study by Charles H. Winslow of its work of adjusting disagreements of every kind between workers and employers is especially interesting. In ten months, 1004 cases came before the trade's boards of grievances or arbitration, the majority indeed, being successfully adjusted without the presence of the full boards, by their deputy clerks. Almost 60 per cent. of all cases were settled by mutual agreement or dropped. Of the rest 20 per cent. were settled in favor of the union, 17 per cent. in favor of the employers' association.

Among the specific improvements of conditions which employes have, according to Dr. Winslow, been enjoying during the eighteen months under the agreement are: reduction of hours to fifty a week, extending even to sub-contractors' establishments, where hours formerly ran from sixty to seventy; a gradual substitution not yet completed of hand for electric machines; the elimination of home work and the diminution of overtime; better distribution of work in the slack season; pay to week workers for legal holidays, together with the setting of a minimum wage for these workers and a general increase of about 10 per cent. in their wages.

Dr. Winslow estimates that 25 per cent of all the workers are now constantly employed throughout the year, that the percentage of piece workers idle during the slack

season has been cut from 65 per cent. to 25 per cent., the rest being employed during that time at about one-third their regular wages. Of week workers 45 per cent now work steadily. Present wages in the different groups now run as follows:¹

			Wages per week.
Operators	24 weeks	\$30 to \$40	
	18 "	10	
	10 "	0	
Piece tailors	24 weeks	\$30 to \$40	
	13 "	22	
	5 "	10	
	10 "	0	
Pressers	24 weeks	\$21 to \$28	
	15 "	10 to 12	
	13 "	4	
Finishers	24 weeks	\$20	
	8 "	0	
Cutters	slack	18 to 20	
	26 weeks	\$25	
	12 "	12	
	14 "	0	

The fair employer has, Mr. Winslow holds, benefited also by the protocol, in the regulation of the unfair employer, the standardization of wage rates, the settlement of grievances without strikes, the elimination of the unfair competition of tenement house work, and the lengthening of the season and the settling of sanitary standards—both of which mean better workmanship than under the old system of excessive overtime and unhealthful working conditions.

COMMENTS ON COMPENSATION LEGISLATION

With the passing of compensation legislation by many states, and study with a view to such legislation going on in many more, criticisms of the old liability system have yielded to a periodical and pamphlet literature on various aspects of the new American laws and the European systems in their practical application. The excellent tables of new state laws up to January, 1912, in the last issue of *Human Engineering* form a starting point for a study of the subject at its present stage of development. *Human Engineering* contains also a report of the first four months' operation of the Washington insurance act.

The *Green Bag* for June has a lawyer's study of the legal status of compensation—from the New York to the Montana cases—by F. D. Schmacke. The literature of the subject published by the liability companies is extensive. The translation of Dr. Friedensberg's pamphlet on the German system of social insurance, reviewed in *THE SURVEY* of May 4, is supplemented by a number of articles for and against this system which have been running in the *Market World and Chronicle*, an insurance periodical. The latest are two articles translated from Dr. Alfred Manes on the Boundaries between Private and Social Insurance.

The Aetna Life Insurance publishes two pamphlets by J. Scofield Rowe, the one on Mutuality in Liability Insurance, the other on

¹See *THE SURVEY* of September 17, 1910.

¹For former wages see *THE SURVEY* of August 13, 1910, p. 703.

the general subject of whether compensation should be administered by the state. The general position of the insurance companies toward compensation is brought out in a short pamphlet—A "Creed"—issued by the International Association of Casualty and Surety Underwriters. Frankly opposed to compulsory compensation as "objectionable in theory and dangerous in practice" are two recent pamphlets by Edwin W. DeLeon, president of the Casualty Company of America.

A detailed study of the cost of compensation is given by I. M. Rubinow, chief statistician of the Ocean Accident and Guarantee Corporation, in the *Market World and Chronicle*. This is in part a criticism of Edward Bunnell Phelps's article on the same subject, originally published in the *American Underwriter*, now issued in pamphlet form.

THE SENATE AND 8-HOUR LEGISLATION

During the consideration of the Naval Appropriation bill the other day, an acrimonious discussion was precipitated in the Senate on the subject of the 8-hour clause. A section had been inserted in the bill providing that the 8-hour law should apply to subcontractors as well as to contractors. This section was a duplicate of the 8-hour bill which passed the Senate a month or two ago. It was necessary to enact this section because the law as passed does not become effective till after the first of January, 1913, and it was desired to make the law effective for naval work between now and that time. This simple proposition stirred Senators Heyburn and Ballinger, and what they said should be compared with Senator Borah's position, quoted in *THE SURVEY* on May 4. "The only comfort I got out of the discussion," said Mr. Ballinger, referring to the passage of the first bill, "and the vote upon the eight-hour bill was that on my motion it was not to be operative until January 1, 1913. In other words, it gave the contractors of the government a little time to digest this matter and to prepare themselves for the operation of a law which to my mind is going to do a great deal of harm."

Mr. Heyburn then followed with an attack upon the encroachment upon individual rights, the right to labor, and so forth. His plea may be summarized in these words: "Congress went beyond its powers in saying that a man might not contract for his own time and sell it by the hour or by longer periods or sections. I do not believe it is within the power of Congress to say that a man shall or shall not work, except in the case of a conviction for an infraction of the law in the nature of a punishment."

More than half a dozen pages of the Congressional Record are filled with the debate which ensued on this proposition. The amendment, somewhat changed, was finally adopted.

JOTTINGS

FEDERAL AID TO THE UNEMPLOYED

A bill which has no chance whatever of becoming law, but which may, nevertheless, stir up much educative controversy, is that introduced by Representative Victor Berger, the socialist. It proposes, in brief, that the Federal Government shall loan money to states, counties and cities for public improvements. The object is primarily to provide work for the unemployed. Those familiar with the platform of the Socialist party will recognize at once that this bill is in response to its demands.

Mr. Berger's argument is that the federal government, in the case of the panic of 1907, has set a precedent which it ought to follow in behalf of the unemployed of the country.

THE DEATH RATE IN MINING

That the high tide in the death rate in American coal mines has been reached and passed is the announced belief of officials of the United States Bureau of Mines. The figures for 1911 have just been issued—2,517 men dead, and a death rate of 3.91 men in every thousand employed. Barring 1908, this is the lowest record since 1911, when the death rate was the highest known. The tally per thousand employed is as follows:

1907.....	4.88
1908.....	3.64
1909.....	4
1910.....	3.91
1911.....	3.74

MINIMUM WAGE IN MASSACHUSETTS

The Massachusetts Minimum Wage Law goes into effect July 1, 1913, instead of 1912, as incorrectly printed in *THE SURVEY* of June 22.

MERCURY POISONING

Two interesting reports on mercury poisoning have recently been issued: one a monograph of 228 pages by Dr. Ludwig Teleky of Vienna, and the other a pamphlet of 130 pages by Mrs. Lindon Bates of New York. Special attention is given by each writer to the prevalence of mercurial poisoning among hat-makers.

UNEMPLOYMENT

The International Association on Unemployment will hold its second biennial congress in Zurich, Switzerland, early in September, immediately preceding the meetings of the International Associations for Labor Legislation and Social Insurance at the same place. America will be represented by several delegates at these three Zurich congresses.

WAGES IN THE COKE-FIELDS

The H. C. Frick Coke Company, the coke oven end of the United States Steel Corporation in the Connellsville district, advanced wages April 1 $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. As labor is scarce the effect has been to compel the independent producers to follow suit.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

WHEN WARDENS DIFFER WHO SHALL DECIDE?

ISABEL C. BARROWS

It is a good omen when prison wardens study the principles which should guide them in their work, instead of blindly following along the old ruts without much regard to the real reason for doing things. A significant instance of this attempt to learn how to deal with convict labor, for instance, is to be found in a statement made to the governor of Wisconsin by Daniel Woodward, the warden of the state prison at Waupun. It is called *Labor and the Convict* and was sent not only to the governor, but was mailed to many prison wardens and printed in full in the *Daily Northwestern* (Oskosh). The object seems to have been to secure the views of other prison officials, but primarily to justify the contract system employed in Wisconsin, by which the knitting company which hires the labor of the convicts pays into the treasury of the state \$8,000 a month. The task for each man is three-fourths of a day's work. He can "run it off in about six hours and have the other three or four hours to make over-time money for himself." The convicts may make as much as "\$12 per month in over-time which they may check out to their families, use for luxuries, or retain in the office till they are discharged."

As to the health of the men, the warden says: "Our records show that a very large per cent of our inmates gain in weight and improve in health while in the institution, as a result of nutritious food and regular habits and the very best sanitary conditions." They have permission to take the correspondence course of study, and magazines and a library furnish them with reading. The labor is supervised by the warden and his officers. "My officers and I have as much control in the shops as we would have if it was a state industry. The contract safeguards every interest of the prisoner and at the end of the month we get our cash check and have no goods to sell or take risk upon."

Mr. Woodward asks a number of questions, among them: Should the tax-payers of Wisconsin pay \$11,000 a month to support the prison when it can be made self-supporting?

Shall we support the convict in prison without labor? Is it justice to place a premium upon crime by establishing a trade school for the convict, when the honest unskilled laborer outside has no such opportunity? or to establish schools for the illiterate in prison when the illiterate, honest person outside has no such opportunity?

One of the wardens who received this document was F. O. Hellstrom of North Dakota. His comments were terse: "I will frankly say that I cannot agree with you on the position you take. So far as my observations have gone the contract system has demoralizing and corruptive influence wherever it has been in vogue, and it belongs to the past and not to the future. If you have taken this stand in the hope that you will find a neutral middle ground, I think you are very much mistaken and I believe you will find that you are occupying the very extreme rear instead of the middle."

To this Mr. Woodward replied at length, again trying to justify the contract system as practiced in Wisconsin, where "sentimental nonsense" is put to one side. He said that this was the "first adverse criticism from any source" and that no one had tried to answer his questions.

Thereupon Mr. Hellstrom takes up the cudgels again. After a preliminary paragraph regretting that Wisconsin is not farther advanced in prison reform, and stating that for five years the good points at Waupun have been flourishing in North Dakota—with suspended sentence, the honor system, and other helps to the discipline of the men—he answers the questions in substance as follows: Every institution should be self-supporting, but not profit-making; after deducting the cost of maintenance any surplus should go to the inmates. I cannot agree with you that to establish schools either for training men in the elementary rudiments of learning, or the ordinary trades is placing a premium on crime and dishonesty. . . . If the state has so far neglected its duties as to allow citizens to grow up in ignorance and dark-

ness, then it would be a shame and a disgrace to allow such conditions to continue and incarcerate a person in the penitentiary with the full knowledge of his ignorance without making some attempt at his enlightenment. The contract system leads toward dark ignorance and crime rather than toward enlightenment and honesty. . . . The sentence to hard labor is no doubt a just and necessary act, but this does not imply that the state has a right to sell that labor for the exploitation of private parties to satisfy their profit and greed, but that the labor be used entirely for the benefit of the state and the profits for the benefit of the individual doing time. Past methods of dealing with crime have been a failure. Society should see to it that reform in all phases of criminal law and penal institutions be carried out and that some sane and humanitarian policy be adopted. . . . A large percentage of inmates of penal institutions are not criminals, but law-breakers and therefore susceptible to better training. . . .

"I do not know," says Warden Hellstrom, "how the slave driver in the South, before slavery was abolished, would have justified his position except by making use of exactly the same line of reasoning as you have. I am very much surprised at your views on the very vital question of penal servitude." He closes by referring to the fact that the Wisconsin prison board was advertising for bids for the erection of a building, the contractor to furnish all labor and material, and asks the highly pertinent question: "Can you give any good reason why the convict labor of your institution should not be employed in the erection of this building?"

This interesting correspondence, having come into the hands of the present writer, it seemed wise to call for expert comment, and it was referred to Z. R. Brockway of Elmira with the question "which is right and why"? With his usual promptness and kindness Mr. Brockway replied at once. A summary of his views may help to clarity of thought upon the question under discussion:

After an appreciative word about the two wardens as "a good sort," he emphasizes the need of having wardens graduate from some penological educational opportunity before they enter upon the actual and very responsible administering of the prisons. "Both are emerging," he says, "from the first to the

second-thought stage of philanthropical and civic evolution, but have not reached the third, the truly scientific stage."

Warden Woodward advocates the contract system of prison employment, but he deals himself and his system a blow at the plexus when he says, as he does in his statement, that his best men can scarcely be placed in industry outside at even the small wage of a dollar a day. His points of argument are familiar enough to those of us who discussed the contract system forty years ago. The sum of it is the tax-payer's relief from paying the cost of current maintenance of the prison, the indifference and difficulty of the culture-system, trade schools and school education; and the fear that such education will induce crime. It could be answered that the cost of maintaining the prisons is a mere bagatelle compared to the cost to the tax-payers of the prisoners and their crimes who are discharged and who resume criminal practices; that the cultural course to be provided must not depend on the prisoner's choice, or interest. He must be *made* to conform, to form new habits and tastes together with his enlarged good capacities; and the training should be made so strenuous that none would choose it in preference to the opportunities for such culture in a free community. The prisoner's pain or pleasure is but incident to the curative process—not the object of it.

The employment of every prisoner from the day of his admission must be to fit him for his appropriate niche in free industries and so for his proper place in the community. This involves classification and it relegates the consideration of cost of prison support, labor selection and system to the incidental realm, together with the preference and pleasure of the prisoners who are under this process of training. The contract system is an obstacle to the necessary selection, classification and adaptation of physical, manual, industrial, and mental culture of prisoners for their proper safe inhabitancy. No single prison labor system is suitable for all the prisoners.

Warden Hellstrom urges that prisoners be made self-sustaining, and though he favors the training school it must not interfere with the self-sustaining industries. He is alive to the truth that industry is the real foundation of civilization and he urges that every branch of ordinary and necessary occupation should be introduced into prisons. He recognizes

that the contract system is a hindrance, and his mind reaches forward to the introduction of the honor system of discipline and, prompted by his humanitarianism, his mind is open to other newer cultural agencies. He seems to be breaking away from the doctrine of sin in crime, and from the obligation of us humans to mete out justice, in his remark that law breakers are not necessarily criminals, in the ordinary sense of voluntary moral guilt. In this he "shows the open mind and enterprising official."

Both are good prison managers on the plane of their present progress, but apparently neither has advanced to the standard of prison administration which aims at permanent public protection from further crimes by the prisoners committed to their care by means of their reformation through means and measures scientifically used to build, at will, the individual human character—rebuilding it where the defects endanger public peace, property, or personal safety.

The very important principle of modern prison practice—the payment of prisoners—is useful and commendable, or it is harmful according to its application. During the half century of my continuous prison experience every phase of the system was tried with good and bad effects, till it was perfected under the (so-called) indeterminate sentence system of the Elmira Reformatory. Scarcely anything in the conduct of prisons is so liable to a demoralizing influence or is so capable of rational reformatory results. The sending of the prisoner's earnings to persons outside—his alleged family and dependents—must be done with the utmost discretion. So far as actual and *worthy* family connections exist and are well known, this quasi-public charity may safely be indulged. But such outside pecuniary benefit may become a contribution, directly or indirectly, to the "jack pot" of criminals and prostitutes, or may go to a certain class of lawyers to be used to secure the convict's release from prison "by hook or by crook" rather than by the process of earning by merit and fitness the regular discharge. The expenditure of the convict's earnings for luxuries from outside is demoralizing to a really reformatory regime; but properly expended for the betterment of his prison condition along the line of prescribed advancement it may be very useful.

The wage system as it was applied in the best days of the Elmira Reformatory is the

truest for use of this difficult system. An accumulated credit balance for each prisoner, reasonably sufficient to put him into a desirable situation on his release, made essential to the privilege of release—a credit balance accumulated by earning, expending, and saving, with limitations of liberty and closest observation and control where necessary—earned, expended, and saved item by item, as must be in free life, this is the best, perhaps it is the only really proper application of the prisoners' wage system yet discovered.

One, two, three, or more years of actual practice of effort and economies such as bring success and happiness ordinarily outside, coupled with the satisfaction of achievement and ennoblement of accumulation honestly and honorably obtained, has been found to be an excellent preparation for a prisoner's good performance when paroled or discharged from imprisonment.

AN EXPERIMENT IN SOCIAL CENTERS

An experiment in social centers has been carried out by a small committee of Brooklyn residents who secured the Commercial High School—one of the finest halls in the city, seating 2,000—from the Board of Education for free concerts and lectures on social and civic subjects, to be given on twenty Sunday evenings. Edward W. Ordway, writes thus of the meetings held:

"This hall was in a district where failure was regarded as almost certain—the public school illustrated lectures drew an average audience of from one to 200, and concerts, I was told, were a thing unheard of. We arranged a course of ten concerts of high class—Chamber music by our best quartets—the Olive Mead—Kaltensbohn—Damreuthes—Mannes—alternating with lectures on social topics by men with democratic messages, followed by music and discussion. We have no organization behind us and almost no advertising.

"The attendance at the first four concerts has averaged 1,500 to 1,600, a most enthusiastic audience that has delighted our musicians. It appears to comprise people of all types, but largely skilled working men and people who could not attend concerts at the rates usually charged.

"The audience at the first three lectures varied from 400 to 800—of excellent quality—and we have had earnest and interesting discussions. I am told that this is the first experiment of the kind in the public schools of New York. Perhaps the most interesting part is our experiment with the Board of Education. At first, it was a constant struggle with red tape, petty rules and authorities, that took a vast deal of time and made our ex-



Courtesy *Institution Quarterly*, Illinois Board of Administration.

TREE PLANTING CAMP AT WAI-O-TAPU, NEW ZEALAND.

This is the largest of the three camps in New Zealand. The picture shows the single- and double-celled huts, the administration buildings, kitchen, stable, coach-house, and dining room.

periment seem hopeless, but after two or three weeks the whole situation changed—hampering regulations disappeared, and janitors and petty authorities showed a cooperative spirit and a desire to make our experiment a success.

"Another Brooklyn movement is the introduction of moving pictures into the recreation centers of the schools. Our aim was to help solve the moving picture question by changing the environments—putting the pictures in the public schools, where they belong—and to organize the better demand.

"The shows were given in three public schools—halls seating 1,500 to 1,600—two in Jewish districts and one in an Irish-American. The attendance in the Jewish sections filled the halls and hundreds were turned away—in the Irish section, there was far less interest, but an attendance of about a thousand.

"The best films were most appreciated; Alice in Wonderland, a total failure in the ordinary commercial shows, was a great success. Enoch Arden, the Declaration of Independence, and the Summer Work of the Board of Health (Summer Babies) aroused great enthusiasm."

TREE PLANTING BY PRISONERS

From time to time THE SURVEY has printed items about tree planting as an industry for convicts in New Zealand. The late F. H. Wines secured for the *Institution Quarterly* of Illinois the paper read on this subject by James A. Kayll at the meeting of the American Prison Association last fall in Omaha. The general range of facts as to this phase of conservation work, in which convicts take part, offers interesting points for comparison with the conservation work in New England described by Dr. Fernald in a recent issue of THE SURVEY¹ in which the labor of defec-

tives is utilized. To quote a few points from Mr. Kayll's paper: "For every ten prisoners there is one officer. None of the officers are armed. Every prisoner has a separate hut to himself, or else a single cell in a two-celled hut. With the exception of such as are required for the work about the camp and the vegetable garden, all are engaged either in tree-planting or getting firewood. Sometimes they have to work at a distance of from three to four miles from the camp. They take their lunches with them, and return for supper at five o'clock. During the summer, they are engaged in cutting scrub, forming fire-breaks, and digging pits; during the winter, they plant out the young trees which are supplied from the nurseries of the forestry department.

"The men have their supper in association in a large dining-room, and they remain in this room reading or writing until lock-up at eight o'clock. There have been several escapes, but all the escapes, with the exception of one, have been recaptured. There is no doubt whatsoever that the success of a camp depends largely upon the degree of security that can be given to a camp.

"Very few other than first offenders are sent. Experience has proved that the old offender does not appreciate any advantages that may be offered to him and his example tends to have a bad effect upon the camp. Each case is determined on its merits.

"As a rule the prisoners justify the confidence placed in them. Some prove themselves remarkably trustworthy, and will be out all day working some miles from the camp, without any supervision, and return at night having done a good day's work. This has been the case several times with men sent gathering firewood.

"Altogether, about 1,100 prisoners have passed through the camps, and about twenty-two millions of trees have been planted by these men. This does not include trees that have died."

¹See The Templeton Farm Colony for the Feeble-minded. THE SURVEY, March 2, page 1873.

PERSONALS

Frances Perkins, executive secretary of the Consumers' League of New York city for two years, has resigned to become executive secretary of the Committee on Safety of the City of New York. Miss Perkins succeeds



FRANCIS PERKINS.

Dr. Charles H. Keyes, who resigned in the spring. The Committee on Safety was formed immediately after the Triangle fire to protect life and property from the hazard of fire. Miss Perkins has taken a prominent part in civic organization work in New York for several years. It was largely through her efforts that the fifty-four hour law restricting the employment of women and children was enacted at the last session of the legislature.

A campaign of inspection by the Committee on Safety has been planned by Miss Perkins for the coming months. This will include the regular and persistent examination of especially hazardous districts, buildings, and occupations so that the committee may be able to call for a constant enforcement of the law. In this campaign the committee plans to work in close touch with the fire department. The first step is to be a re-inspection of the 1,600 premises investigated by the Committee on Safety last summer.

Another phase of work to be undertaken is the establishment of a bureau of complaints. Complaints collected through the trade union and labor papers will be verified by the investigating staff. If they prove to be reasonable they will be submitted with recommendations to the proper city and state authorities. Miss Perkins plans to assist the work of the new bureau of fire prevention by turning over to it an analysis and verifica-

tion of all complaints as to hazardous conditions in factories which come to the attention of the committee. The Committee on Safety during the coming year will also work in close touch with the State Factory Investigating Commission, which has been continued for another year with an added appropriation of \$60,000 from the state treasury.

The introduction of a new building code before the Board of Aldermen offers the committee an opportunity to emphasize the importance of adequate provisions respecting fire walls, exits, and other facilities of escape in case of fire. The Committee on Safety believes that constant watchfulness during the next few months will be necessary to insure a building code which will provide for real fireproof construction.

* * *

Leslie Hayford, the new secretary and executive officer of the Board of Trustees of the Massachusetts Training (or Reform) Schools, has come to his post with valuable experience among immigrants not only in this country but in foreign lands as well. For



LESLIE HAYFORD.

five years he was teacher and superintendent of schools in the Philippine Islands, for two years he was connected with the Federal Immigration Commission at Washington, D. C., and for a like period was field secretary of the North American Civic League for Immigrants. Mr. Hayford is known as a writer and speaker of ability. The office upon which he has entered was created by the legislature a year ago. Not a small part of Mr. Hayford's service will be molding into good citizenship the rough and unready material found in the Lancaster School for Girls and the Lyman School for Boys, and Mr. Hayford's training has been such as to equip him well for that service.

* * *

In giving up the general secretaryship of the Associated Charities at Jacksonville, Fla.

and accepting a similar position in Portland, Ore., V. R. Manning has but gone from one socially growing part of the country to another. A 1908 graduate of the University of Minnesota, he spent two years with the Associated Charities of Minneapolis and went to Jacksonville in 1910. Of his work there Francis H. McLean, says: "The census gives Jacksonville a population of 56,769, of which 27,000 are negroes. The budget of the society for 1912 will be over \$10,000. This showing, not excelled or even reached, we believe, by any other society in a city of the same size, has been made possible by an exceedingly strong board and an exceedingly strong secretary. The call of Mr. Manning to Portland is of huge importance; it is skirmish number 1 in the campaign of the Northwest to strengthen its social work before the opening of the Panama Canal."

* * *

In going to Jacksonville as Mr. Manning's successor, Rudolph T. Solensten returns to the section of the country where he made an early success. Mr. Solensten obtained his first training with the Chicago Bureau of Charities.

* * *

"Who is going to help us now," asked Captain Lee of the police department when he heard of the recent death of Mrs. George J. Charlton, of Oak Park, Ill. "She was our



MRS. GEORGE J. CHARLTON.

right hand in cases that refused to enter into the laws and police methods." Mrs. Charlton has evidenced her public spirit in both social and educational activities. As president and directing head of the Oak Park Associated Charities, as a member of the Board of Directors of the Congregational Training School for Women, as a member of the Oak Park Board of Education and through her relations with various other agencies she displayed such enthusiasm, sympathy, and practicality that people said: "See Mrs. Charlton" when counsel or help was needed. Twice she had made rounds of the Illinois charitable institutions taking with her in a special car other

members of the committee on state institutions of the State Federation of Clubs, of which she was chairman. Miss Lathrop said of the work of this committee: "The sane and temperate report of this committee aided in allaying the public anxiety aroused at that time by reckless political attacks. Mrs. Charlton was a good citizen of a high and gracious type."

COMMUNICATIONS

THE HIGH COST OF SOCIAL LIVING

TO THE EDITOR:

The present cost of both physical and social life is a tremendous strain. This is true of the cost of social service as well as of other forms of public activity. The man or woman of fairly narrow range finds that during the sessions of the legislature and Congress there is need of additional stenographic service to meet the constant demands for letters communicating approval or disapproval of measures to be voted upon. Postage and stationery alone amount to surprisingly large sums. Municipal matters can scarcely gain a hearing during this rush season from those who are most concerned with state and national affairs. Social politicians take advantage of this condition to further their own ends.

Many lines of activity, as writing, speaking, and committee service, have become socialized to the extent that those who do not give their entire time to them are not expected to receive any compensation, even expenses, for what they do. The result is often overstrain for those who must make their living and the limiting of certain types of service to those who are financially "endowed." Even those who give themselves to positions having salaries are justified in questioning the ethics of their service, when, for instance, a full time charity district secretary receives sixty dollars a month and a stenographer twenty-five. Has any report been made upon the status of the paid social worker?

The "follow-up systems" have accomplished much that is worth while, but their persistency in following a wrong trail becomes at times maddening. One can no more stop some of these systems than he can an "endless chain." In the business world the cost of these schemes is very great and consumers must pay for them—their waste as well as their efficiency. One writes to a railroad or steamship or insurance company for some simple information and an unending deluge of circulars, telephone and agent calls, leads him to decide on some other course about which he must carefully keep silence or he will be taken possession of by "seven others" who wish to make up his mind for him.

The enormous out-go for advertising and commercial travelers adds greatly to the cost of living. One feels that the high expense

bills of traveling men, considered an index of success by many, furnish one of the large wastes in present life. Our social service must use advertising, follow-up schemes, traveling men and other forms of machinery, but will it not pay to have an investigation of these methods with reference to their social efficiency, in order to reduce economic waste?

FRANK A. MANNY.

Baltimore, Md.

JOTTINGS

MORAL EDUCATION CONGRESS

The Second International Moral Education Congress will be held at the Hague August 22-27, 1912.

Distinguished educators, publicists, physicians, and social workers from all over the world will be present to take part in the discussion. Among the many important contributors will be M. Boutroux of the Institute, M. Boulgé of the Sorbonne, Brand Meyer, of the University of Berlin, J. W. Adamson of London, Sir Robert Baden-Powell, Harrold Johnson, Constance MacColl, J. S. Mackenzie, C. W. Saleeby, Gustave Spiller, Stanton Coit, John Russell, M. S. Sadler, Millicent Mackenzie, Edward P. Culverwell.

The American Committee of the congress, of which Felix Adler is chairman and H. A. Overstreet of the College of the City of New York is secretary, is preparing to submit to the congress a volume of papers representative of the best American thought and practice on moral education. The topics covered are wide in range: physical culture, systems of discipline and government in schools; social service activities in connection with schools; sex hygiene; systems of direct moral instruction; vocational training; Sunday Schools; the use of play; humane movements; moral education in American colleges and universities.

Among the contributors to this symposium are: George A. Coe, F. C. Sharp, Joseph Lee, Felix Adler, Anna Garlin Spencer, John L. Elliott, Robert A. Woods, Mrs. Vance Cheney, Mrs. Joseph Allen, Frank A. Manny, Charity Dye, Edward C. Moore, Mrs. David Kirk, David Phillipson, Henry Neumann, L. L. Doggett, Ella Lyman Cabot, Helen C. Putnam, William R. George, David Saville Muzzey, Thomas Francis Fox.

JUNIOR REPUBLIC IDEA INTERNATIONAL

The recently incorporated National Association of Junior Republics has opened an office in the Tribune Building, 154 Nassau street, New York. Lyman Beecher Stowe, secretary of the association, is in charge.

From a single community at Freeville,¹ New York, the republic idea has grown into an international movement. Six states already have seven republics in this country and an-

nouncement is made that another is about to be established at Moorestown, N. J., under the auspices of Mrs. Strawbridge Brophy. Still another is to be started in Vermont.

A community similar to the junior republic has just been started in Dorset, England, under the auspices of George Montague, on a farm given for the purpose by his uncle, the Earl of Sandwich. A movement is now on foot to establish such a community in France.

STEERAGE AND THE FRENCH LINE

While Dr. von Borosini's article on conditions in the out-bound steerage of the French Line² was pending, an officer of the Compagnie Generale Transatlantique deprecated its publication and suggested that Dr. von Borosini travel to Europe and back this summer on some of their best boats as his guest, but delay the publication of the article. While Dr. von Borosini did not feel that he could withdraw the article, he took favorably to the idea of co-operating with the company to secure changes. Since the article has been published, the company has altogether lost interest in his trip which they professed while the article was pending, refusing even to give Dr. von Borosini a letter of introduction to their officials in Paris on the ground that they are so busy with important affairs that they have no time to bother about the steerage.

PRISON REFORM

THE LATEST BOOKS FOR WORKERS AND STUDENTS

FIFTY YEARS OF PRISON SERVICE. An autobiography. by Zebulon R. Brockway, for 25 years superintendent of Elmira Reformatory. \$2.

PENAL SERVITUDE. By E. Stagg Whitin, Secretary National Committee on Prison Labor. \$1.62.

CORRECTION AND PREVENTION. Four volumes prepared by Charles R. Henderson for the Russel Sage Foundation as souvenirs of the Eighth International Prison Congress. The four prepaid for \$10. Individual volumes as follows:

Prison Reform. By C. R. Henderson, F. H. Wines, F. B. Sanborn and others, and Criminal Law in the U. S. by Eugene Smith. \$2.67. (Criminal Law, separately, \$1).

Penal and Reformatory Institutions. By sixteen leading authorities. \$2.70.

Preventive Agencies and Methods. By Charles R. Henderson. \$2.68.

Preventive Treatment of Neglected Children. By Hastings H. Hart and 20 others. \$2.70.

(Chapters on Cottage and Congregate Institutions, separately, \$1).

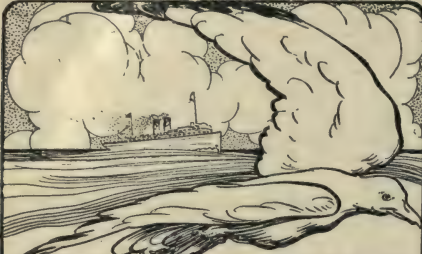
BY MAIL, POSTPAID, OF
CHARITIES PUBLICATION COMMITTEE
105 East 22d Street, New York.

¹See THE SURVEY, April 27, p. 166.

Classified Advertisements

Advertising rates are: Hotels and Resorts, Apartments, Tours and Travel, Real Estate, fifteen cents per line. "Want" advertisements under the various headings, "Situations Wanted," "Help Wanted," etc., five cents each word or initial, **including the address, for each insertion.** The first word of each advertisement is set in capital letters without charge. Other words may be set in capitals, if desired, at double rates. Replies will be forwarded by us to the advertiser. Orders and copy for Classified Advertisements must be received with remittance ten days before the Saturday on which it is intended the advertisement shall first appear. Address Advertising Department, The Survey, 105 East 23d Street, New York City.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

HUGHES-BORAH BILL PASSES THE HOUSE

The Hughes-Borah bill to create a Commission on Industrial Relations passed the House of Representatives last week without serious opposition. There is fair prospect of its coming to a vote in the Senate before adjournment this session and efforts are being redoubled toward that end. It is projected on broad lines and intended to be a very thorough inquiry into all the important aspects of the labor situation. \$100,000 was appropriated for the work of the first year, and the broad plans of the economists and social workers of the country who have sponsored the bill were endorsed in most of the speeches in its favor.

An amendment was proposed by Congressman Fitzgerald, chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, with the evident intention of crippling the work of the commission. This would prohibit the commission from employing anyone at a compensation exceeding the rate of \$3000 per annum. Such a restriction might seriously embarrass the commission in securing necessary expert service for particular parts of its work. The friends of the bill hope to have the restriction removed by further amendment in the Senate and to secure the enactment of the law and the appointment of the Commission at this session of Congress.

The House of Representatives Labor Committee has done more active work and secured more legislation on labor matters in this Congress than any similar committee in recent years. It gave serious attention to the Federal Commission bill and brought it to a vote as the measure next in importance, in its judgment, to its bill to create a Department of Labor. Senator Borah has been equally active with his committee on Education and Labor, which has agreed to report favorably the Commission bill to the Senate. The committee which has been promoting the measure urges all who favor it to wire or write at once to Sena-

tor Borah, and to one or both of the senators representing the state in which they reside, urging them to use their best efforts to secure its passage in the Senate at this session. There is no serious opposition in the senate, but some inclination to postpone the consideration of the measure until the short session in December. This would mean practically a year's delay.

HOUSE FAVORABLE TO DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

The Sulzer bill to create a Department of Labor which passed the House on July 17 by a *viva voce* vote, as amended in the Committee of the Whole provides for a new executive department called the Department of Labor, with a Secretary of Labor in the President's cabinet. The salary of the secretary is \$12,000. The purpose of the department—as defined in an amendment offered by Representative Moore of Pennsylvania—is “to foster, promote and develop the welfare of the wage workers of the United States, to improve their working conditions, and to advance their opportunities for profitable employment.” The original House bill called for three assistant secretaries to supervise, respectively, labor engaged in manufacturing and the transportation industries, labor employed in mining, fisheries and agricultural industries, and labor engaged in building and mercantile industries. An amendment, however, offered by Representative Mann, of Illinois, substituted one assistant secretary at \$5,000, together with a chief clerk, a disbursing clerk, and such other clerical assistants, special agents, and inspectors as may be from time to time provided by Congress.

The Commissioner General of Immigration, the Commissioners of Immigration, the Bureau of Immigration, the Division of Information, and the Immigration Service at large, together with the Bureau of Labor and the Commissioner of Labor are transferred to the new department. Section 5 of the bill provides

that the Bureau of Labor Statistics (now the Bureau of Labor) shall collect, collate, and report at least once a year full and complete statistics of the conditions of labor and the products and distribution of the products in each of the different industries.

On section 9, which originally provided that the secretary should have the power to act as mediator and to appoint commissioners of conciliation in labor disputes "whenever in his judgment the interests of industrial peace may require it to be done", there was a short debate. Representative Moore of Pennsylvania suggested that the Secretary of Labor should be required to report to the President the findings of the commissioners of conciliation, pointing out that this would make publicity compulsory. Representative Wilson, however, chairman of the labor committee, declared:

The amendment proposed by the gentleman embodies the distinctive difference that there is between the power conveyed by this bill and the power as proposed in the Townsend bill and gives to the secretary of labor the power that he should not have—the power to organize, direct, and concentrate public opinion so as to compel the employer to give conditions he does not want to give or the employe to accept conditions he does not want to accept. Both of them are wrong and should never be incorporated in the laws of the United States.

Upon a division, there were six ayes and sixty-two noes.

SOCIAL TREND IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

The Chicago session of the National Education Association emphasized the function of teacher and school to prepare children more specifically than is now done for their part in the social, civic and industrial life. This, it was held, did not mean a superimposing of new tasks upon already overburdened teachers; it meant a fuller, more purposeful, carrying out of their present duties. Earlier programs centered the interest on "How to make the child know." This one was keyed to the broader theme "How to help the child grow." This recognizes the fact that to grow lives, attention must be paid to the soil, the conditions that promote or deter growth;

conditions both physical and moral which environ the life of youth in the school room, playground, street and home. The vision of public educators was thus seen to be broadening to the whole life of the child, to include the moral and religious aim in education.

The great Auditorium in Chicago was thronged at every general session by thousands of those in the lead and of those in the ranks of public education in every state. The spirit of democracy expressed itself in the exemplification of and plea for association and cooperation between teachers, pupils and parents, public officials and private citizens; between school and school, and the schools with every other agency of the community; between the nation itself and "the little red school house" at the country crossroads.

Gleanings from the full week's crowded programs show how strongly the tide of opinion and discussion set toward the higher community life. Thus the training of teachers was considered in the light of their function as "social servants." As such, it was said, they must be in touch with every essential phase of community life; should know how their community sleeps, works and plays, and thus be able to co-ordinate what they teach with these actual social conditions; and therefore, should be trained to promote public welfare by making the public school the most efficient agency for progress and for democracy triumphant, because educated.

"The public schools and the public health" was the topic on which eminent doctors, teachers and publicists bore noteworthy testimony. There was no hesitancy in asserting that public health necessitates social control, as well as individual cooperation. To realize better health, not merely to prevent ill health; to form good habits, not merely to reform bad ones; to have more doctors of public health, and fewer doctors of medicine; to make the community conscious of the sources and dangers of commercialized vice, as well as the perils of poisoned candies and "doped" drinks, were all urged as corollaries of the fundamental proposition that "the health of the child is a national asset."

SCHOOLS FOR PLAY

The most ringing utterances of the convention were called forth whenever the relation of the public schools to the movements for recreational, social and civic opportunity was considered. Jane Adams was at her best in urging the school as a recreation center, and Luther H. Gulick presented Women's New Relation to the World, which he pointed up by emphasizing the significance of the "camp-fire girls" movement. Leisure was taken to be as essential as lessons. The movement for healthful, wholesome, joyous recreation was held to be the most effective anti-vice, anti-saloon, anti-cigarette, anti-gambling influence, and a positive training in morals. A recreational survey of every community was urged to discover the facilities and agencies lacking or available for the play of the people, both younger and older. "All the schools in all the states in the service of all the people" was the demand to meet the greater exactions which our more direct democracy is certain to make upon every American.

It was noteworthy that the plea for more than the "little red school house" as the need of the nation, was made both by a state superintendent of public instruction, and by a representative of a great religious denomination's department of Church and Country Life. Rev. Warren H. Wilson, declared our insufficient and ineffectual rural schools to be the farmers' worst foe, which is "rapidly thinning the ranks of the tillers of the soil." "The 'little red school house on the hill' teaches the farmer's son to be a gentleman, but does not teach him to be a farmer, trains in personality, not in efficiency, makes preachers and lawyers, not farmers." "One-half the farmers of Illinois are renters; four out of ten throughout the United States are renters; in the eyes of the law the renter, as well as the landlord, is an outlaw, as the law does not adequately recognize either." This rapid depletion in country life is hastening the time when America will become an importing nation, it was declared, and the one-room rural school house will be responsible for our dependence upon other people

for our food supplies. Mr. Wilson went on:

Have the farmer's boy and daughter live in the country until they are eighteen years old. Let them sleep in their own home, eat at their own table, learn how to farm, and to respect their father's occupation. Then you will have farmers who own the land they till, who will be interested in the productivity of their land. They will not be outlaws. They will build schools and churches that are worth while.

State Superintendent Thomas H. Harris, of Louisiana, anticipated the clergyman's appeal by urging that the country school should be developed by the national government, with no more interference with state government than had been experienced in giving national aid to the agricultural colleges.

A national university was urged as a buttress of democracy by four presidents of state universities, James, of Illinois; Van Hise, of Wisconsin; Baker, of Colorado; and Thompson, of Ohio. They argued that it would promote a national educational policy, would utilize the resources of the Federal departments for educational purposes, would raise the idealism of the nation and the standards of Congress, would make politics more democratic, would unify democracy and the higher life, and would give opportunity for social adjustment to the conservative and progressive tendencies in our national life.

PRISON TEST OF MORAL EDUCATION

Nowhere in the program of the convention itself, more than in that of the Religious Education Association was the purpose more manifest to make efficient men and women, adequately motivated to live the ideal social life. A college president, a city superintendent of schools, and professors from two state universities participated in this discussion of "Steps Forward in Moral Education in the Public Schools." One of the latter, Professor Bagley, of the University of Illinois, read a startling resume of an investigation of the religious antecedents or affiliations of the prisoners in thirteen state prisons in the northern tier of states. On the basis of the United States census estimate of the adult membership

in religious bodies, the ratio of prison commitments to the proportion of the population affiliated with the several religious bodies, was studied. Those denominations paying least attention to religious education of their youth and of their ministry were found to be most numerous represented in the prisons of all these states. In every state prison two of these religious bodies had the most representatives, while the two other bodies paying the most attention to religious education had the fewest in every case.

THE COURT OF REHABILITATION

Press despatches told recently of a collection taken up in both houses of the Arizona legislature to send a convict from the state penitentiary to Washington to patent a machine for collecting electricity from the atmosphere. A few days later the convict returned to finish his sentence. "The patent office experts laughed at me when I reached Washington and laid my drawings before them," he is quoted as saying: "They told me I would have to build a model and demonstrate my claims. There was little time to spare, as I had only twenty days left of my leave, but in a few days I was able to take a crude model around to the patent office to make a demonstration. The absorber was hoisted on two short poles and made to work. There was no trouble after that. The officials had seen the thing work and were forced to admit that I had something new."

The action of the Arizona legislature was taken after its members had listened to an address by Kate Barnard, commissioner of charities and corrections of Oklahoma. The prisoner, a forger, was not the subject of Miss Barnard's remarks, but his errand is evidence of the open-mindedness which some sections of the country are attaining on penological matters. Miss Barnard went to Arizona on invitation to discuss her tentative penal law establishing adult probation and courts of rehabilitation. Having included this in her latest report to Governor Hunt she will urge it for passage at the next session of Oklahoma's legislature.

First proposed by Roland B. Molineaux in *Charities and the Commons*¹ five years ago, the court of rehabilitation for prisoners has since received wide and favorable attention. Embodied now in a measure which has the sanction of many prison experts it is today a challenge to the best penological thought of the country. As first outlined this court was to consist primarily of a judge and jury whose main function would be to pass upon the release of prisoners. Sentence was to be absolutely indeterminate and only on the basis of proved reformation, or good conduct, could a prisoner hope to secure freedom. "It has required a judge and jury to deprive him of liberty," said Mr. Molineaux, "only by a judge and jury should he be restored." Strip the criminal code to a bare list of the acts constituting crimes and misdemeanors, he urged, set up a court of rehabilitation in every penal institution, make the sole permissible sentence for any crime banishment from society—to be spent behind prison walls—and the only means of gaining freedom a decision from the new judicial body, "and every evil of the criminal law will disappear." The moment the door closes upon a prisoner, he said, you have a man who longs with all his soul for liberty. "Make him understand," he continued,

that liberty can never come except through himself and note the mental difference. No longer are thoughts and conversations the mere retrospects of cleverness and mistakes in crime, or the planning of revenge upon society when liberated. Instinctively he dwells upon present accomplishments that alone can win him freedom. He finds offered him an education, most certain preventives and cures of crime, and nowhere better than in prison can the mind be trained. . . . He is given opportunity to demonstrate his sincerity by industry, by ambition, by kind acts, by solicitude for his fellow prisoners and for those outside whom he has caused to sorrow. Officials, teachers, the overseers in the workshops, all are his friends, not mere jailers. And in time, upon their advice, he moves his case for trial in the court of rehabilitation."

Once before this court the prisoner is to be asked to give his reasons for thinking liberty is due him. Every statement can be verified, pointed out Mr. Molineaux, "and should the verdict be 're-

¹See *Charities and the Commons*, Sept. 28, 1907.

habilitation' he is not, as once, told to go and sin no more, after the state has made it impossible for him to do anything else but sin."

AS PROPOSED IN OKLAHOMA

In Ohio as well as in Oklahoma steps are under way to establish courts of rehabilitation. Fred Kohler, Chief of Police of Cleveland, petitioned Ohio's recent constitutional convention for an amendment which would make legal the creation of such courts. He was advised that no amendment was necessary, and immediately placed his city solicitor at work on a bill which, it is expected, will be presented to the legislature this fall. The court created by the tentative Oklahoma bill is to have jurisdiction in every penal institution, but the measure does not call for the absolute indeterminate sentence which in Mr. Molineaux's opinion is the most effective way to handle the habitual criminal. Trial judges having jurisdiction in misdemeanor cases may suspend sentence over first offenders, prescribing the conditions of probation and transferring their cases to the jurisdiction of the court of rehabilitation. The trial judge may require such persons to pay the costs, together with any fine imposed, and whenever there has been a loss of money from the wrong act of the probationer, he may order the latter to make financial restitution to the injured party, the money to be paid through the court of rehabilitation. A merit system provides what shall constitute good conduct. Whenever a prisoner has accumulated a number of merit marks which, multiplied by four, is equal in hours to one-third of the time for which he has been sentenced, he becomes eligible for probation. A certificate to that effect is forwarded to the court of rehabilitation together with a history of his case. Whenever the prisoner has fully complied with the conditions of his probation the court of rehabilitation issues as a matter of right, after a hearing, a decree of discharge.

The bill further provides that every convicted person confined for a definite term may be placed on probation by the

court of rehabilitation, his case to be moved in that court at a time depending on his good conduct. Life prisoners are entitled to all the provisions of the act after they have served "one-third of the total expectancy of life at the date of sentence, to be computed according to the Carlisle mortality tables."

The object of the act is declared to be

to help those unfortunates in this state who, either through faulty heredity, bad environment, or bad social conditions, have unfortunately become social outcasts and yet may not be criminals at heart, and may with justice and kindness be reclaimed to be once more good citizens, hence this act shall be liberally construed in favor of any convict in order that the object of this act may be attained, to-wit: complete reformatoin of our criminal population.

In the discussion of this whole plan the press throughout the country has joined. "In suggestion the plan is ideal," said the *New York World*, which continued:

It seems to place on a fairer and more effective basis than that now afforded the judgment of habitual criminality, since the inducement is made greater and the way easier for a man to earn his freedom. A practical test of the scheme might prove a valuable step in the progress of society.

Under the caption "a question of real importance" the *Springfield (Mass.) Republican* declared:

No one can give serious attention to Mr. Molineaux's suggestions without feeling that social reformers must not ignore the project which he has elaborated and has presented with so much convincing power.

Quoting from Mr. Molineaux's article in *Charities and the Commons* the *Milwaukee (Wis.) News* wrote as follows:

"The objection may be raised," the author says, "that this system makes it comparatively easy to get out of prison. Possibly it does, but if it also makes it hard to get back into prison, is not a greater good accomplished? And that is exactly what it does, for the liberated man fully realizes how terribly a second offense and conviction would count against him." And should that not be the chief aim of society and its laws—to prevent crime rather than to take vengeance upon the criminal?

The Duluth (Minn.) *Tribune* held:

The proposition is somewhat startling, but it should not be pooh-poohed into oblivion.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE MENACE OF THE BATHING POOL

H. F. J. PORTER

A recent meeting in New York of the public bath officials of several cities resulted in the formation of the American Association for Promoting Hygiene and Public Baths. This in turn becomes a member of an International Conference of Bath Officials which meets this summer at The Hague. A movement for the extension and standardization of public bathing facilities, based on demands of health, sanitation and comfort today seems thus to be under way. With the hot weather upon us the question of how far our present system meets any or all of these three aims is a live one.

A movement with these three aims in view, moreover, ought to be the last which in its own equipment should generate or transmit disease or uncleanness. There is little doubt nevertheless that hundreds of swimming pools in our public baths, private and public gymnasiums and recreation parks, each of which is used by from a score to a thousand persons daily with or without preliminary bathing, must prove fruitful sources of disease, unless the utmost precautions are taken. To the careful observer there is little doubt, also, that only in a minority of cases are such precautions taken. It is difficult, to be sure, to trace diseases, such as colds, skin diseases, intestinal and eye troubles, to bacteria in swimming places. K. N. Atkins in an investigation made for the Department of Bacteriology of Chicago University in connection with the university pool, tells of five cases of epidemics following bathing in rivers or in pools filled from rivers where sewage contamination existed. His data covers, also, five pools whose water supply was supposed to be clean. From this investigation there is strong reason to believe that the pools were the cause of several cases of eye, ear, throat, intestinal or venereal disease,

including one epidemic of vulvovaginitis which spread among 236 girls using a school swimming pool. During the typhoid epidemic at Pittsburgh, when river bathing was forbidden, the opinion was expressed that the public bathing pools continued to serve as conveyors of the disease.

As ordinarily run, swimming pools are little more than cesspools and clear themselves of bacteria largely on the septic tank principle. How true this characterization is, can be judged from what little has been done along the line of scientific investigation. Investigations of public pools for a long period of time at Hamburg as well as more recently of college pools at Purdue, Brown, Chicago and Yale Universities and the New York public swimming pools show that the impurities produced by bathers are bacterial and chemical foreign matter. Chemical impurities have not been studied except to a slight extent in the New York swimming pools where chemical elements recognized as harmful by experts on water supply have been found. Two classes of bacteria have been found, coli bacteria and disease microbes from the human body. In all investigations so far made the dangerous disease microbe was present in far greater numbers than the harmless coli bacteria.

Tests made at the Hamburg pools showed water fresh from the tap contained 57 microbes per cubic centimeter; the same volume after seventy-four persons had bathed contained 1800; after four hundred and ninety-four persons, 64,400. When tests were taken after 829 had bathed, however, only 154,000 microbes were found, illustrating the septic tank principle, that after a certain point has been reached the septic condition of the water either actually kills the microbes or else they devour each other until the excess is destroyed and an equilibrium representing the maximum impurity that the water can sustain is reached. The very expression of this condition which actually existed in all pools studied is, it would seem, calculated to arouse alarm as well as disgust.

A pool at Purdue University showed

930 microbes per cubic centimetre from the tap; after 30 swimmers, previously bathed with a soap shower, had had their sport, the number of microbes increased to 109,200. Another pool showed that in a given volume the initial 35 microbes increased after persons had entered to 190,000, then to 630,000, then decreasing. In both these examples a shower bath was required before entrance to the pool. In an experiment made at Bonn a stoker bathed in a tub for three minutes without soap and raised an initial 24 microbes and no bacillus coli to 1900 microbes and 40 bacillus coli. Under such circumstances it is hard to imagine the condition of the floating river bath where sewage is present as well as dirty bathers or of such salt pools as that in the New York Produce Exchange where the water is pumped direct from the river and as many as one hundred persons a day bathe in water containing sewage. Still less in the kosher bathing places, on the east side, twenty of which were within the year investigated by the New York Board of Health. These latter pools are really only tanks in the basements of tenements and run from 5 by 6.4 by 5 feet up to 26 by 14.5 by 5 feet in size. They are emptied regardless of size as often as the proprietor decides, once, twice, or three times a week; crowded to their capacity, especially before the Jewish Sabbath; and without effective sanitary supervision. These are all New York has to offer the pious Jew for a ritual bathing commanded by the Mosaic Law and designed to insure personal cleanliness and health.

Such bathing places as these show no health precautions. In all pools, even these tenement tanks, some precautions can be used; in the larger such can be used as will render the pool absolutely sterile. Previous bathing and the exclusion of persons known to have contagious skin affections are the first and these are enforced in few even of the large college pools. Frequent change of water is another essential. That expense may make the owners of the kosher pools careless in this matter is easy to understand, but in the large public and private pools too there appears to be no standardization. One university pool,

which it is true used other methods of purification, changed its water only once a month. A factory clubhouse pool which as many as two hundred people used a day, was emptied twice a week; another used by only twenty-five was emptied daily. Many of our more expensive Turkish bathing pools do not have daily changes or other precautions.

Where water is scarce other methods of purification can partly take the place of change but there is none which can effectively and permanently keep up with an accumulation of bacteria due to many bathers in the same water. On the other hand frequent change is by no means in itself enough. In a few hours enough bathers may enter to pollute a pool for all others entering during that day. The quickest and cheapest method of purification, which is used frequently for purifying water supplies and which is applicable it would seem to some extent to river bathing places as well as indoor pools, is hypochloride of calcium, 1 part to 2,000,000 parts water, 20 pounds to 1,000,000 gallons of water. This can be introduced by sprinkling, or if the smell is unpleasant in the atmosphere, by dragging cheesecloth bags filled with the powder through the pool, or in salt water, by electrolysis of salt. This has been in recent months used in some of the New York pools, and has been found in Brown, Purdue and Yale universities absolutely to sterilize the water by destroying at least 99% of the bacterial content. Its effectiveness gradually works off and it must be renewed in about 48 hours. The lime must be kept in circulation, and for this purpose circulation by suction filtration through sand or sand and charcoal filter is good, as well as a constant stream of water running into the pool. If properly placed the filter vent can be made to draw off part of the sediment, though nothing can do away entirely with the necessity for frequent emptying and cleansing. The pool should be made of smooth tiles with no square corners and have a surrounding gutter where a constant flow of water will carry off the scum.

The standard pool should of course provide all these precautions and the public should enforce them.

THE TREND OF THINGS

According to a recent issue of *Good Housekeeping*, juvenile delinquency has increased by leaps and bounds "since the Juvenile Court was established." "The cities which have had it longest have the largest juvenile criminal records in the country." The question is propounded "How far is the Juvenile Court and its system responsible for this state of affairs?" The readers of *Good Housekeeping* are told that the "professional philanthropists" are interested in promoting as many institutions and asylums and reform schools as possible. The more children the Juvenile Court can tear away from parents, the more there will be for the institutions and asylums and reform schools; the more jobs for high salaried experts; the greater the business of the schools for social work. Hence we are given to understand that the "Charity Trust" hails with satisfaction the swelling numbers brought into the Juvenile Court, and opposes stubbornly any attempt to investigate the ways by which children come within its influence or what happens to them after the court disposes of them.

Social workers await with interest the next revelation. Should it not expose the awful consequences following the establishment of anti-tuberculosis associations? What a frightful increase of the white plague there has been since these were organized! The cities which have had them the longest have the most prodigious records of cases of tuberculosis. The more cases the anti-tuberculosis associations can tear away from loving family circles, the more there will be for the hospitals and sanatoria.

The article in *Good Housekeeping* on "The Child and The Charity Trust" merely reiterates what the same writer, Winifred Black, "revealed" *ad nauseam* through the columns of Hearst's *Chicago Examiner* a few months ago.

Good Housekeeping has, within the year, been added to the string of Mr. Hearst's magazines, and we have in the same issue the anomaly of Dr. Wylie's articles standing for efficient food regulation and health service (as against the old time slovenly and disease-breeding standards connived at by crooked business interests and crooked public inspectors), side by side with this plea for a return to the old ways in another equally important branch of the government service, where children rather than canned goods are at stake. Dr. Gulick or Dr. Cabot, who are also contributors to this issue of *Good Housekeeping*, could have told the editors what scientific technique has brought into the treatment of juvenile delinquency since the days when every city haled its boys and girls to the police court, along with drunks and vagrants. As well hark back to kindly, uninspected slaughter

houses and to cow barns before the theory of bacterial disease broke in upon the routine of milkman and butcher. The affiliations of Mr. Hearst's sundry newspaper enterprises are various; and it is unfortunate that the management of *Good Housekeeping*, at so early a stage, ran afoul of this particular Chicago clique and gained national circulation for its sour mess of charges, advanced not for the sake of the children but for its own ends. The exaggeration, distortion and suppression of essential facts which characterized these *Examiner* "exposures"; the political, journalistic and ecclesiastical combination which fomented the attack on the Chicago Juvenile Court; and the animus apparent in the fact that some of those who most loudly blamed the court for negligence were the ones who in the beginning had limited its powers so that it could not do the things they said it does not do—all of this was set forth fairly, clearly and adequately in *The Survey* for March 30, 1912. The statement has not even been challenged.

Even if the Juvenile Court has been hailed by some sentimental enthusiasts as a complete solvent for children's troubles, the social workers who helped to establish it, protect its interests and promote its efficiency, who have combined skill and intelligence with real human sympathy—the "professional" members of the "Charity Trust"—have never lost sight of the fact that its human service is subject to human short-comings. Indeed, they have striven for years to institute some of the very reforms which the present assailants of the court have suddenly discovered to be desirable. Nor have they lost sight of the fact that the court is a corrective agency. When little or no longer needed, they would gladly lessen or eliminate its operation, just as the fighters of tuberculosis would gladly discontinue sanatoria when tuberculosis is conquered. The very organization in Chicago, which through private means made the pioneer probation service possible and efficient was glad, when the public assumed this responsibility, to turn its energies—more vigorous than ever—into efforts to protect children and prevent the conditions which bring them into the Juvenile Court.

Similarly, another section of the "Charity Trust" specifically attacked—the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy—which trains its students to render in Juvenile Court and other branches of social work, service as efficient in method and skill as it is devoted in spirit, has used its research funds in a study of juvenile delinquency, to find out what playgrounds, schools and other social forces in the community may do to make the Juvenile Court less necessary.

Just as medical work now seeks to promote health as well as cure disease, the schools of civics and philanthropy are throwing the weight of their emphasis on preventive measures and positive forces for the social welfare.

STEADY EMPLOYMENT

Two friends, who hadn't seen each other for several years, met again as neighbors in a new suburban district.

"Hullo, Jim! Who'd have thought of seeing you! Who are you working for now?"

"Same people," was the cheery response, "a wife and five children."—N. Y. Call.

* * *

Consumers' leagues and federal reports made the working girl's condition better known in the United States than in Canada; the federal report has indeed led to an interesting periodical literature on work and wages. Clara E. Laughlin makes the subject especially interesting in her series running in *Pearson's*. Last month she told, in the form of fiction—borne out by marginal government figures—what the life of the underpaid shop girl could become. This month, in "Schoolin' for Girls" she shows the possibilities of making the girl worker "worth more" to her employer than she now is. In August she will tell of the minimum wage movement.

* * *

The "reformer in action," clothed in the wisdom of the serpent to outwit politicians who have long lost the innocence of the dove is the subject of Leroy Scott's spirited account in the *Metropolitan* of how Frances Perkins, late with the Consumers' League of New York, in cahoots with "Big Tim" Sullivan and "The" McManus outwitted politicians many of them more respectable than Miss Perkins' aids and in two days forced through two bills in order to gain one law, the Jackson 54-Hour Law. It is a picture of what lobbying means—and also a picture of what determination in the face of almost certain defeat means.

* * *

Robert P. Kreidler in the *Churchman* summarizes the many ways in which the parishes of the Episcopal diocese of New York are striving to do their part in solving the social problems of the greater city. The Seamen's Church Institute with its floating aide the *Sentinel*, a chain of all night lunch wagons stationed at the Battery and in Herald, Union and Madison Squares, the Longshoremen's Rest, the Squirrel Inn, the City Mission, the Vacation Bible School for Children, the Church Mission of Help for Wayward Girls and the Laity league, are some of the enterprises tinged with social service maintained by New York Episcopalians as a body. Individual parishes such as Trinity and St. George's, Grace and St. Bartholomew's, Incarnation and St. Michael's, Ascension and St. Thomas' have their own undertakings. Trinity now awake to its chance, has employed an expert, Emily W. Dinwiddie, to supervise and improve its tenement properties. St. Georges, with the momentum Dr. Rainsford gave it, conducts work touching every side of the community life. Rev. John P. Peters

of St. Michael's besides conducting an institutional church is a leader in the Committee of Fourteen and a force for social purity. Half a score of the larger churches provide holidays through their own camps and summer homes to so large a number that the figures seem scarcely credible.

The most apparent need now in New York, the Rev. Mr. Kreidler points out, is for more co-operation in social work, co-operation between parishes, and also between the Church and the social forces in the city. He also points out that of the problems not yet adequately touched by the Church—though to its credit it should be said that the Church Society for the Advancement of Labor is one of the oldest associations with this end in view—that of working population and their relation both to the Church and to the social life as a whole remains to be met.

* * *

Last month's *Scribner's* gave in its water and power number an idea of the march of industry; this month in the New Suburb, experts bring together the facts in regard to the world wide movement toward solving the "problem of modern living intelligently, scientifically and economically." In the three articles of the series Frederic C. Howe tells of English garden cities, Elmer Gray of Pacific slope suburbs and Grosvenor Atterbury of other model towns in this country. The illustrations are particularly striking.

In this series *Scribner's* has taken on an unanticipated atmosphere of keeping abreast of the times; and it is doing it in a distinctive way.

* * *

"Where the Sick in Mind are Free" by Alice Isaacs, in the *Atlantic* describes the Belgian system of care of the insane carried on since 1852 in the colony of Gheel, which curiously enough had been for some thirteen hundred years before under the care of St. Dymphna, patron saint of the sick in mind. At Gheel within a radius of thirty miles the patients are distributed in homes throughout towns, villages and farms, no more than two in a home and each home investigated and chosen with a view to its suitability to the particular patient and his malady. Here they live in perfect freedom to work or to wander or to play surrounded by social and cultural institutions, with a central headquarters from which physicians and nurses visit them daily. Only those with homicidal or suicidal mania or vicious habits are kept in restraint in the infirmary which houses sixty persons. The only restrictions put upon the freedom of the rest of the 2,325 patients living under this family life treatment being the withholding of money in any considerable amount, the wide separation of the settlement from the villages, the nightly accounting for their patients' whereabouts required of each householder and the strict regulation of the sale of intoxicants to patients.

PERSONALS

George B. Mangold, now associate director, has been appointed director of the St. Louis School of Social Economy to succeed Thomas J. Riley, who lately accepted the position of general secretary of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. Mr. Mangold has been successively instructor of economics at Washington State College; instructor of sociology at the University of Pennsylvania; special agent of the



GEORGE B. MANGOLD.

Wayfarer's Lodge, Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity; and instructor in sociology at Washington University, St. Louis.

Besides through his teaching, he has become known through his investigation for the New York Consumers' League of the canning industry and through his books dealing with child problems.

Arthur W. Gutridge who died suddenly in St. Paul, Minnesota, last month, was for years one of the prominent figures at national conferences and was one of the most widely-known social workers in the United States. Born in the Province of Quebec about 1857, he made his own way through college and became a teacher. For several years he was principal of one of the public schools in South St. Paul, Minnesota. In 1895 he became financial secretary of the St. Paul Associated Charities and in March, 1898, was elected general secretary of that society upon the resignation of James F. Jackson, who then entered the service of the State Board of Charities. It was in this position that Mr. Gutridge was best known, continuing in it until 1910. He was chairman of the committee on families and neighborhoods of the Minneapolis National Conference of Charities and Correction. All through his career

he emphasized the need of a larger development of personal service and always the St. Paul society, under his regime, paid special heed to the development of friendly visiting. In 1910 he organized the St. Paul Collateral Loan Company (a provident loan association) and became its secretary.

J. Byram Deacon, since last October the financial secretary of the Charity Organization Society of New York, will, on October 1, become the general secretary of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities. This position was made vacant by the resignation of Charles F. Weller, effective July first.¹ Following his residence during 1907 at the Woodbrooke Settlement for Social and Religious Study in Birmingham, England, Mr. Deacon attended the New York School of Philanthropy. The next year he served as superintendent of the Charity Organization Society of Paterson, New Jersey. From Paterson Mr. Deacon went to Philadelphia to become secretary of the Philadelphia Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis.

James P. Kranz, recently head worker of the Houston Settlement Association of Houston, Texas, has been elected general secretary of the Associated Charities of Memphis, Tenn. Mr. Kranz is one of that army of young men who with eastern training and experience have gone into the South and West to solve frontier problems of social organization. Graduating from the University of Minnesota in 1904 he took charge of the department of homeless men of the Associated Charities of that city. Coming to the University Settlement, New York, he attended the Graduate School at Columbia and the New York School of Philanthropy. Mr. Kranz was later connected with the Children's Bureau of Philadelphia.

Peter Roberts, secretary for immigration of the international Y. M. C. A., tells a story of transatlantic naturalization. The Y. M. C. A. has a card system; one-half of the card is given to any immigrant with whom they get in touch at Ellis Island and the other half sent to the Y. M. C. A. secretary or other correspondent at the immigrant's point of destination, so that the stranger can be looked up on his arrival in the new place. An official at Ellis Island was asked by an immigrant who had one of these cards what it was worth. To try him out a little, the official told him he could get \$25 for it when he presented it to the Y. M. C. A. secretary in the city designated. "I'll sell it to you for \$5," said the immigrant promptly. "He had become an American before he landed," is Dr. Roberts' comment.

Howard L. Udell, who during his two and a half years as manager of the associated char-

¹See THE SURVEY, April 27, 1912.

ities at Waterbury, Conn., put a new spirit into the city's philanthropic effort, has been appointed secretary of the Associated Charities of Detroit, Mich. Mr. Udell was previously in similar work in Pawtucket, R. I.

A number of Australian citizens, with the co-operation of the South Australian government, have raised a memorial in honor of the late Catherine Helen Spence, both for her special work as a distinguished fellow-citizen and for the influence she exerted throughout the civilized world. Outside of Australia her two greatest contributions to humanity have been her untiring efforts to make our representative institutions truly representative and therefore democratic, and her campaign on behalf of home-life under state oversight for the dependent child.

This national tribute to her memory has taken the form of a series of scholarships at the University of South Australia and a portrait in the National Gallery of Adelaide, where nearly all her life was spent.

A. H.

The executive committee of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities has created the position of superintendent of employment and Louis U. Dolbeare has been selected to fill the position. Mr. Dolbeare will have supervision, under the general secretary of the bureau, of all the industrial departments of the bureau, including the day nurseries and women's lodging house.

Mr. Dolbeare, a graduate of the New York School of Philanthropy, has been with the bureau since July, 1910, and since December, 1910, has served as Bedford district secretary.

Mrs. Hartley Le H. Smith has been engaged to fill temporarily the position of Supervisor of District Secretaries at the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. For five years Mrs. Smith (formerly Ellen J. Sharp) was in the employ of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity under Mary E. Richmond, and later for three years in the Department of Health and Charities in Philadelphia under Dr. Neff.

One of the board of commissioners to administer the new insurance law of Great Britain is Mona Wilson, daughter of Canon Wilson and formerly a member of the home office departmental committee to inquire into industrial accidents. As insurance commissioner, she will receive \$5,000 a year for five years.

When the United Charities of Chicago drafted Eugene T. Lies away from the Associated Charities of Minneapolis to become its superintendent, the latter retaliated by asking John J. O'Connor, district superintendent of the Chicago organization, to succeed Mr. Lies. Mr. O'Connor, who is twenty-five years old, has been with the United Charities five years. His change will become effective September 1.

JOTTINGS

WORLD-WIDE WAR ON VICE

The international order of B'nai B'rith at its recent convention held in Europe instituted a world-wide campaign against the white slave traffic and is informing organizations in different countries engaged in similar work of the action taken by the order, with a view of securing their co-operation. The plan of procedure includes the following policies: to enlist the press of the entire world in aiding the fight against the trade in girls and women; to organize special committees in the cities on the border and at harbors; to appoint well qualified agents to be their executives for supervision and control; to distribute warnings against the traders by printed circulars and notices; to unite women's organizations for preventing the traffic; to send itinerant speakers to all lands; to teach adolescent youth the dangers of the social vice; to establish in every country an information bureau which shall be responsible and effective; to organize in the greater cities agencies for the protection of women and girls who are traveling; and for the purpose of carrying out this work, to establish central bureaus of the order in Berlin, for Europe, and in Chicago for America. With special reference to the situation in the Orient, it was decided to investigate the laws and ordinances of Turkey for the purpose of securing the prevention of the white slave traffic by the punishment of the white slave traders; to investigate the traffic, the forms under which it is conducted, the customs to which it is related, the people who are engaged in it and the extent to which it is carried on; to advise with regard to the ways and means of fighting it in different localities; to provide for the supervision of boat and railway traffic; to make provision for girls and women rescued from the traffic and to secure agents to carry out these plans.

CHICAGO COMMITTEE AGAINST VICE

The Committee of Fifteen has been chartered by the Legislature of Illinois "to aid the public authorities in the enforcement of all laws against pandering and to take measures calculated to suppress the white slave traffic." It has some of the strongest men of Chicago in its membership and devotes its work exclusively to prosecution. In its first annual report, record is made of sixty-three convictions, resulting in jail sentences aggregating over forty-one years of imprisonment. Forty-seven girls were returned to their parents and thirteen more were sent to institutions after being rescued from disorderly houses. The report points its warnings against the dangers to girls in amusement parks and skating rinks, dance halls and wine rooms, nickel theaters and hotels, and in offers of marriage, by telling instances from the life stories of girls thus misled.

The American Vigilance Association has opened headquarters at 105 West Monroe Street, Chicago, with Clifford G. Roe as superintendent and counsel, and George J. Kneeland, who conducted the investigation for the Chicago Vice Commission, as superintendent of the department of investigation. His services will be in demand in many towns and cities which are inquiring into their local conditions. The association announces a new edition of the Chicago Vice Commission Report, applications for which may be made to the Chicago office.

REFORMS IN ARKANSAS

With the cries of Nebraska's recent prison murders almost ringing in her ears Arkansas was told outspokenly not long ago that she must change her prison system. Clifton W. Gray, a young lawyer of Little Rock, speaking before the State's First Conference of Charities and Correction pointed at the promiscuous herding together of young and old offenders and said that this scheme for breeding crime must go. The lease system, he declared, must give way to the state use plan, prisoners must be paid for their work, and a part of this remuneration must go to the families which, under the present law, suffer worse punishment than incarceration.

There were four general headings for discussion at this first gathering of the state's social workers: child welfare, organized charity, public health and prison reform. The section on prison reform adopted recommendations demanding the establishment of a reform school in which there would be ampler educational facilities of a vocational nature, that a public defender be supplied to the prisoner just as he is supplied gratis with a man to prosecute him, that prisons be made more sanitary, that the lease system be abolished and labor be made educational, and the other things demanded by Mr. Gray.

Another antiquated system in another field afflicts Arkansas, it was declared. Her fee system permits arrested children to be brought before a justice of the peace who after exacting his costs refers the prisoner to the juvenile court, none the better for this poorness in pocket. Mrs. David T. Terry, a member of the children's visitation board and conspicuous in the juvenile court movement, asked why the child could not be sent to the juvenile court at once. The child welfare section reported an endorsement of the universal child labor law and asked for more humane treatment of juvenile delinquents where reformation is to be brought about. It suggested also that a detention home be established for child law-breakers and another institution as a medium for first offenders between the detention home and the reformatory.

Durand Whipple, president of the United Charities Association of Pulaski county, told how the Negroes accentuated the problem of the loan shark in Arkansas. This class of

borrowers, he declared, cares nothing about exorbitant rates of interest so long as there is money to be got. Mr. Whipple thought, however, that it would be an easy matter to exterminate the usurers because the law provides that when interest of more than 12 per cent is charged, the lender loses both interest and principal, and payment cannot be legally enforced. He urged the creation of a remedial loan bureau.

The typhoid fly, the malaria mosquito, and the hook worm were all pilloried as public enemies in Arkansas. Several thousand cases of hook worm had been found by Dr. Morgan Smith alone. As a government expert Dr. Smith has spent several years studying causes and effects of this ailment and he attributes a great deal of physical and moral degeneracy to it. So acute does he regard the problem that he advocates the establishment in the most affected counties of a state dispensary where the simple cure needed can be applied. The section on health urged the state health department to organize a health bureau in each of the larger cities.

In spite of her vast areas and freedom from large population centers, Arkansas showed herself strong in the charity organization movement. Discussing the nature and cause of organized charities Murray A. Auerbach, general secretary of the United Charities Association of Pulaski county, showed the great need for modern charitable societies to enter the legitimate field of social prevention and reform.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE EXHIBITS

THE SURVEY for June 15 referred to the exhibit of the American Association of Labor Legislation at Atlantic City as the first industrial hygiene exhibit in this country. While the exhibit was the first in this country dealing with a considerable number of the recognized occupational diseases (lead poisoning, compressed air illness, arsenic poisoning, phossy jaw, etc.) William C. Hanson of the Massachusetts State Board of Health calls attention to their earlier exhibit in Boston in 1907, and later at the Sixth International Congress on Tuberculosis in Washington in 1908. This exhibit illustrated industrial processes dangerous to health, ventilation problems, and the effects of certain peculiar work hazards such as lead and mercurial poisoning and deserves to be described as the first industrial hygiene exhibit in this country.

FINGER PRINTING DEPOSITORS

Finger print bank depositors—that is the latest cry of the identification experts. And it is announced that twenty banks in New York state have adopted the plan. It is urged that this is much more accurate and simple than requiring friends to identify you and having to answer the questions put by ingenious paying tellers.

THE COMMON WELFARE

PRISON REFORM IN CALIFORNIA

California has placed herself among the western states which seem to be awaking to new policies in their prison administration. For some time there was considerable complaint of alleged antiquated and brutal methods in the treatment of inmates at Folsom prison. The resignation of the warden followed and a successor, J. A. Johnston, was secured who was thought to be thoroughly in touch with modern reformatory practices and ideals. The latter found that the entire bathing system for the use of 1159 prisoners consisted of two tubs and one dilapidated shower, which had probably seen two decades or more of service. It had been impossible for the men to obtain a bath more frequently than once in every two months. Mr. Johnston has had plans drawn for a new bath house containing showers, plunge, tubs and dressing rooms. The work of construction and furnishing will be done entirely by convict labor. Another projected improvement is the installation of an automatic ventilating system which will alleviate the objectionable conditions now existing. The cells in the main building are occupied by from four to six men each. These cells are closed by boiler plate doors, the sole ventilation being furnished by holes in the doors one and three-fourth inches in diameter. It is also planned, as soon as the new walls and the new buildings are constructed, to grade the prisoners into three groups and to abolish stripes except for the lowest grade.

Progress has also been made at the San Quentin prison under the supervision of Warden Hoyle. A cell-block containing 800 cells, constructed along modern lines, has just been completed and will be occupied in a short time. This and the construction of new buildings for the kitchen, dining room and bakery will enable the warden to carry out his plans of grading and segregating the inmates into three groups. Work will also be started imme-

diately on two more cell-houses, and upon their completion, the old cell-blocks, built fifty years ago, will be torn down to make room for a larger prison yard. The prison board has authorized the erection of a plant at San Quentin for the manufacture of woolen and cotton goods, including cloth and blankets, for the state institutions. This prison is already manufacturing clothing, shoes, tinware, beds, furniture and other supplies for the various state institutions.

STRIKES IN THE STEEL DISTRICT

The strike of 2,000 employees at the Pennsylvania Department Mill of the National Tube Company, a Pittsburgh subsidiary of the United States Steel corporation, which was called in *THE SURVEY* of July 6 "a spontaneous outburst," ended with the men returning to work the week following. They won their fight for better working conditions but failed in the matter of increased pay. Before returning to work it was insisted that charges against two of their number, one of whom lay in jail awaiting the finding of the September grand jury, should be withdrawn. This was done. A majority of the workers had been "out" since, Monday, June 17.

A raise of two and one-half cents per hour for all hands comprised one of the striking employees' demands on which the company stood pat, but it acceded to requests that thirty minutes should be allowed for lunch instead of twenty, the electric lights to remain turned on; that there should be a pay every two weeks, and that "spell-hands" should relieve furnace hands for twenty minutes in every hour.

Remarkable moderation was displayed by the men during the strike. A dramatic incident marked the final meeting of the workers' committee with company officials on the afternoon before the employees returned to work. Forming in line, nearly 1,000 strikers marched across the Monongahela river from the South side and took their stand opposite the

tube company's office in Second avenue. They waited patiently there until their leaders had completed the final conference with the mill officials. The police did not interfere, but there were a number of mounted men in the vicinity.

Socialist and Industrial Workers of the World leaders took an active part in mass meetings and deliberations of employees while the strike continued.

Another flare up in the Pittsburgh district is reported in connection with an increase of 10 per cent which was granted common laborers July 15 in the Jones & Laughlin (independent) mills. The claim is made by the workers that the company's action was due to evidences of dissatisfaction shown by the employees following the introduction of the Taylor efficiency system. Over 5,000 men are affected by the increase.

Trouble is said to have arisen because of the changes in working methods. For a time the mill was in an uproar and, it is claimed, some of the workmen before leaving caused damage by throwing their tools into machinery. A conference was arranged immediately and announcement of the increase followed.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN ACCIDENT COMPENSATION

Though the Federal Compensation Act¹ still hangs in the balance, three state legislatures added this season to the number of compensation acts. Michigan, Maryland and Rhode Island are the latest to adopt the new principles of accident compensation. The Michigan law, which applies to all but farm and domestic servants and casual laborers, is pseudo-elective, choice to be made by employers yearly and filed with an industrial accident board. Members are to serve for a six years' term at a salary of \$3,500 a year, and to them will fall all the details of administration. The employee must give notice if he desires not to come under the law. In case of accident, compensation notice under the law must be served before the end of three months.

Medical benefit is not to be paid for more than three weeks, and no compensation other than medical will be sup-

plied until two weeks have elapsed. Death payments are to be fifty per cent of wages, but not to exceed ten dollars, for a period not to exceed 300 weeks. All dependents or partial dependents, beyond wife and children, are to be determined in accordance with the facts of the particular case. In happy contrast to the laws in several states, no dependent will be excluded who is a non-resident alien. Payment for total incapacity is fifty per cent of wages for a period not to exceed five hundred weeks; partial incapacity, one half of wage loss for not more than three hundred weeks, the loss of certain members according to a fixed scale of values.

A choice of four methods of paying compensation is given employers: through self insurance, through a liability insurance company or a mutual employers' company or in an accident fund, administered by the State Commissioner of Insurance. This fourth choice gives to the Michigan law some of the features of a voluntary state insurance scheme.

With the exception of this characteristic feature of the Michigan act, the Rhode Island law is essentially identical with it. It is pseudo-elective, with election assumed unless otherwise stated by the employee, and the rates of compensation are practically those of the Michigan act.

These rates, which apply also to the Maryland act, are low compared with earlier laws, especially in death settlements where a flat fifty per cent, regardless of the number of dependents, forms a striking contrast to the graduated scales provided by most of the earlier acts.

The Maryland law is purely optional, leaving choice between the old common law and participation in an insurance plan to be effected either through a casualty company or, where the number of employees is not less than 1500, through a mutual benefit fund. The general administration of the act lies with the insurance commissioner of the state.

There seems to be a trend toward low rates of compensation, a point which has not apparently aroused the attention of labor organizations. The tentative

¹See THE SURVEY July 6, 1912.

act recently published by the Industrial Accident Commission of Pennsylvania, though it provides a schedule of benefits based on the number of dependents of workmen who are killed, begins the scheduled as low as twenty-five per cent and rises only as high as sixty per cent for a widow with five children. In common with the Michigan act, the proposed Pennsylvania act breaks away from the old state law and court decisions and contains the provision that non-resident alien dependents shall be compensated on the same basis as residents.

THE CANADIAN COMMISSION

In still another quarter there are reports of progress toward compensation law. The Canadian Workmen's Compensation Commission, of which Sir William Meredith is chairman, has submitted an interim report after twenty-one months' work. A mutual insurance fund is on the whole favored by the commission, although some opposition to this plan was met with from representatives of labor, who feel that the whole burden of an insurance fund which in itself would not cover the whole of their financial loss in case of accident, should be borne by the employers. The employers ask that the workmen bear ten per cent of the cost. Before definite recommendations for legislation can be made, the commission wishes to take up this point as well as many problems of administration, the number and character of the industries to be covered, etc. The New York legislature, with a compensation bill, two state insurance bills and a constitutional amendment before it, passed the amendment only. This amendment to article one of the constitution—the Bayne Bill—provides:

§ 19. Nothing contained in this constitution shall be construed to limit the power of the legislature to enact laws for the protection of the lives, health, or safety of employees; or for the payment, either by employers, or by employers and employees or otherwise, either directly or through a state or other system of insurance or otherwise, of compensation for injuries to employees or for death of employees resulting from such injuries without regard to fault as a cause thereof, except where the injury is occa-

sioned by the wilful intention of the injured employe to bring about the injury or death of himself or of another, or where the injury results solely from the intoxication of the injured employe while on duty; or for the adjustment, determination and settlement, with or without trial by jury, of issues which may arise under such legislation; or to provide that the right of such compensation, and the remedy therefor shall be exclusive of all other rights and remedies for injuries to employes or for death resulting from such injuries; or to provide that the amount of such compensation for death shall not exceed a fixed or determined sum; provided that all moneys paid by an employer to his employes or their legal representatives, by reason of the enactment of any of the laws herein authorized, shall be held to be a proper charge in the cost of operating the business of the employer.

In the Ives case, the New York Court of Appeals set the Empire State off in a class by itself, incompetent to provide compulsory compensation legislation such as other states have enacted, until and unless the constitution of the commonwealth is amended. Before such compulsory compensation legislation based on this amendment can be passed the amendment must again come before the legislature, then pass the vote of the people, and then be taken up again by the law-makers. At the present time the only protection to injured workmen lies in that optional section of the Wainwright Compensation Law not affected by the decision in the Ives case. This law contained a clause which excluded from the scope of the fellow servant defense certain vice-principles of the employer. A recent decision of the Supreme Court of the state in the case of *Topisi vs. Degnon Construction Company* supports the constitutionality of this clause and holds the employer responsible for the negligence of a foreman or superintendent.

Two other important decisions in the field of accident liability are that of the Circuit Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit (*Baltimore and Ohio Railroad vs. Gawinski*) and that of the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia (*Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington Railroad vs. Schubert*) in both of which the court decided that, under the terms of the Federal Liability Law of 1908, membership by the injured man

in a railroad's mutual benefit fund did not constitute a release from all further liability on the part of the railroad, even where the injured man signed such a release in joining the fund.

THE BOSTON STREET RAILWAY STRIKE

ROBERT A. WOODS

During the month of political conventions, some events of more than average significance did not find room on the publicity stage. The strike among the employes of the Boston Elevated, which controls practically the entire transit service of the city, has presented some features that challenge attention and inquiry.

To state even its bare-outline facts is difficult, because each of them is expressed and explained in exactly opposite terms by the parties at interest, and there did not appear any way in which the disinterested and, to a degree, suffering public could have the situation fully and fairly laid out before it.

This company has always been understood to be strongly opposed to trade unions.

It has, by way of alternative, created a benefit organization to which a very large proportion of its employes belong, and with whose results its members are to all appearances contented. This organization has served to some extent for the adjustment of grievances. Naturally, however, it has not proved itself effective to the point of wage readjustments, which are pretty clearly overdue; and there is in many cases what seems to the strikers the needlessly wasteful scattering in isolated trips of the fractional periods which added together make their working day.

The strike began seven weeks ago under the leadership of two officials of the national union of street railway employes. The company holds that the strike was fomented by these outside leaders; the leaders say that they came as the result of continued requests and after satisfying themselves that a union was desired by a substantial body of the men. The

strike was not declared until after a considerable proportion of those who had been active in the preliminary meetings had been discharged by the company.

One of the two pivotal points in the mind of the public with regard to the strike is as to whether these men,—as the strikers with good grounds claim,—were discharged on account of their union tendencies; or, as the company affirms, were dismissed in every case for some act of insubordination in connection with the operation of the road. The other pivotal point is as to the intermittent but continued disorder and violence which has accompanied the strike. For promoting this, of course, the strike leaders are clearly not responsible, but whether they could not have prevented most of it if they had desired is not so clear. More than one hundred former employes of the company have been convicted in the courts of different forms of disorder or violence.

These continued disturbances, together with the general belief that the strikers constitute only about one-fourth of the total force, and are chiefly recent employes at that,—have restrained public sympathy with the strike to a very great degree. It is quite evident, however, that whenever the issue is clearly and *peacefully* drawn as to the right of any substantial body of the elevated employes to organize themselves into trade unions, the public will staunchly support them. This being so the conservative attitude of the Central Labor Union toward any form of sympathetic strike under the present confusing circumstances, has shown the wisdom of that body. The probability of some such action, however, daily became greater. In fact the strike began to present in a set scene the effect of an attitude of intolerance toward trade unionism in urging the rank and file toward irresponsible methods. On the one hand, the chance of a serious setback to trade unionism as a principle and, on the other, the increasing competition of the I. W. W. and its methods, have even affected the men who for many years have led the different branches of organized labor in Boston without a serious strike.

The first general lesson of the situation is expressed in a bill to be presented by the Chamber of Commerce before the next legislature, embodying the principles of the Canadian Disputes Act. Under this bill no strike or lockout can take place in connection with a public-service corporation until the contestants have laid their entire case before a properly constituted public tribunal.

In the present instance, after long delay, the State Board of Arbitration has heard testimony on both sides, and has presented an ill digested report favorable to the strikers. Following these hearings, the district attorney has referred to the grand jury the testimony of numerous former employes to the effect that they were discharged on account of their connection with the newly formed trade union. Such action on the part of an employer is now illegal in Massachusetts. Should this evidence be sustained, some of the officers of the road who have testified to the contrary, will be charged with perjury.

The second and closely related lesson is that the public regulation of public-service corporations must be broadened so as to include the conditions of employment. Such action may have to be accomplished with a two-edged sword; while providing a way in which wages shall be properly and fairly adjusted, it should in the interest of the much enduring, unorganized public, eliminate for such service at least, some of the features that are too often, and have been too long, associated with trade unionism.

The Elevated Company, for its part, must in the near future face this issue. Not only is its generally very excellent transit service insufficient to shield it from this logic; but, in spite of its success in keeping up nearly the normal number of its working force during the strike, the numerous signs of halting in its service,—including a succession of more or less serious accidents,—suggest that, as the times are, the aforesaid logic in one form or other may even become indispensable to administrative efficiency.

In any case, a mutual surrender in the present contest on the part of the quite too disdainful administration of the elevated is now a certainty; as the governor

and the mayor are pressing hard the conclusions of the board of arbitration. Neither public officer, however, has apparently heard anything of the steady march of violence with which—even against vigorous police activity—this strike has brought disgrace to the city.

It is intimated in certain well-informed financial circles that the elevated road cannot afford to put itself in a position to be compelled to raise wages on account of its very heavy present and prospective responsibilities in the way of opening new subway routes. This suggests that good business must recast its prearrangements in one vital respect. That instinct of *expansion* which was pointed out long ago by Matthew Arnold in his essay on Democracy as the fundamental distinction of all human nature, will more and more represent a hazard—not a fixed charge—to be negotiated on the side of the wage sheets as well as in other departments of corporation budget making.

A BALTIMORE STRIKE AND WHAT IT BROUGHT

CHARLES G. GIRELIUS

"Baltimore has practically no labor troubles," says *The Baltimore Book*, a publication issued by that city not many months ago. ". . . Baltimore seems totally unaffected by those periodic gusts of labor agitation that sweep over one section of the country or another, unsettling conditions, causing industrial distress and financial loss." In truth, Baltimore has never had a great strike. Labor organizations have never been strong. Wages are low as a rule, and the workers have generally been "satisfied." Baltimore has been looked upon complacently as a low wage city, and the employers "love to have it so."

Nevertheless "the clod stirs" even in Baltimore. Early in April fifty stevedores employed by the Atlantic Transport Line walked out and refused to return unless they were given an increase of pay amounting to five cents per hour. A few days later, a general strike of stevedores was declared, affecting chiefly the foreign steamship and stevedore com-

panies, about 2,500 men joining. The employers refused to grant the increase of pay, and the strike thereupon resolved itself into a determined fight. By May 9 the strikers numbered 4,000. Shipping was brought almost to a standstill. Although strike-breakers were employed, vessels that usually remain in the harbor less than ten days were compelled to spend from three to six weeks before they could reload. On May 15 the employees of the Baltimore Copper Smelting and Rolling Company went on strike. Employees of a few other concerns walked out also, and for a time it did look as if the spirit of the strike were going to become widespread.

At the time the strike began, the stevedores belonged to no union. They had simply walked out unorganized, in sheer desperation, and then looked for somebody to lead them. They united with the National Transport Workers' Federation of America, to which the stevedores in every seaport on the Atlantic Coast belong, with the exception of those at Norfolk and Newport News. At first the strikers had demanded only an increase of wages. Now they demanded also recognition of the union. In the meantime, the steamship companies manifested a willingness to grant an increase of wages, but they would have no dealings with the union. Various efforts to settle the strike by arbitration were made by Charles J. Fox, chief of the Maryland Bureau of Statistics, by the mayor, by Cardinal Gibbons and others, but the steamship officials refused. Said the *Baltimore Sun* of May 9: "The employers refuse to recognize the unions. They might as well refuse to recognize Cape Hatteras or a storm at sea."

The stevedores of Baltimore are among the most poorly paid of workers. Their rate of pay varied from 20 to 25 cents per hour; gang leaders received 30 cents. But they were paid only for the actual time they were at work, and ships have a habit of coming and going in most irregular fashion. Much of the time must therefore be spent in waiting for jobs. Consequently the stevedores sometimes made \$16 per week, sometimes only \$1. They averaged from \$5 to \$7 per week. For twelve years there had been no in-

crease in the rate of pay. On the other hand, the freight rates charged by the steamship companies have been increasing tremendously. For example, on May 10, 1911, grain was shipped from Baltimore to Liverpool at the rate of 3c to 3½c a bushel, while on May 11, 1912, the rate was 8c. Rates to other ports show similar increases. The leaders of the striking stevedores were therefore amply justified in calling attention to the fact that each increase in freight rates amounts to many times more money than would pay the increase in wages demanded by the strikers.

The stevedores of Baltimore are of many nationalities, but a large majority are Negroes and Poles. They are of course crude and rough,—they have never had a chance to be anything else. They have had no rights that their employers were bound to respect, no opportunity to live decently. They have been feeling the thrill of the world-wide awakening, and powers heretofore dormant are asserting themselves. Ignorant Negroes, Poles with little or no knowledge of English, crude and rough men of many other types and nationalities, all have been standing together as brothers, doggedly and pathetically demanding a chance to support families in decency—and recognition.

They did some rioting, to be sure; but you can't expect men fighting for such a cause to keep perfect order. The Boston tea party was a riot. The essential fact is that these stevedores of Baltimore have been fighting for their just rights. They deserve far more than the wage they ask, and it is but fair that their union should be recognized. Their only protection is the union. These untutored men do not know how to present their cases individually, as their employers have demanded. In order to protect their interests and to present their grievances they must be represented by recognized leaders.

Over three months have passed since the strike began. Had these men waited until the latter part of June and made common cause with the much larger strike now in progress among the seamen and other employees of the Atlantic coast steamers, it would have been greatly

to their advantage. But not being identified with the union at the time, the Baltimore stevedores precipitated their strike with no thought of the larger movement. Nevertheless they have gained some points. A number of smaller local stevedoring companies yielded early in the strike. But the foreign steamship companies persistently refused to consider even arbitration. In some instances they diverted their ships to other ports. Numerous strikebreakers were employed, but their work was inferior and expensive. Early in the strike, it was reported that the stevedores of Liverpool would refuse to unload boats that had been loaded in Baltimore by strikebreakers. The report at least impressed upon the men the undoubted fact that their cause was far more than local in its significance.

But now the Baltimore strike is practically settled, and shipping has again resumed its normal condition. The stevedores have not gained all they wanted, but they have gained something,—an increase of two and one-half cents per hour over the regular scale of wages paid to them prior to the strike. Joseph Anderson, national organizer of the union, recently declared that 8,000 longshoremen and transport workers will be benefited by the fight waged by the National Transport Workers' Federation at Baltimore. Moreover, the Baltimore papers report that the steamship agents have decided to let the men return to work as members of the union. The copper-workers and the employes of the other concerns involved in the strike have likewise returned with an increase of wage. And the strikers have gained in moral power.

THE NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

W. TEMPLETON JOHNSON

The eighteenth annual convention of the National Municipal League, held in Los Angeles, Cal., July 8-12, was remarkable in three respects. For the first time in the history of the organization the meeting place was west of the Rocky Mountains, for the first time enfranchised women appeared and took an active part in the debates, and for the first

time, (and this phenomenon is particularly noteworthy) a committee of freeholders entrusted with the framing of a charter for an American municipality deliberately invited delegates, members of the National Municipal League, to give expert criticism on the result of their labors. To this end a list of twenty-seven vexed questions covering some of the most important phases of government by commission was submitted to the delegates and subjected to the fullest scrutiny and discussion.

With the authority to frame their own charters granted to California cities of over 5,000 population the citizens of Los Angeles will vote upon the proposed charter this fall, and its enactment is already conceded. Although about 250 cities in the United States have adopted the commission form of government, Los Angeles will be the first city with a population of over 200,000 to try the experiment. It is needless to say that the practical operation of the Los Angeles charter will be closely watched by all those interested in municipal government.

A number of years ago Ambassador James Bryce stated that the one conspicuous failure of our democracy was the administration of our city government. In his opening address President Foulke touched upon this point, adding that Ambassador Bryce might have a different opinion now, for during the last ten years a tremendous change in the government of our municipalities has been wrought. New York is better governed than for years, Chicago has in many respects vastly improved, the boss of San Francisco is in jail, Philadelphia has banished from the city hall the most notorious machine in the United States that she might seat Mayor Blankenburg, the "war horse" of reform, the progressives of Los Angeles and San Francisco have fought to a finish the domination of the Southern Pacific Railroad. The cities of the United States are coming again to their own.

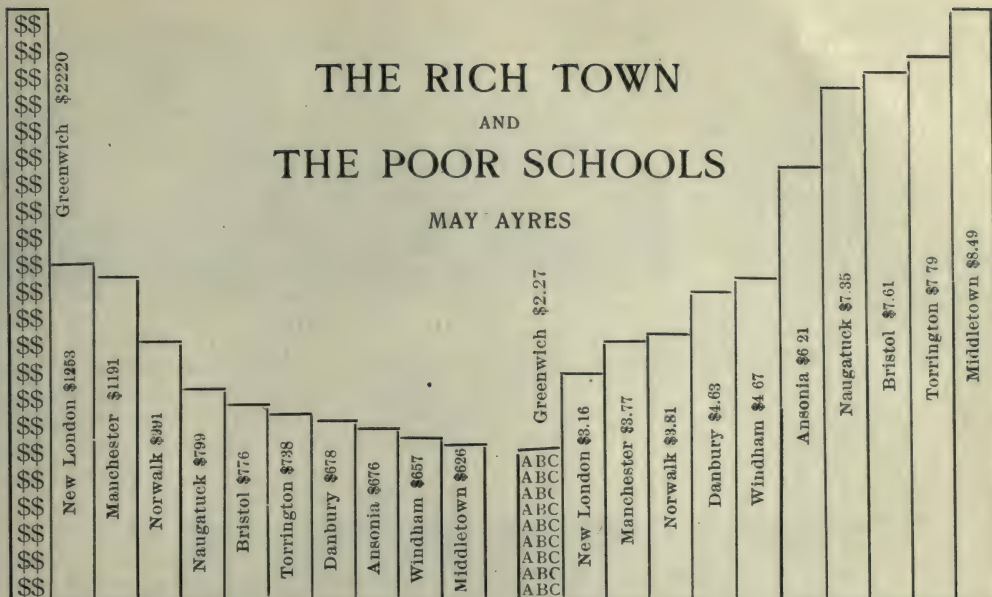
The members of the National Municipal League feel that the management of our cities can not be wholly successful until the right to govern themselves is restored to them. California cities en-

joy this privilege in almost all respects but in the majority of the states city government is hampered by a system of state supervision, designed in a measure as a check on city corruption, but adding enormous detail to the state government, and corresponding difficulties to city administration. As Robert Binkerd, secretary of the New York City Club, remarked, "Does it not seem ridiculous that the legislature of the great state of New York should gravely vote that Coopers-town might expend \$8,000 for a fire engine, that Rondout might close a certain portion of Alpha street, that Rochester might raise the salary of its superintendent of schools, that Owego might establish a dog pound." As set forth in the annual report of the secretary, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, the National Municipal League stands for Efficiency, Simplicity and Publicity in city government. Our city administrations may be said today to be for the most part honest, but many of them have antiquated methods of doing business, and antediluvian clerks who got their jobs for political value received. Those who have investigated German cities have realized that the secret of their success is not only that their officials are scrupulously honest, but that each department is in the hands of an expert, the very best man obtainable for the place, appointed, not elected, and holding office for a long term of years. The city engineer of Cöln may hail from Munich, the mayor of Bremen from Stettin.

Much of the discussion in the convention referred to the short ballot as an agent both for simplicity and efficiency, on the theory that the average voter cannot hope to use discretion in voting for a great mass of names and that with a concentration of power and responsibility municipal machinery works with far greater efficiency than under the old system. An investigation of a large number of cities governed by commission has developed the fact that the calibre of city officials has not improved to any great extent as it was hoped, for nearly three quarters of the officials in the cities studied had already held office of one kind or another under the old regime; but a considerable gain was noticed in the ef-

iciency of these same officials brought about wholly by the simplifying of municipal machinery. The movement for publicity in city administration cannot be too strongly endorsed. The million people who go to see New York's budget exhibit carry away with them a proprietary interest in their city. The reform administration in Philadelphia is to have a budget exhibit similar to that of New York. The city welfare exhibit shown in all the field houses of Chicago's small parks, teaches valuable lessons to thousands of school children and their parents. In the great central room of the Des Moines city hall sit the five members of the council in plain sight of the people, so that anyone who wishes a hearing may be heard, and all may know who is doing business with the city fathers. Los Angeles arranged a capital exhibit of city activities—housing, city planning, etc.—in conjunction with the convention, but the greatest agent for publicity is the Los Angeles Municipal News. The citizens have by a referendum vote established a weekly municipal newspaper which costs fifty cents a year and has already a circulation of 60,000 copies. At a yearly cost of \$36,000.00 (and this amount may be materially reduced by increase in advertising) the citizens are informed in minute detail as to all the activities of the city. Free advertising is granted to those having *bona fide* positions to fill or those seeking employment, and a ban is put upon all advertisements suspected of being fraudulent in any respect. One page is set apart for politics, each party being allotted one column, and this page is not censored by the Municipal Newspaper Commission.

The papers read at the conference endorsed the commission form of government at least for smaller cities, the short ballot and concentration of responsibility, advocated administration by experts, as customary in Germany and England, recommended that all administrative city officials from the lowest to the highest be appointed by the mayor or council, as the case may be, from the classified lists of the Civil Service Commission, and voiced the sentiment of thorough optimism for our municipal government of the future.



Valuation of property per inhabitant in Greenwich and the ten other Connecticut towns most nearly of the same population.

Expenditures for public school support per \$1,000 property valuation in the same Connecticut towns.

"The Child Versus the Dollar" was the slogan and the keynote of an educational exhibit held in June in Greenwich, Connecticut. The display was held in the hall of the Havemeyer school through the joint efforts of the school committee which gave the use of the building and supplied the data, and of a special committee which defrayed expenses. It was an effort to make the people of Greenwich face squarely the problem of the town's responsibility to its children.

More than ordinary significance attached to this exhibit. It revealed what may happen when a conservative rural town becomes in a few short years a rich and fashionable metropolitan suburb. Greenwich is only twenty-eight miles from New York. In its population of 17,000 there are fifty-seven millionaires and multi-millionaires, a large supply of near-millionaires, and a few ordinary persons. It is the second richest town in America.

To the outside observer it appears that

the wealthy inhabitants have attached themselves to Greenwich for personal reasons not unconnected with taxes; and although perfectly willing to pay any moderate amount needed for improvements, they do not wish to be bothered with the consideration of local problems. The poor people are too busy earning food-money (and the cost of living is high in Greenwich) to consider general improvement; and the middle class has sunk so deep in awe for those above that it cannot think about its own needs or the needs of those below. Greenwich is suffering from a stagnant public conscience.

Photographs, diagrams, maps, and descriptive placards ranged in careful sequence around the walls of the auditorium in the Havemeyer school showed the development of the present situation. Until two years ago each section of the town was a separate school district. Since July, 1910, the schools have been consolidated in one district, and administered by a school committee of six members,

The school committee and the town inherited a conglomerate collection of old school houses constructed under the district system,—nearly a score of little, antiquated, rural school buildings. These schools had different methods of instruction; in most cases classes were ungraded, rooms overcrowded, lighting poor, heating apparatus unsatisfactory, and toilet facilities both insanitary and inadequate. Many of the schools were located at too great a distance from the homes of the children.

Greenwich accepted the responsibility in so far as she gave the school board and the school superintendent the task of adapting the old school system to the new situation; but she went no further. Every recommendation made by the school authorities requiring the expenditure of money was ignored by the town. Rural schools were expected to fit urban conditions. No provision was made for development or improvement; and the result is a shamefully inadequate school system.

In October, 1911, the town appointed a special citizens' committee to co-operate with the school committee in investigating school conditions. It reported



HAVEMEYER.

such things as these: "Appalling neglect of the town with reference to the proper care for the welfare of its children." "Hallways, basements, and attics have been used as study and recitation rooms." "Over-crowded; lacking entirely in ventilation; and surrounded by swamps." "Most unhealthfully located on account of stagnant water standing within fifty feet of the building." "Crowded to the point of suffocation." "Rooms are very poorly lighted and are heated by stoves in the middle of the rooms." "Laws of hygiene, as to drainage, light, heating, ventilation, and sufficient air space, have been entirely neglected and grossly violated."

The report concluded with a recommendation that five new buildings be erected at once, and three old ones abandoned.

The town listened to the report and disregarded the recommendations.

The general attitude has been one of indifference. There were the schools and there were the children, and the schools must be good for the children, because as a general proposition all schools are good for children.

As a matter of fact, the school system in Greenwich is not a school system—it is a school conglomeration. It is a confused mixture of big and little, old and new, excellent and disgraceful schools, flung together without rule or reason;



BYRAM SCHOOL

given over into the hands of the school authorities on the supposition that whatever they might do with it would be good enough. The superintendent, school committee, and teachers are well-trained and thoroughly in earnest; but the task of building an engine out of the scrap heap has proved too much even for their ingenuity; and at last in despair of gaining public support in any other way, they called in a band of experts to rouse the people of Greenwich to some sense of social responsibility.

The school committee and the citizens' committee appealed to the Division of Education of the Russell Sage Foundation to come and make an educational

lowering session. Lectures, moving pictures, and music were provided for afternoon and evening, and widely heralded. Large signs were posted on public buildings; advertisements placed in all the street cars; and circulars were handed to incoming commuters on every train. Local and New York papers gave extended space to notices of the exhibit. A gayly decorated automobile with posters and a brass band toured the town; and other automobiles, lent by public spirited citizens, undertook to bring in to the exhibit every teacher and school child from the outlying districts.

In response, people came and came again. Education became a live topic



PRIVY; BYRAM SCHOOL.

This is typical of the accommodations furnished pupils and teachers in 16 of the 21 Greenwich schools.

survey of the town. With the co-operation of the superintendent and his office force, a careful investigation was made of the whole situation, every class room was visited; every building studied; every figure verified. It was a popular educational campaign, conducted with scientific accuracy.

An exhibit without an audience is worthless. For that reason, one of the most interesting features of the Greenwich display was its skillful advertising. Invitations were sent to every parent and every tax payer. Leaflets were distributed each day among the school children, giving the program for the fol-

lowing session. The entire wall space of the auditorium was taken up with photographs and charts showing first, conditions as they are; and second, conditions as they ought to be, and as they already are in hundreds of poorer towns throughout the country.

It was a grim, unflattering record. It showed how most states have legal requirements fixing the minimum amount of air space in school rooms for each pupil. Twenty-nine Greenwich school rooms have less air space per pupil than the lowest legal minimum permitted by any state having a law covering the point. Yet air is free.

It pictured the Collingwood fire in Ohio, where four years ago 165 children were burned to death within sight and in many cases within touch of their parents. It told how the furnace which started that fire was located less dangerously than are the furnaces beneath some of the Greenwich schools. It stated the laws of Connecticut concerning the construction of school buildings—laws providing for fire-proof stairs and halls; for doors that swing outwards; for protection of woodwork about furnaces—and it gave pictures of Greenwich school houses where stairs and halls are not fire-proof, where doors do not swing

outward, where the woodwork about furnaces is unprotected.

The exhibit described the school privies with brutal frankness. It pictured them in photographs; it told about them in crisp sentences. It headed a screen of garbage and sewers and leaking out-houses with the caption:

Whom the Gods Wish to Destroy
They First Prejudice Against Investigation.

It called attention to the fact that
When schools are builded near a stagnant
spring

A little learning proves a dangerous thing.

It headed the fire screens with

Comparative Expenditures for Schools Last Year
in Montclair, N. J. and Greenwich

FOR EVERY DOLLAR THAT

	Montclair Spent	Greenwich Spent
Salaries	● \$1	◐ 52 cents
Repairs	● \$1	● ● 2 dollars
Fuel	● \$1	◐ 63 cents
Supplies	● \$1	◐ 49 cents
Furniture	● \$1	◐ 76 cents
Insurance	● \$1	● ● ● ● ● ● ● ● 22 dollars
Night Schools	● \$1	Nothing
School Gardens	● \$1	Nothing
Summer Schools	● \$1	Nothing
Open Air Schools	● \$1	Nothing
Manual Training	● \$1	Nothing
Buildings	● \$1	◐ 16 cents
Other Expenses	● \$1	◐ 77 cents



STAIRWAY; BYRAM SCHOOL.

"Narrow and steep stairway, badly congested by outer garments, wet and unsavory, hanging on either side. The rising air passing up the stairway was sickening." (Joint Report of Special and School Committees.)

The Nation's Children are the Nation's Greatest Asset.

It told about standing water in the cellars of Greenwich school houses; it described overcrowding, bad lighting, and partitions which only serve as sounding boards, and it remarked

Eyestrain, nerve strain,
noise, and worry,
Johnny Jones declines to
study,
'Twould hardly seem expedient
To call him disobedient.

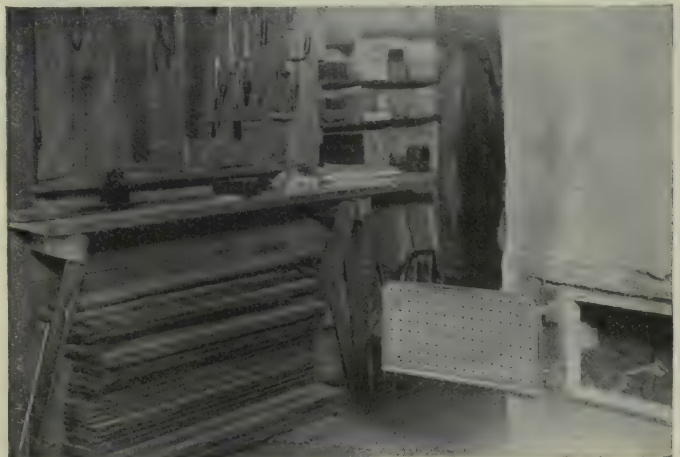
It produced a choice collection of shabby entrances, broken walls, battered water buckets, and old fashioned stoves in the center of class rooms, and asked

When a school is old
And its rooms are cold

And its ceilings badly wrecked,
Does it inculcate
In the childish pate
A feeling of self-respect?

Finally in long and impressive rows came the record of what other towns are doing in lines of educational activity as yet unheard of in Greenwich. There were open-air schools, industrial schools, vacation schools, school gardens, gymnasiums, and social centers; and beneath each picture was a diagram showing the comparative wealth of the other town and Greenwich. It was an instructive showing. The people did not enjoy it; but they paid attention.

It was evident that one of the chief defects of the Greenwich method of management has been the lack of any adequate plan for gathering and disbursing money. Everything has been run on a hit-or-miss basis. The town has not known exactly what has been spent or what needed to be spent; and even when comparatively accurate data were gathered—as, for example, the discovery that the school offering best accommodations was annually costing \$38.94 per child, while the school offering poorest accommodations was costing \$116.21 per child—nothing was done with the information. The town was founded in 1640, has erected one school at a cost of \$100,000; and carries a school debt of over \$200,000. The children of the



FURNACE IN BYRAM SCHOOL.

Similar to the one that started the Collingwood fire; the proximity of walls and ceilings makes safety impossible.



RECITING UNDER DIFFICULTIES.

The over-crowding of the Glenville School forces the graduating class to meet in the hallway, which is used as a cloak-room, and store-room. Those standing in the rear sit on the stairs during recitations.

well-to-do citizens in Greenwich do not attend the public schools. There is a feeling that private schools are more respectable.

Clarence studies with a tutor,
Every day grows brighter, cuter.
Jimmy's school is badly lighted,
He is stupid, and near-sighted.
James was not so smart as Clarence,
Who selected richer parents.

is one school nurse whose services are donated by a local women's club. One teacher is giving elementary instruction in manual training, the materials for which are donated by a public minded woman of the town. Last summer the assembly hall of the largest school was refinished and decorated. That was a gift from the Havemeyer

fund. There are four kindergartens, and the work is partially supported by charity. The town has one playground which was donated. The town hall was donated. The library was donated. It has become the custom to depend on charity for needed improvements; and the idea of paying good money for what a little begging would secure free is distinctly distasteful. The people of Greenwich are accustomed to receive as a gift what self-respect should impel them to pay for.

There are but three institutions where



REAR VIEW OF MIANUS SCHOOL.

1. Stagnant trench, having no outlet, and receiving seepage from privy; 2. Privy; 3. Wooden fire escape.

I. Cellar of Glenville school. The white marks on the furnace and brick piers show where water stands sixteen inches deep every summer.

II. Paradise Alley. A reeding place for physical and moral disease that cannot be counteracted by medical inspection of schools or lessons in civics.

III. Privies and sewer emptying into the Byram river where the boys go wading.

attendance is compulsory —prisons, asylums, and schools. If the community requires its children to attend school, it owes it to those children to provide adequate accommodations; and such common essentials as proper seats, sufficient light and air, well heated buildings, pure drinking water, and sanitary toilets. As the exhibit stated, schools should not be places "where compulsory education spells compulsory disease."

The exhibit attracted attention. It cut deep. And to make it cut deeper, small booklets were prepared and sent to every tax payer and every parent. These booklets comprise twenty-eight pages of illustrations and description, touching upon the most impressive features of the exhibit. What the outcome will be remains to be seen; but according to latest report, Greenwich now intends to invest a quarter of a million dollars in a new school plant.



DESTITUTION AMONG SEAMEN

GEORGE McPHERSON HUNTER

SECRETARY AMERICAN SEAMEN'S FRIEND SOCIETY, NEW YORK

The waterfront in any large seaport is the section to which the idlers, wasters, unfits, misfits, adventurers, and butt-ends of humanity gravitate. It is the frontier of the city with all the rawness of the edges of civilization. On the waterfront every man is taken at his face value—no questions asked. It is the last stand of the casual laborer. The soiled clerk, the broken mechanic, the newly arrived immigrant, and the Micawbers of the city jostle the longshoreman in competition for a few hours' work.

In the cosmopolitan crowd of workers and idlers, it is not difficult to distinguish the real seamen. They have a bearing and a certain singularity which set them apart from all unsavory invaders of their realm. Sailors have a splendid reputation for bravery, endurance, and gallantry, but for prudence, economy, and thrift none. They have been represented as bleary-eyed Don Juans, hard drinkers, childlike to the verge of simplicity, capable of great things at sea, yet incapable of taking care of their little affairs on shore.

They have suffered much from misrepresentation. No other class of men has been so treated from the point of view of romance and poetry to the neglect of the prosaic side of their lives. Consequently, the subject of destitution among seamen is usually dismissed with the assertion that "sailors are an improvident, careless sort anyhow, and their periodical distress is to be expected."

The life of a seaman under the best conditions is abnormal. This accounts for much of the periodical destitution, and answers for the existence of seamen's aid societies, government hospitals and sanitarium, seamen's friend societies, and kindred associations to help sick and indigent sailors. Positive distress and want of bread to eat or a place to sleep are commonplace and grim facts in the shipping sections of the maritime cities. The problem is not an easy one to solve. At certain seasons of the year it taxes

the resources, as it harasses the hearts, of those grappling with it,—how to provide the applicants for relief with shelter, food, and clothing, and send them to their homes or to the hospitals.

Why is there so much distress among the men who follow the sea?¹ The causes may be grouped under four heads:

1. Economic causes: seamen are being constantly discharged (legally) from their ships; they are periodically unemployed; their work is casual and seasonal.
2. Desertion from ships: a combination of economic, social, and psychological causes.
3. Social and moral causes: shiftlessness, ignorance, drunkenness, and immorality.
4. The exigencies of the life: hazards of the sea, shipwreck, accident, exposure to heat and cold, and climatic diseases.

ECONOMIC CAUSES

A sailor below the rank of petty officer becomes an unemployed man at the end of his voyage. Thus periods of unemployment are incident to his calling.

All seafaring men, except those in the navy, fishermen, yachtsmen, and those engaged in harbor traffic and in some classes of coastwise trade, are released from duty at the end of the voyage, even if they are going on the next trip. They may go back in the ship again, if the captain, chief engineer and chief steward, the men directly responsible for their employment, want them, the voyage suits, the ship is sailing within a reasonable time, and they are ready to go to sea again. Robert Hunter says in his book on Poverty that "Every student of the unemployed emphasizes the fact that degeneracy, physical and moral, follows unemployment more often than it precedes it."

On some classes of ships employment is for the whole year, such as the British steam coasting vessels carrying cargo and passengers, the American coastwise trade, cargo and passenger ships, steamers, steam schooners, and schooners. This also holds true of harbor craft. But

¹The American Seamen's Friend Society relieved last year at its stations 11,500 men.

every vessel that is licensed and registered must be laid up at some period of the year for an overhaul, with an inspection of hull, engines, and boilers. When the ship is in the dry dock the crew is discharged and joins the ranks of unemployed seamen. There is scarcely such a thing as a seaman employed continuously for 365 days in the year. Taking the various classes of trade, if a seaman sails steadily in the same ship, behaves himself, is on hand when required and always in a fit condition to work, at the end of the year he would nevertheless have been unemployed in:

	Days
American coastwise trade (Atlantic) ..	62
Australian coastwise trade (passenger ships)	50
Transatlantic passenger business, New York to Europe (English and American)	62
Montreal to Liverpool traffic	62
South American, New York, and Brazil and River Plate (cargo and passenger ships)	35
London to Australia (mail ships)	42
London to South Africa (mail ships) ..	85
Tramp ships (generally)	40

Should a sailor, fireman, or ship's steward sail out of a port from which tramp freighters regularly sail, his work will naturally be on these ships. He will be subject to all the conditions that prevail on them: uncertainty of employment, longer voyages than a coastwise or regular liner, and the chance of being paid off at the end of the voyage in a strange port several hundred miles from home. Perhaps he may arrive at home when shipping is dull and the port full of men, likely events in winter. Several courses are open to him. He may get a ship sailing out of the port at once, or be compelled to stay ashore for several weeks, or perhaps he must pay his passage to some port where men are in demand, or use up all his wages before another opportunity arises to ship again. In nearly all American ports he would be compelled to resort to the crimps and pay a bonus before he got off to sea once more. There is no such thing as a national wage paid to seamen. The term commonly used is the "wage of the port." For example, wages of sailors and firemen sailing out of Boston

and New York under the American flag vary considerably. The average is about \$5 per month less out of Boston. Ships sailing out of New York under a foreign flag have varied the scale of wages from \$16 per month, paid to seamen on the Norwegian vessels, to \$25 per month, paid by English vessels. There are no regularly compiled statistics of wages paid to sailors. The following table shows average wages as nearly as they can be computed:

	WAGES PER MONTH	
	Sailors	Firemen
American coastwise trade (Atlantic)	\$30.00	\$40.00
Australian coastwise trade	45.00	60.00
Transatlantic passenger ships (English)	27.00	32.50
Transatlantic passenger ships (American)	30.00	35.00
Montreal to Liverpool cargo ships	30.00	35.50
Montreal to Liverpool passenger ships, South American, New York, Brazil cargo and passenger ships	27.50	32.50
London to Australia mail ships	22.00	25.00
London to South Africa ..	22.00	25.00
American Pacific coastwise trade ¹	40-55	50-60

Commercial depression ashore, when factories are closed and mechanics and laborers idle, always decreases the unemployed seaman's chance of work. A sea voyage offers to the artisan or laborer escape from idleness, the opportunity to see other countries and to widen his horizon. He seeks the docks in hope of employment. He may not think it but he is increasing the competition there, in some instances taking bread away from seamen. The unemployed seaman in America is moreover handicapped by the methods of engaging men through shipping masters, crimps, and boarding masters, who have sometimes a monopoly of certain lines of steamers. There is little chance of employment unless a man pass through their hands. The law in America gives a seaman the right to secure employment, without payment of fees, on board any vessel, American or foreign, sailing from any American port. But the

¹Pacific seamen work cargo in port and are paid overtime; consequently their wage scale is high.

crimp¹ and the boarding-master live by circumventing the law, and it is frequently cheaper in the long run to give a few dollars to these people. Trouble, carfare, and time are saved when someone tells you to bring your clothes at a specific hour to a given ship. A man may be an expert in doing his work but very inexperienced at getting it.

There is another factor contributing to this problem of unemployment. Seafaring is chief among seasonal employments. This is not due to economic causes nor to whims of popular demand. Nature locks up about one-half of the

China and Japan are annually sealed, and the German, British, Norwegian, and the few American vessels which frequent them must then seek freight elsewhere. It is easy to imagine the numbers of unemployed seamen when November comes; and the morally disintegrating effect on seafarers when so much of their peculiar territory is closed.

June 1 is Alaskan Day in San Francisco and Seattle, and there is then a general stampede of seamen bound for the Behring sea and northern Alaska. For a month previous sailors have been assembling in these two ports. Some of



The American coastwise men are well-found and their conditions of labor fair. The transatlantic men are in competition with the unemployed of the English cities for their jobs, in this period of readjustment in sea-craft; for it is only by courtesy that their labor can be called skilled. It is among them that the destitution of the waterfront is most pressing.

TRANSATLANTIC FIREMEN OUT OF WORK, WAITING THEIR TURN.

sailor's territory and forbids him to sail his ships and ply his trade for six months in the year. By no social adjustment, art, or science can this condition of his life be avoided. Lakes, seas, and rivers cannot be thawed out by human means. From November until the warm breezes of April begin to blow, frost reigns over the Great Lakes, the St. Lawrence and its adjacent harbors, the Baltic and Black seas. The northern ports of

¹The "crimp" is a marine employment agent. He may be employed by the ship owner or the seamen. He undertakes to provide a crew for a ship or employment for a sailor. The crimp takes the men from the boarding-masters when the house is full.

them have been engaged in lumbering and mining, hard worked, socially starved, with few or no holidays, away from wives and children. In the fall 5,000 of them return to San Francisco with from \$200 to \$500 for the season's work.

An increasing number save their earnings and invest them in homes and land. But to be suddenly idle, free from restraint and relieved of responsibility, with a large sum of money in the epicurean city of America is not a desirable thing for a sailor. It affords a test of character such as few landsmen understand and are rarely subjected to.

The Great Lakes fleet of America is larger than the merchant fleet of any foreign nation except Great Britain and Germany, and the entire fleet is tied up to the wharves from November to April. When the ships are moored, 40,000 seamen are paid off. A few of the men combine ranching and seafaring. Some of them find work in the cities, and a certain percentage take to the lumber and mining camps. The general exodus, however, is eastward to the Atlantic, or south to the gulf. The human gulf stream flows southward, in the opposite direction from its namesake in the Atlantic ocean, and is subject to as many vaga-

obliged to seek employment on other ships.¹

DESERTIONS

Seamen desert their ships for many reasons that cannot be called economic or moral. There are psychological, temperamental reasons, and also reasons that should lie on the conscience of the ship's cook. For sailors to desert voluntarily a well-found ship is a rare thing, but it is not uncommon for them to be compelled to leave one not decently cared for.

Desertion from American vessels is relatively small, and has ceased to be an important factor in destitution.² It is



FIVE NATIONALITIES OF AMERICAN COASTWISE SEAMEN IN GO-ASHORE CLOTHES.

ries. The stream sometimes gets lost circling in city eddies, goes through social swamps, and is drawn into narrow passes. Along with it floats much human debris from the land over which it has gone. Some good men in southern ports are engaged in the work of filtering and purifying the stream, and they can tell strange tales. Between the ship a man leaves on the lakes and the one he obtains on the Atlantic coast or at gulf ports many things may happen.

Navigation on the St. Lawrence opens about the last week in April and closes December 1. This affects in various degrees seven nations, and every year between 50,000 and 60,000 seamen are

not so with the ships of other nations. Seamen from Europe have been deserting their ships in American ports since the time when regular traffic between Europe and America began. The call of the West will find an answer in seamen's hearts as long as America continues to be a synonym for opportunity. German,³ British, and Scandinavian seamen, with health and ambition, desert to try their fortunes in a new country. These desertions in the United States result in the employment of American seamen for the return voyage of foreign ships, nominal-

¹Montreal Chamber of Commerce statistics.

²U. S. Shipping Commissioner.

³The Hamburg Seamen's Bureau reports 1,252 desertions in 1910 from German vessels in American ports.

ly at the standard American wage rate, but

actually under such conditions that the persons so employed are frequently discharged penniless in some distant port, where they are ordinarily unable to procure work and are without knowledge of the local language. Investigation commonly discloses the fact that such seamen are induced to go aboard foreign ships while intoxicated after having signed away the greater part of their nominal wages, with scant regard for the law forbidding the payment of wages in advance. The owners of vessels, on the other hand, pay dearly for this substitute labor, which their captains procure for them through labor brokers who seem to flourish in every American port, and who masquerade as the friends of labor, although they actually prey upon it, receiving directly and indirectly commissions very considerably in excess of the money eventually paid to the men who do the work.¹

So acute did the problem become in Southampton, England, where 300 distressed seamen were relieved by the United States consul, that the United States shipping commissioner sent out a warning to American sailors urging them not to ship in foreign vessels. Of the men shipped most of them were colored seamen who had been recruited in southern state ports to fill vacancies caused by the desertion of British sailors from British vessels. On their discharge, with a few dollars in their pockets, these men find that they are not wanted on English ships and that they are in a land of seamen where there are three men for each berth. The English Board of Trade in filling up crews on English vessels does not recognize American discharges, so many of these unemployed men in Southampton have walked from northern ports in hopes of being worked into some American bound vessel, and now find themselves stranded and "on the beach."

On French bounty ships it is to the interest of the captains to retain their crews, and on the Australian and Pacific Coasts, where desertion is common from the ships of other foreign nations, the crews seldom take "French leave" when in port. From the standpoint of economy, in many instances it suits the captain to have the crews desert, especially if there is a long period of laying up in a foreign port awaiting the ship. He is

saved expenses and can afford to pay "blood money" for a new crew. The crew pay the "blood money." Short voyages also are contributory causes in sending men ashore. If the crew have little pay coming to them and the ship is not comfortable, they walk ashore, and for once in their lives, are scriptural in the sense that they "take no thought for the morrow."

Should a crew be convinced that a ship is not seaworthy and that they cannot be paid off, or that the captain will not pay them off, they will assuredly desert, and no one can prevent them. The old superstition about rats leaving a doomed ship has not died out altogether, and should this happen, especially to a sailing vessel, neither ropes, threats, promises, nor bribes would hold the crew from deserting.

A long, stormy passage in a ship, with a wet, uncomfortable, badly lined fore-castle often sends a crew or a portion of it ashore at the first convenient stopping place without clothes, money, or prospects of other employment.

Temperament plays an important part in ship life. A fiery-tempered, impetuous man will not stand being growled or sworn at by some officer of like disposition. A poor meal, badly cooked, served in a "common kid," and eaten in a dirty fore-castle by men who are in a cantankerous mood, followed by the peremptory order, "All hands turn to there!" should the "turn to" mean painting the ship's sides in the tropics, or some other disagreeable job, may be the beginning of the end of the crew's service on that vessel.

Perhaps a man by some kink in his temperament may find himself at odds with all his shipmates. An overt act or word may have placed him under the ban. Pride may not allow him to put himself in a conciliatory attitude towards them. In the days of long voyages such incidents could right themselves, but on a short voyage the outlaw finds an easy solution of the difficulty by deserting.

Desertion is sometimes epidemic. With boys this is often the case. Some one ashore fires their imaginations with

¹Robert P. Skinner, consul-general, Hamburg, Germany.

tales of the bush, if the ship be in Australia, or of the wild West, if in North America. The word "desert" sounds romantic, and escape is made into what is expected to be a larger life with unlimited opportunities. Ship discipline is also a frequent cause of desertions. Strict disciplinarians are to be found on every ship, but wise disciplinarians are scarce. It is conceivable that the captain in a ship may be all that the law demands and the owners expect him to be—from these viewpoints, ideal, yet be a bad disciplinarian, and bad discipline may mean being too strict or too easy with the crew. For the officers are infected by the spirit of the captain. He makes the *tone* of the ship; a subtle, pervasive thing, more easily felt than described. It is conceivable, also, that the officers or engineers in charge of a watch may be efficient in their spheres of duty, trustworthy men on the bridge or in the engine-room, exemplary officials, useful and valuable to the owners, agreeable to their brother officers and engineers, but totally lacking in the power to maintain discipline without producing friction, rousing antagonism, and shedding discontent. The engineer in charge must be able to maintain discipline, as well as maintain the speed of the ship. Stokers work to the verge of prostration every watch. They are the hardest worked men afloat, and they are not recruited from the best society. Into them he must instill a certain enthusiasm and willingness to work. He has to do it, moreover, in the depressing darkness of the stokehole, without the stimulating effects of sunlight, fresh air, and all the uplifting forces that help his brother officer in charge of the watch on deck. Besides the engineer's knowledge of mechanics, steam, and electricity, he must know or learn how to deal with raw, undisciplined human nature. He must know when and how to be strict, and cultivate blindness to certain faults and minor breaches of discipline in his men; to be discreetly absent at certain times, and avoid an exasperating manner at crucial stages in the watch. For it is so easy for a fireman to walk ashore. His clothes are scanty and of a negligible and odorous character, and few questions are asked him when he seeks a ship.

Should his character be bad, and he be guilty of some grave breach of discipline, such as drunkenness on board, insolent behaviour, absence without leave, punishable offenses,¹ by the simple expedient of deserting and changing his name he can begin life over again with a clean record.

SOCIAL AND MORAL CAUSES

Sailortown has its shiftless men. They are variously designated, but the commonest and most comprehensive term is "beachcombers."² "Beachcombers" will go anywhere to get something for nothing, are clever and resourceful at inventing excuses, and shun the nightmare of steady work. It is the only fear they have. The "beachcomber" is not an habitual criminal; he "toils not, neither does he spin." At some crisis, and a sailor's life is full of crises, he was compelled to ask for charity. He got it easily and found it easy to ask again. He, to whom at first it was martyrdom to ask alms, soon never cared to be anything but a pauper. Shame went out of his mind; zest and keenness to be independent went also. The charity meant to relieve his distress became his undoing. The social machinery intended "to project his soul on its lone way" caught him, but did not kill him; it only held him at the low level of the mendicant.

Inability to read or write is rare among seamen in these days, although it was common enough twenty years ago. The exceptions are the sailors from Latin countries, many of whom are as superstitious as they are ignorant. Newfoundlanders are probably the finest seamen in the world, but as a class they are woefully ignorant, and not uncommonly cannot sign their names. Seafaring men born in northern Europe, Great Britain, the United States, Canada, and Australia are fairly well educated. Those drawn from Scandinavian countries, especially the Finns, Germans, and Norwegians, are often better educated than their confreres from Great Britain and Germany.

Sea life is an education in itself, and men with natural powers of observation

¹British Merchant Shipping Act, 1894. A fine of five shillings may be imposed for any of these offenses.

²The name was probably first used in the South Sea Islands.

and inquiring minds often acquire a high standard of intelligence through contact with men of other countries and the customs and manners of eastern nations. The information they acquire helps them little in the battle of life. So it remains true that ignorance is a fruitful source of poverty on the waterfront and in the homes of seamen. Their ill-health might sometimes be traced to ignorance of the rudimentary laws of hygiene. In the tropics, when his ship is ready to sail the sailor is paid off and left in the good care of the hospital sisters, but his wages have stopped and he is a long way from home. Convalescence may be a very slow process, time and his family may be eating up his savings, if he has any, and the man becomes dependent on charity. Ignorance of coinage and exchange rates in foreign countries not infrequently result in a considerable loss when men are paid off in foreign countries. Large discounts are charged for cashing small notes. To get money may be an art, but to spend it is a fine art, and the waterfront is not a good place in which to learn it.

Sailors are not a drunken class of men. It is equally futile to deny that drink is not a prolific cause of misery among them, and to affirm that it is the chief cause of their destitution. The habit is too common with them, and many indulge with an excessive and provoking persistency. But to lay indiscriminately on drink all the poverty and all the evils that overtake seamen in the course of their lives is too serious a charge. At once it impugns our intelligence, for the world's commerce could not be carried on by common drunkards. A sailor's drinking is spasmodic. Habitual tipping gives a temporary power of resistance to the stomach which makes the drinker able, in marine language, "to carry his cargo." After a period of compulsory abstinence at sea, where he cannot touch, taste, or handle alcohol except as cargo, he suddenly finds himself where he can get it easily and cheaply. First day in port is one of irregularity, bustle, and excitement; the sailor is eager now to get ashore and be released from the restraints of ship life. He is usually not

fortified with food and his first drink is his undoing.

A sailor and his money are easily parted. He can hold on to yard-arm or a life-line as a limpet holds to a rock, but his limpet power seems to leave him when he touches money. He will give his cash without question or security to anyone who asks for it provided it be asked for in a way that appeals to his heart, for he is swayed by feelings, not judgment. Crimps, boarding-house "runners," saloon-keepers, slopchest men, and all who have dealings with him know his chronic weakness regarding money. Seamen are as generous in giving as they are prodigal in spending. I have known a fireman to divide his money on pay day with an old shipmate whom he met ashore stranded.

"Who knows," he explained, "perhaps I'll be sick and on the beach sometime, and he'll help me. Going to sea is a funny thing; you never know when you'll be on the beach, and it brings good luck to help another fellow." It is such incidents that give rise to the term "drunken sailor."

The marine fireman, or stoker, is less sober than the sailor on deck, or the steward in the pantry. He works in darkness, illumined only by the lurid glare of the furnaces. There is nothing attractive about this toil; it requires little intelligence or skill, but only muscle and endurance. It taxes physical powers. The end of a watch sees his vitality at lowest ebb, and in hot weather he finishes his darg on the verge of prostration. Into his ill-nourished, depleted, dried system he puts fiery whiskey or poisonous beer with disastrous results. The type of seafaring man whose life is a round of hard work afloat and hard drinking ashore has most representatives among the firemen, although it is not confined to them.

The growth of ocean steamships to meet the increase in the numbers of people who travel for pleasure has added to the personnel of the stewards' department. The New York marine superintendent of one of the important passenger lines told the writer that passengers are responsible for much of the dissipation among the men who wait on them. Through mistaken kindness they offer

the men drink and thus habits of tipping are often acquired. The deplorable custom of tipping stewards and their contact with well-mannered, affluent passengers give them a certain ease and grace of manner, a taste for good living, and a sycophantish attitude towards others, which in the end creates a spirit best defined by the word "sporty."

The sailor on deck in these days of steam navigation is a more temperate man than his deepwater progenitors. He is heir to their glories, but the complete legacy of their vices he has not inherited. For fear of the charge of overrighteousness a certain number of sailormen are working hard to maintain the vanishing prestige of their class for drinking. Every department and every rank in the modern steamship has some representatives among this unfortunate class of seafarers.

Afloat they are examples to their shipmates of all they should be; ashore they are warnings and disgraces and all they should not be. Needless to say, they are always poor, in misery—bankrupt in prospects, though rich in resolutions. Such men get work as long as their physical powers are unaffected and dissipation engulfs them. In the evening of their days they do odd jobs, and end in the workhouse or some sailors' retreat. But all their lives they have been the hope and the despair of their friends.

It is not uncommon in foreign countries for temperate men to be overcome by liquor and lose their money, clothes, manhood, and ship in one night. In some ports of continental Europe gin is peddled around the docks and can be bought for a few cents on board a ship. The Danube ports in Russia have a fiery beverage called vodka which can be bought for a few cents. Twenty-five cents' worth of it may make a whole ship's crew drunk. In South America and the Mediterranean ports wines and native distilled liquors are cheap and plentiful, and a man does not need to go ashore for temptation.

Ordinarily it is not the custom when a ship is in port for the men to get an advance on their wages until Saturday night when they go ashore. Then like

moths they fly to the brightest light. The churches have, if any at all, a dim religious glow, but the saloons and dance halls blaze on every hand like fairyland. Runners for cafes, brothels, and other drinking places visit the ships regularly, and leave their business cards with as much assurance as the seamen's chaplain or the ship's butcher. They wait to act as pilots, and steer the poor fellows to their destruction. The aftermath of these visits are known to ships' officers; the port surgeons have their tale to tell; and the seamen's chaplain never betrays the secrets of the confessional when a man is in distress.

SICKNESS

Ill-health is the cause of one-fourth of the distress in large cities.¹ The ratio is probably much higher among the toilers of the sea, and a sailor's life is not a healthful one. Seamen sometimes live to a vigorous old age, in spite of their calling. They are exposed to high winds, drenching rains, piercing cold, blinding snow, tropical heat, injurious light, irregular sleep, and sudden climatic changes. Below deck in the recesses of the ship, twenty feet beneath the sunlight, stokers stand on iron plates in front of open furnaces, bend their backs to fill the coal shovel, and then swing the coal into the hot furnace mouth. The roll of the ship and the swing of the body throw an uneven strain upon the lower part of the torso which causes hernia. So common has this become among men in the fire-rooms of steamships that medical inspection is now compulsory, and so wearing is the life in the stokehole that firemen are prematurely old at thirty-five.

Ships' crews, when their vessels are anchored in creeks, rivers, and landlocked bays, are liable to contract insidious malarial fevers which render men helpless for days. Rheumatism from dampness affects them sooner or later. Cholera appears with malign regularity in some parts of Europe, the Straits Settlements, Java, Manchuria, Japan, the Persian Gulf, the Levant and the Black Sea. During the summer of 1911 the port surgeons of northern Europe and America were on special guard against it, and

¹Devine: *Misery and Its Causes*.

vessels from the Mediterranean are under scrutiny to prevent its spread.

Yellow fever, familiarly called by seamen "yellow jack," prevails in Brazilian ports, the islands of the West Indies, the Gold Coast and Sierra Leone. In brief, it ravages all the settlements of western Africa.

The plague, indigenous to eastern ports, is carried from continent to continent by merchant ships. It is pandemic, although Europe, except in a few imported cases, has been free. The disease is persistent in China, and cases have broken out in Japan. The importation has been by vessels.

Objectors to the employment of Asiatics on American and English vessels find good argument in the forecastles of merchant ships, for Lascar seamen appear to carry the plague with them in their clothes or person. When the men do not transmit the disease, rats on ships carrying this class of seamen seem to be under special suspicion, and hundreds of thousands of them are destroyed every year as a precaution.

Novelists of the sea tell with great gusto of the sailors killed by pirates and buccaneers, and sometimes by the "buckoo mate." All these amiable gentlemen of fortune never killed or maimed as many men as the forecastles of the ships that sail the seas. Sailors breathing pure air on deck are able to withstand the impure atmosphere of the fore-castle. The medical officer of the Port of London submits a table showing the minimum air space allowed for cattle in cowsheds, and for individuals in military barracks, workrooms, lodging-houses and seamen's quarters. Setting these side by side it is shown that cattle are best off in this respect and seamen worst. "When it can be proved that no reason exists for the diminished air space in which a sailor is compelled to live and sleep it would appear that some active steps might be taken to remedy an evil which is little short of a public scandal.¹

This zealous medical officer is engaged

¹Annual Report, Medical Officer Port of London.

in a crusade against the forecastles of British ships. Out of a selected number of 3,297 vessels which visited London last year, 2,843 required "cleansing," and the remaining number were classed as having "structural and other defects," thus coming under the general description of nuisances. Dr. Walford, the medical officer at Cardiff, found in 809 vessels visiting that port (476 British) forecastles which were "unpleasant as places of habitation." Dr. Hope, medical officer for Liverpool, reported that 88.2 per cent of the defects were due to "dirt and other conditions prejudicial to health."

On American vessels built or altered since 1898 a space is provided of not less than one hundred cubic feet and at least sixteen square feet measured on the deck or floor of the fore-castle for each seaman lodged therein.

Space is the valuable thing in a ship, and seamen suffer in American vessels proportionally as much as they do in foreign ships for lack of air. The reports of the surgeon general of the Marine Hospital service show continuously that seamen suffer in a startling manner from diseases, most of them springing from the inadequacy of pure air and healthful places in which to eat and sleep. On the larger vessels a room is set apart and designated as a hospital, but the largest vessels are engaged in the healthiest trades and touch frequently at ports of call. It is otherwise with cargo ships. A sick sailor must lie in the fore-castle, and a ship is no place for a sick man. Some one, he knows, is doing his work, a thing no true seaman can stand. The doctoring of a sick sailor at sea is necessarily crude and unhygienic, and the ministrations of a shipmate or a captain are apt to have more zeal and kind intent than gentleness and skill. Hospitals and port surgeons do noble service for the seamen of the world, but a service stopping short as the hospital door swings outward. The men go out into a strange city, without money or friends, more fit for a convalescent home than for duty on shipboard.

CAMP HALE

A SOCIAL EXPERIMENT

HARRY BLAKE TAPLIN

Pine-needles in place of city pavements, clear water instead of muddy streets, bird songs rather than roaring elevated trains are the contrasts between life in the open at Camp Hale in the mountain region of New Hampshire and the congested neighborhoods of the South End of Boston.

About ten years ago a few boys from Hale House, a social settlement founded

in its methods and results. The camp is, in effect, a social experiment.

The first experience clearly brought out two facts: that tents are not ideal and that more than two weeks in the country is needed to make a satisfactory impression on city boys. The first building was a simple style of open-air bunk-house, large enough to accommodate twelve persons. In a few years two more were



CAMP HALE.

"The front is open on the lake side, to catch the southwest breezes."

in Boston by Edward Everett Hale, were taken by a friend for a two weeks' vacation to Lake Asquam. A farmer, who loves boys, gave them ground on which to pitch their tents. The camp has developed along lines that are in many respects original, so that both educators and men of affairs, as well as social workers, have manifested a deep interest

added. These are long and narrow in design. The front is open on the lake side, to catch the southwest breezes, while the bunks are arranged in a long row of two tiers at right angles to the rear wall, and far enough apart so that the boy in the lower bunk cannot easily reach the boy above him with his feet. For each bunk there is a well ventilated

locker,—without a lock; for nothing is kept under lock and key at Camp Hale, where every boy is trusted. When later the camp became so large that the boys could not eat out of doors on a rainy day without great confusion, a combination open-air dining-room and kitchen was added. As another protection against the rain the original bunk-house was converted into a spacious play-room where, on wet days, the boys gather around the large fire-place to read such books as Kipling's *Jungle tales*, or to hear the thrilling story of Stevenson's *Treasure Island*.

While Camp Hale has always provid-

house and at the public schools are also considered, as well as home influences, future occupations and promise of leadership. In addition to those who are taken from Hale House, a place is made for a few boys from other institutions, such as neighboring settlements, the Social Service Department of the Massachusetts General Hospital and the juvenile court.

The camp is divided into squads of seven, with a leader in charge of each. The boys do all the work with the exception of cooking, and from the washing of the dishes to the sweeping of the floors there is a wholesome rivalry among



BUNKS IN TWO TIERS.

"Far enough apart so that the boy in the lower bunk cannot easily reach the boy above with his feet."

ed an opportunity for boys who can have only two weeks for a vacation, it has laid the emphasis on *keeping a certain number of school boys for the entire summer*. Except in rare instances boys are not taken for more than two summers. Twelve dollars from each helps to provide clothing and transportation. The actual cost of each boy to the camp is one dollar per day.

The boys are chosen with great care. Each is examined by a physician. It is not surprising to find that sixty per cent have enlarged glands which come from enlarged tonsils, adenoids and bad teeth. In making the final selection, physical needs are of prime importance, but the boys' records at the settlement

the squads as to which can do the best work in the shortest time. Many a house-wife would be surprised should she make the daily morning inspection with the assembled leaders, to find with what minute care each dish is washed, each table scrubbed and each bunk made. An army officer who visited camp was delighted with the order and cleanliness evident on all sides and said that it compared favorably with those military companies that place great emphasis on system and discipline.

Many will ask, "How is it possible to secure these results?" In the first place, the leaders are college men who have been selected because of their ability in dealing with boys. In the second place,

considerable responsibility is put upon the sergeant of each squad to see that perfect work is done. In the third place, there is a real camp spirit which each boy feels, a spirit which leads to active, valuable service. The unwritten rules which govern the camp are simply those of common-sense, while the semi-military form of organization reduces the necessity for discipline. It does one good to see these Irish, Italian and Jewish boys show their strong devotion to "the land of the free" by standing with uncovered heads in silent ranks before the daily raising and lowering of the American flag. The value of this leadership, this

ing the rivalry keen on each occasion and prolonging the final outcome until the end of the summer when the total number of points won by each squad is announced. There is no lack of spontaneous games, for free play is always encouraged.

Every week during the summer, groups start for the nearby White Mountains. Each boy carries his own blanket, poncho and food in a Swiss pack, which weighs anywhere from ten to twenty pounds, according to the strength of the boy. After a march of twenty miles over lumber roads and mountain trails the trampers halt for the night. A hearty



IN "THE LAND OF THE FREE."

With uncovered heads Irish, Italian, and Jewish boys stand in silent ranks at the daily raising and lowering of the American flag.

demand for painstaking performance of work, this insistence upon a well ordered life, this deep reverence for the best things in American institutions, cannot easily be overestimated in the transforming of these boys into future American citizens.

But work is not the whole of life at Camp Hale nor does it furnish the entire training. Swimming and diving carnivals, crew races, base-ball games, track meets and many kinds of out-door sports are conducted systematically, and care is taken that every boy shall enter just as many of these events as possible. Furthermore, the glory is not reserved for the individual star athlete, but the competitions are conducted by squads, mak-

supper is cooked over an open fire and then the boys are rolled up in their blankets. Carrying their own food they camp where they choose, whether in mountain shelter or under the shining stars. The experiences of each tramp make lasting impressions and the boys return feeling that they have accomplished something of which they may be justly proud.

Only those who have real ability are permitted to go on the long tramps. Toward the close of the season eight or ten boys, who have won the distinction of being the best trampers in camp, are chosen for the Mount Washington tramp, which takes them over the principal peaks of the Sandwich, Carter and

Presidential Ranges. Naturally competition is very keen and the ones selected are the envy of the camp. After they have tramped through Carter Notch, struggled up King's Ravine, over huge boulders and through cavernous passages, they at last scale the highest peak of all, Mount Washington. When they return to Camp, strong, hard and happy after a tramp of almost 200 miles, they are greeted as heroes by the boys who remain behind.

While following the leaders over long trails or climbing steep slides, the dangers are so evident that the boys soon learn the value of quick response to orders, and no one is more severe toward an offender than the other boys. Entirely dependent upon their own resources and forced by sheer necessity to give careful attention to every detail in their equipment and food supplies, the boys readily catch the spirit of strict accountability. If the food is forgotten, no more can be secured; if the canteens are lost, all must go thirsty. In other words, the carelessness of one member brings discomfort to the entire group. The boys must learn not only how to build a fire and how to cook over it even in the rain, but, what is more important, they must never fail to quench the last spark when they leave.

These tramps over the mountains do more to develop true manliness, self-reliance, courage and obedience, than any other feature of the out-door life at Camp Hale. They teach team work, thought for others, and the real interdependence of every group. The boys are also benefited physically. They seldom lose more than a pound while tramping and sometimes even gain. Immediately upon their return to camp they show a marked increase in weight.

The moment the boys arrive in Camp at the beginning of the summer their physical measurements are taken by their leaders, and are recorded on the regular Y. M. C. A. charts prepared by Dr. A. E. Garland. After the individual charts are made out they are compared with the records which were prepared by the examining physician in Boston. Every leader is then able to tell along what lines each boy in his squad needs special attention. In addition to the

regular setting-up drill in the morning, suitable exercises are arranged for such boys as have any physical disabilities. During one summer a bad curvature of the spine has been straightened and in two summers a weak heart has been entirely strengthened. No case of tuberculosis has ever been allowed to enter. Camp Hale is not in any sense a hospital nor even a summer sanatorium. On the contrary, it is a place for the boy of average strength, and only a small per cent fall below that average. One Jewish newsboy who came to Camp so lame that he walked with a decided limp and to whom the doctors gave little encouragement soon developed into a good swimmer, then became strong enough to enter the games, and finally was able to tramp thirty-five miles over the hills carrying his own pack. When he returned after that victory his pride knew no bounds.




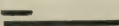
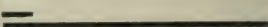
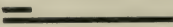
At the end of the summer, just before the boys return to Boston, they are measured and weighed again. The gains in almost every case are above the average. This is shown by a compilation made from the measurements of ninety-two boys who had spent ten weeks at Camp Hale.

COMPARATIVE GAINS OF 92 BOYS

FOR PERIOD OF 10 WEEKS AT CAMP HALE

*Standard obtained from thousands of measurements [Dr. E. A. Garland's system]. Shows what the average boy gains in the city.

†Camp Hale, obtained from careful measurements of 92 boys [Dr. A. E. Garland's system]. Shows what the average boy gains at Camp Hale.

	*Standard	†Camp Hale	RELATIVE GAINS
Weight (Pounds)	1.3	6.3	
Height (inches)	.3	.6	
Chest Expanded	.1	1.1	
Lung Capacity	3.	13.	
Upper Arm Up	.1	1.5	
Thigh	.1	.7	

It will be noticed that the Camp Hale boy shows a marked gain in chest expansion. This development comes, not alone from living in the open, but also from the regulated activities of the Camp. The boys go back to Boston with strong lungs, prepared to cope with the congestion of the tenements. The gain in the arm is due to swimming and out-door games, but more especially to crew work. The thighs are developed by tramping over the mountains and by many sports. The gains in height and weight are of special interest because the diet is scientifically planned.

The remainder of the diet is sufficiently varied. The menu, which runs for two weeks, was originally prepared in conjunction with the late Mrs. Ellen Richards of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology with a special view to securing the proper food values and a balanced diet. That it has agreed with the boys and that they like it and thrive on it there can be no doubt. The average meal per boy costs twelve cents.

Boys from the city, accustomed from their earliest days to the din and confusion of the streets, need to know the quiet and charm of the country. A



ALL-SUMMER BOYS READY FOR MOUNTAIN CLIMBING.

No meat is eaten at Camp Hale. The most important reason is that the majority of the boys are Jewish and can eat only such meat as is sanctioned by their religion. Moreover meat is expensive to purchase, not easily obtained in the country district, and difficult to keep without a refrigerator. There is no desire to establish a strictly vegetarian diet as such, for meat is eliminated from necessity. Milk in large quantities, plenty of fresh eggs, and a variety of bread stuffs, make up for this lack of meat. Cocoa is served twice daily in place of tea and coffee. Hot biscuits, cakes, and pastries are also ruled out.

newsboy who for months has been calling out through the roar of the traffic the latest sensation has developed a loud, harsh voice which only the peace of the hills can subdue. It takes several weeks at Camp Hale to persuade the average boy that when he talks he is not competing against the noise of the elevated trains. Moreover, when he reaches camp he knows little or nothing about the trees, the birds and the animal life around him. A new world has been opened to him. His natural curiosity is aroused. He soon learns the difference between a porcupine and a woodchuck, and no longer asks, as one boy

did, "if the trees are put away for the winter." He comes to realize how fundamental agriculture is to the life of all men and how dependent the people of his city are upon the products of the farm. This gives him a new and deep respect for the farmer whom, heretofore, he has known largely through books and has seen only as caricatured on the cheap vaudeville stage.

An organization is known by the spirit which it produces and by the character of its rewards. This is especially noticeable in those schools and colleges where athletics occupy an important place. It might be expected that at Camp

even under trying conditions,—these are the most important points in deciding to what degree the summer has benefited each boy. But at the same time, these are in themselves so subtle that seldom does any boy deliberately set out at the beginning of the summer to win a cup. The less he thinks of the cup and the more he devotes himself to "playing the game hard" all the time, the more likely he is to be surprised at the end of the season by receiving a reward. Perhaps, however, the greatest value comes to each boy from the intimate relation which he has with the leaders, who hold out to him high ideals of life. The in-



A CORNER OF LAKE ASQUAM.

"The gain in the arm is due to swimming and out-door games, but more especially to crew work."

Hale some prize would be given to the boy who could swim the fastest, tramp the farthest, or row the hardest. Such is not the case. The athletic boy is already honored by his fellows for whatever prowess he may possess. What Camp Hale offers is distinctly a reward of merit. For each squad of seven boys two cups are awarded at the end of the season; one is given to the boy who displays the best camp spirit, and the other to the boy who shows the greatest improvement during the summer. Definite development in manliness, noticeable increase in ability to work with others, constant willingness to do one's best,

instincts of a gentleman are fostered in him and he is urged to establish for himself right standards of conduct. His vision is broadened so that he views life from a wider angle and his sensibilities are quickened so that he more easily distinguishes life's finer values.

Are these results lasting? That is a fair question. Time tests all things. The true test comes later when the boys have grown up. With few exceptions these boys are making good, and not infrequently they say, of their own accord, that they owe a large part of their success to Camp Hale. They are strong, healthy and well equipped to make their

own way. Their application to work encourages both parents and employers, while their wholesome attitude toward life is a valuable asset in their relations with other people. Many of the boys are obtaining a high school education in

spite of home difficulties, while several are working their way through college. Moreover, their influence for good is evident in their own neighborhoods and the force of their example is felt in many directions.

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

XI

CITY AND CHURCH REAPPROACHING EACH OTHER

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The city and the church have not always been friends, but they have never been strangers. The church was born in the city. It was christened with the very name of "town-meeting." Its membership was so identified with citizenship that those beyond the church's pale were called "pagans," the Latin term for countrymen. Its organization conformed more to the type of the cities out of whose soil it grew than to that of either temple or synagogue. Next to the terms of family relationship, those of political and civic significance were used by its founders to describe how its members were related to each other, and the function it was founded to fulfil. It was a "commonwealth," a "kingdom," a "holy city," the "city of God," the "new Jerusalem."

This identification of the church with the city is the most astonishing vision of the seers of scripture. It must have seemed a wilder flight of the imagination to the contemporaries of the prophets and the apostles than it does to us. Yet notwithstanding Jerusalem which stoned the prophets, Corinth which corrupted the church, Athens which ignored Paul, and Rome which persecuted the saints, the last of the apostles so identified the city with the church, in the final glimpse he caught of the triumph of the Christian faith, that he even lost sight of the temple when he saw "the city."

Aggressions upon each other's rights and functions have often made church and city enemies. And when one was not dominated by the other, they maintained an armed truce. Nevertheless, even when fleeing from that domination,

our Pilgrim forefathers brought city and church to a pact of peace, which has never yet been broken, either by law or war, in the new world. At the center of every one of their New England towns they planted their "center" church and the "town-meeting,"—those units of the most absolute spiritual and political democracy the world has ever seen. The church was the religious fellowship of the citizens. The "town-meeting" was the civic fellowship of the church members. Ships were not more necessary to bring the discoverers and colonists to the new world than were these "centers" for political and spiritual fellowship and action essential to hold them together. So interdependent were they that they grew up together like the intertwining vines, representing the three pioneer churches or the three towns they established in Connecticut, on the great seal of that state. Whether the churches twine around the towns or the towns around the churches, is left to each citizen to imagine, now one way and then perhaps the other, as changing circumstances or moods incline.

But even in New England, town and church soon began to lose the bond between their two interdependent sources of the people's liberty and power. Always afraid even to approach the blunder of the organic unity between the church and state, from which their fathers had fled in terror, the people soon began to separate them in fact as in form. As the population scattered and grew diversified, the colonists could no longer unite at any single spiritual center. Party spirit also broke up the unity of

the "town meeting." And so church and town, though never hostile, became so distinct and separate with the years as to be far less helpful to each other than they need to be, if they fulfil their highest function in the people's life. Never and nowhere, as in America, have the church and the town had less to do with each other. Their organic separation grew into a sense of detachment, if not into a decree of divorce, almost equally demoralizing to each.

Meanwhile the urban age was dawning. The municipalized man was taking the field of action. The city-state once more became ascendant.

De Tocqueville registered a way-mark by which we may measure how rapidly and radically the change in our population has taken place. Writing in 1830 when New York numbered only 202,000 citizens, our friendly critic prophesied:

I look upon the size of certain American cities, and especially upon the nature of their population as a real danger which threatens the future security of the democratic republic of the new world. And I venture to predict that they will perish from this circumstance unless the government succeeds in creating an armed force which, while it remains under the control of the majority of the nation, will be independent of the town population and able to repress its excess.

But the reason for this reassurance sounds more strangely than his dark prophecy. For, he asserts:

The country is in no wise alarmed by them, because the population of the cities has hitherto exercised neither power nor influence over the rural districts.

Yet now, in less than one hundred years since that fact could be recorded, the urban type of life, the city standards of living and conditions of labor are superseding rural customs, manners and methods and transforming the countryside into a vast suburb whose populations share every year more and more of the facilities and advantages, not to say the perils, of city life. "The twentieth century opens with two distinguishing features," Frederick C. Howe affirms, "the dominant city and a militant democracy." Closing his luminous volume on *The City the Hope of Democracy*, with this portentous

statement he opens it with the assertion, which has only just begun to startle us out of our security that "the distrust of the democracy has long dominated our municipal law and literature."

Two other facts, however, become more impressive with each current year: The fact that both city and church are learning that neither succeeds if the other fails, and the fact that they are moving toward each other. The city fails and failing, defeats the church, if it is without religious reverence and passion to serve the people. And the church fails to accomplish its full mission without the inspiration of working for civic ideals, and without the cooperation of the body politic.

That church and city are moving toward each other is equally obvious. This reborn civic spirit is not only raising political and administrative standards toward higher ideals of integrity and efficiency, but is also extending the function of the city, town, county and rural community further and further into the field once claimed and exclusively possessed by the church. This tendency of the body politic to assume and exercise prerogatives hitherto claimed and fulfilled solely by the church raises grave questions. What does it mean that the state is more and more, and the church is less and less the educator of the people, the administrator of alms to the poor, the protector of the orphan and the widow, the healer of the sick, the maker of peace, the dispenser of justice and the great frame-work within which we live and move and have our being? How does it come to pass that the state and not the church is the great builder? What does it mean that the greatest structures are no longer cathedrals and churches, but courts of justice, state capitols, city halls, marts of trade? The really great buildings which have weathered the centuries and stand as the great memorials to the past were built by the church. Why do the people more and more organize and operate their educational, charitable, reformatory and fraternal cooperation through the town, the city, the state and the nation, and not through the church only, as they used to?

Does this mean that the church is losing its function, that it is being superseded by the state and is passing away? Neither the story of our past, nor the demands of the present allow any such conclusion. History will never let us forget very long that the churches were once the only courts of justice, asylums, and hospitals which the people had. Their strong oak doors swung wide to receive those fleeing for life from the pursuer or the avenger, those who laid hold upon "the horns of the altar" as their only hope. The silent walls of the cathedral became a refuge for the oppressed. Eloquent with stories of tragedy and interposition, of the battle-clash without and strange serenity within, are the low-browed, age-worn, time-scarred portals through the ancient walls of what were half fortress and half sanctuary. Ancient baptistries still stand to give architectural emphasis to the central place given to the little child in the heart and the concern of religion ages before schools were dreamed of for the children of the people. The alms disbursed, more generously than wisely, with more charity than justice, at the doors of the synagogue and the church, far and away led all of the sentiment and action which evolved the modern shelter and provision for the poor, public or private. Labor exchanges, and other forms of cooperation between the strong and the weak, to promote equality of opportunity were first sheltered under cathedral arches and centered about parish households of faith. The very craft-guilds had religious origin, organization and mysteries. The care of the sick, invalid, orphans and aged was nobly assumed by religious communities long before it was recognized to be the responsibility of the body politic and the obligation of the taxpayer. The canon law of the church was an established and elaborate system of legal procedure when and where there was no jurisprudence which could claim to be either common practice or a body of law. The towering walls and far-flung roofs of the medieval temples were built by the people and for the people. They were the people's place, the people's palace.

Do these facts not show that the

civic forms which religion now takes on are founded upon and have grown up out of the old faith of the synagogue and the old gospel of the church? Are they not evidences that religion was never more irrepressible than now; now that it cannot contain itself, or be contained, within church walls, within the limits of creeds, within the rituals of worship, within ecclesiastical control; now that it is out in the open, under the stars of all heavens, among the trees and the rocks of God's green earth; now that it has leavened the common life of the very race? Have not the churches been building better than they knew to have built so many of their ideals, their impulses, their methods of human service, their prophecies of the city of God into the facts and functions, the laws and policies, the better present and the brighter prospects of our towns and cities, our counties and states, our communities and nation, our international courts and our federations of peace?

Not only by the much that has been done, but by the more that is now demanded, both city and church lay claim to each other as never before. If politics are to be more and more a direct democracy, then patriotism must depend for its unselfishness and for its service of others upon the good will of the individual which it is the function of religion to beget, and of the church to nurture. Whence, if not from worship,—the worship of what is best for each and all—is the community to evolve its ideals of the individual and the collective life? How else than by the dependence of faith and the aspiration of prayer may the body of citizenship recognize the fact that power to realize civic ideals is spiritual and not material, is a force from within and above, and not resident in mere organization or laws? Upon what can the state depend to generate the power of the self-emptying, self-sacrificing life,—the only power for progress?

If religion is to realize its ideal and fulfil its function, not only in the life of the one but also in the relations and destiny of the many, not only in personal piety, but also in public policy, not only in saved souls, but also in the saved world, then the church by itself alone is not sufficient

to fulfil the function of religion and realize its ideal in human life. Indeed as human lives become more interdependent upon each other, and therefore more dependent upon the antecedents and surroundings, upon the conditions and laws, upon the frame-work of the organized community for which others are responsible, the church is less and less able to save even the individual life through its own organized agencies only and without the cooperation of the local community and the larger state in the work of human redemption. Much more must it have what only the whole community, with all its resources, and the full force of its highest laws and best administration can furnish in order to fulfil the social ideal and the social function of religion, to which it is committed by the prophecy of the seers and the "great commission" of the church. The state is not more committed to the humanizing of religion than the church to the spiritualizing and sanctifying of the state.

Only by the religious passion in politics and the passion of patriotism in religion can the mighty task of readjusting the church and the state to each other be undertaken or fulfilled. They must be aligned first in the individual lives of those who are citizens because they are churchmen and churchmen because they are citizens; those whose religion insists upon expressing itself in the political and civic terms of real life; those to whom the church is an institution whose highest mission is to build the community up out of itself, not itself out of the community; those who cannot and will not abide a community of Christians which is not a Christian community. And the words hold if we substitute Jewish for Christian.

In *The Stones of Venice* Ruskin thus deciphers for us what becomes of a community of such Christians and of so-called Christians in such a community:

The most curious phenomenon in all Venetian history is the vitality of religion in private life and its deadness in public policy.—The habit of assigning to religion a direct influence over all *his own* actions and all the affairs of *his own* daily life, is remarkable in every great Venetian during the times of the prosperity of the state; nor are instances

wanting in which the private feeling of the citizens reaches the sphere of their policy, and even becomes the guide of its course where the scales of expediency are doubtfully balanced. * * * * But the heart of Venice is shown only in her hastyest councils; her worldly spirit recovers the ascendancy whenever she has time to calculate the probabilities of advantage, or when they are sufficiently distinct to need no calculation; and the entire subjection of private piety to national policy is remarkable throughout the almost endless series of treacheries and tyrannies by which her empire was enlarged." * * * The evidence from the arts of Venice will be both frequent and irrefragable, that the decline of her political prosperity was exactly coincident with that of domestic and individual religion.

Such duplicity in morals and hypocrisy in religion are happily less and less self-deceptive. The time is not far distant when neither a church member nor a citizen will be thought "good" if his citizenship is not really as good as church membership certifies manhood and womanhood to be. The home which a family has, will be less a criterion of its character than the tenement house in which in the same town the families of the poor live. A citizen will not pass as law-abiding, unless he stands for equality for all before the law. Personal virtue will be measured by the effectiveness with which it promotes public virtue. The character of a town will be judged not only by the personal virtues of its people, but by their standards of its public life and social conditions for which they are responsible. The efficiency of the church will be tested by the extent to which social conditions and town government make it easier to be good and harder to be bad. The claim of being a community of Christians will not be conceded to those who do not constitute a Christian community.

[THIS IS THE ELEVENTH OF PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH IS RUNNING PERIODICALLY IN THE SURVEY. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I. LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II. THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16; III. PERSONALITY, A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE, JANUARY 6; IV. THE CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE, JANUARY 20; V. CHANGING CONDITIONS OF A WORKING FAITH, FEBRUARY 3; VI. THE RELIGION OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS, MARCH 2; VII. THE FAMILY: FIELD, FUNCTION AND TRIBUTARY AGENCIES, APRIL 6; VIII. SURVIVAL AND REVIVAL OF NEIGHBORSHIP, MAY 4; IX. INDUSTRY AND RELIGION: THEIR COMMON GROUND AND INTERDEPENDENCE, JUNE 1; X. ORGANIZED INDUSTRY AND ORGANIZED RELIGION, JULY 6; THE TITLE OF THE NEXT AND CONCLUDING ARTICLE WILL BE: CHURCH AND COMMUNITY, THEIR INTER-RELATION AND COMMON AIM.]

THE COMMON WELFARE

CHILDREN READMITTED TO LOUISIANA'S STAGE

Louisiana has readmitted her children below fourteen years of age to the glare of the footlights, and in so doing has accomplished what Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, calls the first backward step in child labor legislation in any state in eight years.

As in Massachusetts and Illinois, the National Alliance for the Protection of Stage Children opposed the National Child Labor Committee, the New Era Club (a progressive organization of women) and other bodies in trying to break down the regulations which had barred children of tender age from performing on the stage. A law passed in Louisiana four years ago prohibited the employment of children under fourteen in any industry, and provided for a fine of \$25 against any employer violating the statute. It is declared that this practically put an end to the appearance of children upon the stage in that state. At the present session of the legislature, therefore, an amendment said to have been drafted in the interests of theatrical managers and promoters was introduced, providing that children may be employed upon the stage in Louisiana regardless of age, on condition that a permit to this effect be granted by a judge. The judge may require from the employer a bond up to the amount of \$2,000, as a guarantee that the child is being properly educated and that its moral surroundings are all that they should be. The requiring of this bond is left to the judge's discretion.

By the passage of this amendment, Louisiana has practically annulled her child labor law, in so far as it relates to the employment of children upon the stage, although it is not expected that the efficacy of the law will be affected in its application to other occupations. The campaign before the legislature attracted considerable attention throughout the state. Francis Wilson, actor, and Ligon

Johnson, attorney for the National Alliance for the Protection of Stage Children, were in Baton Rouge for a number of weeks fighting for the amendment. In a newspaper interview after the passage of the amendment, Mr. Wilson is quoted as having said:

Louisiana has put herself in line with other states in the Union and set her face against the emasculated drama. She has said that the profession of Shakespeare, Moliere, Goldoni, the Keans, the Kembles, the Booths, the Forrests and the Jeffe sons is an art and not a trade.

In an interview published in the *New Orleans Item*, Solomon Wolff, chairman of the Louisiana Branch of the National Child Labor Committee, pointed out that section one of the amendment makes it a misdemeanor, punishable by both fine and imprisonment, to employ a child in any of the work described in four subdivisions of the section. Sub-division 2 reads: "In singing, dancing or playing upon a musical instrument, or in a theatrical exhibition, or in any wandering occupation." Mr. Wolff comments as follows:

It is provided that permits may be given by certain judges to allow a child to act in any of the capacities mentioned in sub-division 2; but no such permit may be deemed to authorize any violation of the first, third or fourth sub-divisions enumerated above.

The inference is clear, therefore, that the permit will be one to violate sub-division 2. In other words, a judge in Louisiana is given authority to grant parties a permit under certain conditions, to violate a criminal statute, to commit a misdemeanor.

After pointing out that the judge is not bound to exact a bond, and that he may make the bond any sum he sees fit, Mr. Wolff declares:

In Louisiana and every state one cannot attach the most insignificant quantity of property without giving a bond. It is only when the interests of the theatrical trust are at stake that we come back to the patriarchal system and allow the judge to take a bond or not, and if he takes a bond, to take it for any trifling sum he will. Is the welfare of the child of less importance than the welfare of the debtor whose property is attached? It is very true that the judges of the state

may in most cases be relied on to do right, but the civilized world has long since concluded that the written is better than the patriarchal system of law.

Assuming, however, that the judge will in every instance order an adequate bond and that he will so condition it as to secure the proper tuition and suitable moral and physical health for the child while it is employed, Mr. Wolff asks who is to watch whether the tuition and moral and physical welfare of the child are protected, and if they are not, who is to bring the offender to justice? He remarks:

Whose duty is it made to do this? If the answer be, it is the duty of the police, the sheriff, the district attorney, then it means that these officers must be furnished with facilities to visit the performances, to go behind the scenes, to visit the boarding houses, to accompany the children on their journeyings with the troupes, etc. Emphatically, the law is a mockery and a delusion.

Suppose, however, that an offender is brought to justice. How will the judge decide whether the child has had the proper tuition, and whether its moral and physical health has been concerned? What standard will he establish as to what is proper tuition? Will he adopt that obtaining among one class of people or another? What right has any man to say what tuition is proper? The station in society, the ability of the child all are factors. What becomes of the certainty of the law, of its uniformity to all? There is no standard.

And talk about the moral and physical health of the child. One judge will condemn "Salvation Nell" and the ballet while another will hold that barefoot dancing in even the most scanty and diaphanous apparel is not immoral. Shall the judge be censor of plays and morals?

A NEW WEAPON AGAINST VICE

It looks as if the fight against vice may as well be recognized by those who profit by it as "a war without discharge." Every advantage is being followed up by an occupancy of still stronger ground. Thus, in Illinois, the success of a writ of injunction against a liquor saloon as a nuisance, in the case of Hoyt *vs.* McLaughlin, (Illinois Reports, 250, page 442) established a precedent for legal action against houses of ill fame. In accordance therewith, a remarkable bill of complaint has been filed in the Circuit Court of Cook County at Chicago which

is likely to prove to be a still more noteworthy precedent. It is that of Otis *vs.* Bireley, the owner of a house for this illegal purpose, and Cora Abbott, the lessee and manager of the disorderly resort maintained therein. The bill of complaint, supported by seven formidable affidavits, defines the damage which this nuisance is to the adjoining property of the complainant and his tenants, as due to the following facts: the indecent scenes and sounds within and without this resort; the diseased condition of the inmates and of the patrons; the danger of infection which others fear and are warranted in fearing by medical authorities cited; the orders of the chief of police to commanding officers regulating and thereby officially recognizing and tolerating such illegal practices—orders which not only fail to be enforced, but also contravene the laws of the state explicitly prohibiting such practices.

The damage and injury suffered by the complainant is complained of not merely as a public nuisance, but as "a private nuisance," inflicting "a special damage and injury different from that suffered by the public." On the ground that "the complainant's remedy at law is wholly inadequate and the damages that could be recovered in such action at law nominal, said damages being so commingled with causes of damage and injury produced by other similar houses of ill fame in the immediate neighborhood, "this bill of complaint calls for an order of the court, both temporary and permanent, "restraining and enjoining the further keeping and maintaining of said house of ill fame, and decreeing it to be illegal and its keeping and maintenance a private nuisance to the complainant." Some of the highest legal authorities in the state declare the point to be well taken and sure to be sustained. No answer to this bill has yet been made by the defendants, whose attorneys, however, applied for a change of venue on the ground that no judge of the Circuit Court of Cook County is regarded by them as qualified to hear the case without prejudice to the defendants. This application was immediately denied by Judge Scanlan.

The property owner who was thus associated with the keeper of the resort as a defendant in the case, evidently "got wind" of impending danger, for a recent transference of the property is recorded, which is suspected of being more nominal than real. As the owner resides in a small city of an adjoining state, this suit will be taken, both by him and by all other owners of property thus illegally used, as serving notice of the publicity and disgrace sure to follow continuance in such complicity with crime. Transferences of titles to real estate throughout the "segregated district" and in other localities where vice is under police protection, are likely to appear with alacrity on the records of the county. In the opinions of those who have followed the Chicago vice movement there seems to be no reason why action against the chief of police for malfeasance in office may not be instituted. In this event, owners of property are more likely to accept less rental for legitimate purposes than to transfer their titles. Segregation, they hold, may thus be destroyed by evacuation; vice will then take its proper place, with all other crimes, on the run with the law in pursuit.

BREATHING GAS IN BIRMINGHAM

The doom of the old bee-hive coke ovens is a matter of time. The type, superseded by the by-product plant, is being abandoned by the larger coal, iron, steel and coke companies in the United States, as fast as the progressive spirit, supplemented by cash and credit, can invest in the by-product style.

In Birmingham, Alabama, some batteries of bee-hive ovens, which twenty years ago were on the outskirts, are now in the heart of the town. The plant of the Sloss-Sheffield Steel and Iron Company, for instance, is located on First avenue and 32nd street, directly adjoining the old furnace stacks. These have been in blast since the early eighteen-eighties, when they stood in a barren stretch of railroad tracks and slag-strewn prairie.

First a dozen or so stacks were set up; now there are a hundred and more within three blocks of the plant. The bat-

teries of coke ovens charge the air, not only about them, but for eight or ten blocks around. In winter the sticky fogs join forces with the smoke and poisonous gas and creep above the city. In summer hundreds of men, women and children on the way to work from East Lake, Woodlawn and Avondale, ride on the electric cars through the heat and dust and smoke of the furnaces and ovens—the odor is that of rotten eggs—and take in long draughts of dust, cinders, smoke, hydrogen, marsh gas, carbon monoxide and all the rest. Tuberculosis is prevalent among the Negroes living under the smoke of the ovens. "Many definite cases of individuals in the neighborhood overcome—being gassed, as they express it—exist," said George Huddleston, a young attorney of Birmingham, who is waging a campaign against the continuation of this nuisance in the thickly populated sections of the Birmingham district. The fight is just about on.

A smoke ordinance passed some months ago by the city commission was laid to rest. Mr. Huddleston is setting out to awaken it.

EDITORIAL GRIST

WORKING TOGETHER IN ST. LOUIS

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

The last year may have marked the beginning of a decade of remarkable developments in the social field in St. Louis. It has sometimes been charged against St. Louis that she is the last of the great metropolitan cities to wake up to a full sense of social responsibility. All of the various social movements of today have found homes there, but until within the last few years there has been no steady progress in all directions.

We will not speak here of the changes occurring in individual social agencies, which reflect the new spirit that is coming in. That spirit is perhaps most remarkably reflected by the ambitious schemes for community co-operation now being worked out.

The last season has witnessed the organization of a Central Council of Social Agencies, similar to those which have been organized in a few other cities. The idea involved in a federation of social agencies to work out a common social program is gradually spreading. But St. Louis is the first of the metropolitan cities actually to undertake anything of this sort. In doing so she has evinced daring which has not been shown by her sisters of the same rank. The St. Louis Central Council of Social Agencies is just getting under way. It cannot yet point to achievement. Nevertheless its very existence in the great Mississippi river city is an impressive revelation of the growing spirit of the times.

But this is not all of St. Louis' scheme. The group who have been interested in the civic and social matters have planned for a Conference of Federations. This means that an attempt is being made still further to focalize effort by creating a body composed of committees from the following federations:

Central Trades and Labor Union; School Patrons' Alliance; Central Council of Social Agencies; Central Council of Civic Organizations; Federation of Catholic Societies; Central Jewish Council; Federation of Churches; Council of Women's Organizations; Council of Business Organizations.

The last two, though not yet in existence, will soon come into being.

It requires little thought to see that in many matters of social and civic import the paths of these different federations must cross each other. It is easy to see how desirable it would be to have some central body representing these different federations which could work out mutually agreed programs in all matters where the activities of one group touch one or more of the others. Behind this, of course, lies the impressive possibility of reaching a common understanding in many matters of public interest. If the presence of a Conference of Federations meant nothing more than the filtration of the aims and purposes of the different federations back through their sister federations, it would fulfil a function of vast public value.

But it can do more than this if the spirit is there. It can be an executive

body planning out how various campaigns in which two or more of the federations are agreed shall be carried on. Here is an illustration given in a circular explaining the purpose of the conference.

For instance, three of the councils may be interested in getting a better milk supply for the city, and the others indifferent. Each of the three councils have passed resolutions, but unless plans are devised as to how the campaign is to be conducted, there will be duplication, waste of effort and misunderstanding, as there was before. To do effective work, the executive committees of the three councils must get together and devise the exact plan under which the campaign will be conducted, pointing out just which executive agency will be responsible for the campaign, and just what assistance that executive agency will get through other bodies.

Another example, for instance, which is a little more complicated: Three of the councils might be in favor of a certain definite method of smoke abatement. Two might be actively opposed to it, and two indifferent, not having taken any action. The Conference of Federations, of course, does not express any stand independent of the councils, for they are the legislative bodies. The Conference of Federations would, however, offer an opportunity for the three councils which agree on the campaign, to get together and plan their campaign in favor of the method, and it would also offer an opportunity for the other two councils who were against the proposition to organize effectively for their campaign. The two councils who were indifferent to the proposition would, of course, take no part. If a proposition came up on which six of the councils were agreed and one opposed, of course, the one which was opposed would see to it that its campaign against it was conducted through its own executive committee.

Having been interested in helping in the organization of the St. Louis Council of Social Agencies, I cannot see how the activities of that federation will fail to be strengthened and stimulated by participation in this Conference of Federations. Doubtless some of the most important movements forward will be initiated in that particular federation. The conference will give it the opportunity to present them easily to such of the other federations as may naturally be expected to have an interest in any particular step forward.

As indicated above, the conference plan is just being worked out. Criticism may be directed at the possible complications involved in the activities of such a body, which after all can only be an advisory

one. Yet the advisory function may easily be one of the most important in connection with a city's social program. In the last analysis the whole plan will, of course, depend upon the spirit behind and the leadership. If there is strong, careful leadership which more and more induces an unselfish spirit of real willingness to work together, then no vision of the possibilities could be over-colored. Probably the development for several years will be slow. It is strange indeed how the spirit of working together is being reintroduced into the social field. While we have talked about social programs we have often been extreme individualists in working out our own plans. The writer believes from his acquaintanceship with social workers in St. Louis, that so far as their participation in the movement is concerned they are sincerely determined to work together with unselfishness and broad vision in their own central council, and to further the program of other federations so far as they are able to do so.

WHY THE KOSHER MEAT STRIKE?

PHILIP DAVIS

Director Civic Service House, Boston

The account of the kosher strike in Boston should really be a picture story. The scenes of riots, arrests, court proceedings, protest meetings and demonstrations which characterized the kosher meat strikes not only in Boston but also in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cleveland, St. Louis and Chicago could be reproduced by the camera better than with the pen.

The real concern, however, in the Boston strike, as well as in the others, is not with their incidents but rather with their causes and some of the proposed remedies. The primary causes are economic; the secondary, religious and—unconsciously—vegetarian.

In Boston as elsewhere the economic causes of the meat strike are but a phase of the underlying problem of the high cost of living. Meat being 50 per cent higher today than it was a decade ago, the housewife has one of two alternatives—to buy

half the amount of meat, or none at all. Inasmuch as half the amount will hardly go around, she has resolved to go without meat and asked all her sisters to do likewise. The result is the meat strike with all its incidents, its active house to house propaganda, and its three-cornered fight among the consumers, retailers and wholesalers.

In Boston, as in nearly every city, the retailers are a house divided against itself. One day they lean towards the consumers in the hope of weakening the meat trust; the next they enter into an alliance with the meat trust in the hope of weakening the consumers by starving them out.

Here is where religion, or rather religious politics, comes in. Both retailers and wholesalers of kosher meat well knew that the Jewish consumer will have no substitute meat, such as the Gentile market affords, though it may be cheaper and better. It is cheaper because the killing of kosher meat costs more an excuse for charging twice as much—and it is better because the kosher meat is restricted to the forequarters. The hindquarters, whence come our porterhouse and sirloin steaks, are "tre-feh" according to the Mosaic Law. The retailers and wholesalers, therefore, started their back fires everywhere by closing the butcher shops, refusing to sell even chickens—so essential to the Sabbath feast. Immediately, there was a run on fish and of course the price of fish went up. Mackerel, for instance, rose in price from twenty-five to forty cents. Next there was a run on eggs, but the kippered herring and the vegetables, which are now flooding the markets, saved the day and have enabled the Jewish housewives to hold out this long in Boston, as they made possible the victory in Philadelphia. Vegetarianism shall yet have its day in hot weather. Certain it is that meat strikes, like rent strikes, will break out just as surely as the cost of living periodically will break its own records.

What are the expedient remedies being urged in Boston's North End? Municipal meat markets are proposed as a means of doing away with the middle man whose existence adds at least five cents to the pound. Co-operative meat stores are be-

ing established here and there. Arbitration is resorted to wherever the housewives show their determination not to give in. In other words, whenever the women are serious, they are taken seriously. In this respect meat strikes are

like wage strikes, locally successful, but everywhere inevitable as long as the public refuses to recognize the general and permanent issues back of the passing local disturbance. After minimum wage boards, why not maximum price boards?

BOOKS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

SOCIAL REFORM AND THE CONSTITUTION

By FRANK J. GOODNOW, LL.D. The Macmillan Company. 365 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

If there is any other reader of THE SURVEY besides the contributing editor of the Book Department who has postponed making personal acquaintance with this book—in substance the Kennedy Lectures of the New York School of Philanthropy in 1911—for a year after it was published, we would advise him to put it down on his vacation list and read it without fail during his leisure weeks. Professor Goodnow has attempted to ascertain, by an examination of court decisions, “to what extent the constitution of the United States in its present form is a bar to the adoption of the most important social reform measures which have been made parts of the reform program of the most progressive peoples of the present day.” It is impossible, of course, to give a summary of a book like this in the space at our disposal. We may notice, however, the general conclusion that “the Supreme Court of the United States has on the whole been more liberal than the state courts in its attitude towards the measures of regulation or positive interposition by the states which have been deemed requisite to remedy the evils attendant upon modern industrial civilization”; that the “severe, persistent, and continuous criticism” to which the Supreme Court has been subjected is “one of the influences which have brought it about that the court has on the whole been reasonably responsive to public opinion”; and that it is on such criticism that we must rely “if we are to hope for that orderly and progressive development which we regard as characteristic of modern civilization.”

THE CHURCH AND SOCIETY

By R. FULTON CUTTING, LL.D. The Macmillan Company. 225 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.

The Kennedy Lectures for the current year have just come from the press,—a smaller volume than the preceding one, but on a subject of equally timely interest, which Mr. Cutting is peculiarly equipped to discuss, both by special interest and previous experience. The theme is “the co-operation of organized Christianity with the civil authority and the

influence of such co-operation upon civilization and the church.” The lectures were based on an extensive inquiry, carried on by correspondence and interviews, into the amount of such co-operation. While the inquiry showed a very limited amount it supplied a number of “luminous” illustrations of what the church might do; it demonstrated “the general readiness of public officials to welcome the church’s co-operation when intelligently proffered”; and it revealed “the immense power to educate public opinion that may be exercised by a Christianity which can subordinate polemics to participation in a general movement for social uplift.” While philosophical reflections and theoretical discussion are not lacking, the distinguishing characteristic of this contribution to the rapidly growing literature on the function of the church in modern society is its concreteness.

THE NEW DEMOCRACY

By WALTER E. WEYL, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company. 370 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.12.

This is still another book which none of us can afford not to read, and which therefore we shall not attempt to analyze or describe. Its brilliancy of thought and style, even the touch of “mordancy,” as Galsworthy no doubt would call it, makes it an intellectual treat and stimulus, whether or not we can entirely agree with its statement of facts and its interpretation of them. Dr. Weyl would no doubt prefer that comment should fasten upon his theories and take his language for granted, but it is so rare an experience to find a thorough and intelligent discussion of social problems that is also real literature that we cannot refrain from expressing gratitude for the rich vocabulary, the vivid imagery, the considered phrases, which give evidence, among other things, that he has considered it worth while to take a great deal of pains to put his message before us, that his best was none too good. Here is an example: “Many of our poorer city wards are not slums at all in the European sense. They are not cess-pools of society, into which the hopeless human refuse inextricably sinks, but are rather trying-out stations, out of which are promoted rising immigrants, who have survived the trying experiences of the first years of Amer-

ican life. Nevertheless, we have slums, pauper slums and criminal slums, the heirlooms of our sweaty haste, our headless, soulless egotism, our fragile, apologetic, emasculated state."

SOME CHEMICAL PROBLEMS OF TO-DAY

By ROBERT KENNEDY DUNCAN. Harper and Brothers. 254 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

Professor Duncan might have called this collection of papers the Social Aspects of Chemistry. The opportunities "for applying scientific knowledge and the scientific method to the manufacturing needs of men make one frankly consider why trained and earnest men should devote laborious days to making diketotetrahydroquinazoline, or some equally academic substance, while on every side these men are needed for the accomplishment of real achievement in a world of manufacturing waste and ignorance." Current discussion about scientific management has had to do chiefly with economy of motions. The American manufacturer is also, as one might say, "chemically" inefficient—sometimes, Prof. Duncan says, to the extent of fifty per cent. In the past he has succeeded in spite of this, thanks to protective tariffs, combinations for eliminating competition, and vast stores of raw material; but at present he realizes that "even in the immediate future success or failure in many a manufacturing operation is going to depend upon the extent to which the manufacturer can eliminate waste and increase the value of his product." It is not the interest of the individual manufacturer, of course, which concerns us—or Professor Duncan—but the social welfare. This book gives us a glimpse of what chemistry has in its power to do to decrease the cost of living and to increase its content. A vista of unsuspected distances is opened by the enumeration of some of the unsolved problems in our daily loaf of bread and of a few of the questions which manufacturers are bringing to the laboratories. The revolution brought about in the camphor industry by the demonstration that the "camphor content" of the leaves of the tree is something like four times as great as that of its wood suggests possibilities of changes as significant in the production of other commodities. The forty industrial fellowships at the Universities of Kansas and of Pittsburgh are interesting experiments for promoting the solution of some of these problems.

CAPTAIN MARTHA MARY

By AVERY ABBOTT. The Century Company. 211 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

Martha Mary was not thirteen years old when her drunken father and mother, by their defection, tacitly left to her the responsibility for four younger children. Her sturdy resourcefulness, her philosophy, and her loving heart combine to make her a little personage one is glad to know. For her sake we follow with interest the fortunes of the little family until—through the aid of the judge of the

children's court, the superintendent of a detention home, a lost watch, and Martha Mary's initiative and sagacity—they are happily installed, all together, in a childless home, and rapidly becoming self-supporting by peddling ice-cream in the summer vacation.

IN BETHANY HOUSE

By MARY ELIZABETH SMITH. Fleming H. Revell Company. 293 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.

A pleasant story of the work of a group of deaconesses in a settlement house, and of the life of their head-worker, with incidental reference to the love-affairs of her associates also. It deserves mention here not for its modest merits as a novel, but for the familiarity which it reveals with sound principles of social work—an unusual quality in fiction.

THE CITADEL: A ROMANCE OF UNREST

By SAMUEL MERWIN. The Century Company. 409 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.

The hero, a young congressman from Illinois, decides that the constitution of the United States is the fundamental obstacle to all efforts to improve social conditions, and that the thing to do is to "quit fussing with patchwork amendments and center on the one really vital thing—the fact that amendments are so hard to get." His program is simple: to make it easy to amend the constitution and "then begin to amend it," taking up "the problems in turn" and amending in turn as each problem appears to demand.

WHAT TOLSTOY TAUGHT

Edited by BOLTON HALL. B. W. Huebsch. 275 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.60.

After a brief introduction Mr. Hall uses Tolstoy's own words to set forth his teachings. The first part, On Life, is to be sure a paraphrase by Mr. Hall of Tolstoy's book by that title, but it is a paraphrase which received the author's sanction. The second part, On Action, consists entirely of citations from Tolstoy, with reference to volume and page for each quotation. The book is intended to "show plain people just what he does teach," to "comb" the ideas out of his "tangle of words," and Mr. Hall thinks it contains the substance of his message.

SOCIALISM AS IT IS

By WILLIAM ENGLISH WALLING. The Macmillan Company. 452 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.13.

This book should be welcomed by the student interested in socialism and confused by the different members of the Socialist Party. Instead of recapitulating the generalities in regard to the principles of socialism it deals with the practical things the reader wants to know about socialism as it is today. Beginning with what he is most apt to know—the social reform movement, with its apparently socialistic platform—Mr. Walling shows him why this movement leads not to Socialism, as the revolutionary socialist conceives it, but to a state socialism which, while giving some protection to labor, would keep it under strict

control and would make the position of capitalism more secure. From his analysis of this movement toward what has also been called state capitalism, Mr. Walling passes to the "reformist" or "laborist," parliamentary groups within the Socialist party itself in almost all countries, which have adopted, often indeed suggested, the reform programs of capitalism, and which, carried away by this work for immediate amelioration, have unconsciously but inevitably lost, in his opinion, their revolutionary purpose. Having cleared the ground of socialistic movements, he passes on to what he considers the true Socialism of the International, and discusses the elements which go to make up the revolutionary class-conscious Socialist movement, which equally through political and economic organization aims to "take governments out of the hands of the old aristocratic and plutocratic rulers and transform them into a new civilization." The strength of Mr. Walling's work is its wealth of contemporaneous illustrative material.

APPLIED SOCIALISM

By JOHN SPARGO. B. M. Huebsch. 333 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

On the analogy of Lester Ward's "Applied Sociology" Mr. Spargo uses the term Applied Socialism to mean "the concrete expression of Socialist principles and the realization of Socialist ideals in the polity of the State." Under this title he examines the bearing of the fundamental principles of Marxian Socialism, as he understands them, upon our existing institutions and customs, and endeavors to picture "the Socialist State" in positive terms.

SYNDICALISM AND LABOUR

By SIR ARTHUR CLAY. Second edition. E. P. Dutton and Company. 230 pp. \$2.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.33.

The necessity of a second edition of this book within a few weeks of its first publication bears testimony to the acute interest of the governing classes of England in the development of labor organization. It is written from the point of view of a Conservative, who considers the labor union itself in the light of an unnecessary evil, conceiving its chief function to be the making of collective bargains which are not kept by the workingmen, and who sees in the rise and spread of Syndicalism a grave menace to established order.

MILK AND THE PUBLIC HEALTH

By WILLIAM G. SAVAGE, B.Sc., M.D., D.P.H. The Macmillan Company. 459 pp. \$3.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.46.

An important scientific treatise on milk in its relation to the general health of the community, by the county medical officer of health of Somerset, England. A summary is given of the facts in regard to the bacterial contamination of milk and its connection with disease, as far as they are available. The methods and processes which may be used in making bacteriological examinations are de-

scribed in some detail for the benefit of the laboratory worker. About a third of the book is given to a consideration of the administrative side of the subject, beginning with a survey of the conditions under which milk is produced and sold in England today. Dr. Savage finds that the practical results of the efforts to improve the milk supply have been meager. "It is safe to say" that it "is nearly if not quite as infected with tubercle bacilli as it was ten or twenty years ago. Milk as supplied may be a little less dirty and bacteria laden than it was ten to twenty years ago, but the average improvement has been trifling. Epidemics of infectious disease spread by milk are still regularly and frequently recorded in the scientific press. On the chemical side preservatives have been for the most part eliminated, but milk adulteration and cream abstraction is still very much with us; it is merely changing its character, and instead of being coarse and crude is becoming scientific and a matter of *toning*." He thinks that the chief reliance for obtaining clean, pure milk must be the "education of the milk trade" by the refusal on the part of the consumer to drink dirty milk, expressed in power given to the local health authorities to provide him with pure milk. Artificial purification of what is now on the market by sterilization or pasteurization he considers at best only a temporizing measure, by no means a satisfactory solution.

FOOD FOR THE INVALID AND CONVALESCENT

By WINIFRED STUART GIBBS. The Macmillan Company. 81 pp. 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 80 cents.

Based on five years' experience as dietitian for the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and prepared at the request of Dr. Theodore C. Janeway and other physicians of the Vanderbilt Clinic, this book cannot fail to be helpful to dispensary workers and visitors for charitable societies. It contains general directions about the choice and care of food, many simple recipes, and diets and menus for children of different ages as well as for the sick. Some knowledge of the rudiments of cookery and some familiarity with the language of recipes is required in order to use the book. It is obviously the intention of the author that it should be given to the poor women of not more than average education through the medium of verbal instruction by a social worker.

THE HOME NURSE'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL NURSING

By CHARLOTTE A. AIKENS. W. B. Saunders Company. 276 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.64.

A sub-title describes this as "a manual for use in home nursing classes in Young Women's Christian Associations, in schools for girls and young women, and a working text-book for mothers, 'practical' nurses, trained attendants, and all who have the responsibility of the home care of the sick." As far as a "layman" can judge it is admirably adapted to serve the purposes for which it was written.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN JULY

- LAME AND LOVELY. By Frank Crane. Forbes and Company. 215 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.
- HEREDITY AND EUGENICS. By William Ernest Castle, John Merle Coulter, Charles B. Davenport, Edward Murray East, William Lawrence Tower. University of Chicago Press. 310 pp. \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.70.
- THE SEXUAL LIFE OF THE CHILD. By Dr. Albert Moll. The Macmillan Company. 324 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.88.
- PRESENT FORCES IN NEGRO PROGRESS. By W. D. Weatherford. Association Press. 186 pp. \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.57.
- THE MECHANISTIC CONCEPTION OF LIFE. By Jacques Loeb, M.D. The University of Chicago Press. 232 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.65.
- BRITISH RADICALISM, 1791-1797. By Walter Phelps Hall. Longmans, Green and Company. 262 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.10.
- A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE LAW OF CORPORATIONS. By Arthur K. Kuhn. Longmans, Green and Company. 173 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.57.
- THE NEGRO AT WORK IN NEW YORK CITY. By George Edmund Haynes. Longmans, Green and Company. 156 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.31.
- THE SPIRIT OF CHINESE PHILANTHROPY. By Yu-Yue Tse. Longmans, Green and Company. 120 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.05.
- PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL TAXATION IN CANADA. By Solomon Vineberg. Longmans, Green and Company. 168 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.57.
- FRESH AIR AND HOW TO USE IT. By Thomas Spees Carrington, M. D. The National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. 250 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY.
- THE NEGRO IN PENNSYLVANIA. By Richard R. Wright, Jr. A. M. S. Book Concern, Philadelphia. 250 pp. Cloth, \$2.00; paper, \$1.60; postpaid.

THE TREND OF THINGS

The British report on the Titanic disaster revives interest in safety at sea. The magazine accounts immediately following the loss of the Titanic added little to the press narratives, but the last few weeks have brought out valuable practical scientific articles on prevention and the saving of life.

Hudson Maxim, the master-builder of guns, in *Hearst's Magazine* gives an estimate of the Force of the Blow of this projectile of 50,000 tons. If she was going at eighteen knots an hour she must have struck, he says, with "an energy of impact . . . sufficient to lift the battleship *Oregon* bodily to a height of about seventy-five feet." If she was going at full speed, the force was exactly double. It is hard for the layman to believe that anything could take such a blow without going to the bottom. Nevertheless, many

writers believe a double hull and closed bulkheads would have saved the Titanic, and the *Scientific American* tells of the Great Eastern, the giant ship of 50 years ago, which reached port in safety after a submerged rock had torn an eighty-foot hole in her outer hull. Her superiority over the Titanic lay in a complete double hull, for in addition to double bottom and transverse bulkheads, like the Titanic, she had longitudinal bulkheads running parallel to the sides eighteen feet in from the outer hull. A naval expert quoted in *Current Literature* from the *Manchester Guardian* shows that unless a ship has such a double side the spot where the blow probably struck the Titanic, "the turn of the bilge," is its weakest point. Many battleships have two or three such skins within the hull. Another expert quoted in the same magazine is in agreement with R. H. Kirk in *Collier's* that bulkhead doors should be automatically closed when danger exists and before the accident occurs. This is provided for in the American navy and it is owing to this that recently the cruiser Maryland made safe port with a great hole in her side. The Titanic was provided, according to the Board of Trade and Lloyd's regulations, with an antiquated hand lever system operated from the deck. How this system works is illustrated by a recent case quoted by Mr. Kirk where it took two men four hours to loosen up and close a door in a test for one of Lloyd's surveyors. A wider use of the eophone and the submerged bell as a means of warning is advised by Lewis Nixon in the *North American*. In fog the eophone registers the presence of objects in the water by the echo from the ship's whistle. The submerged bell, which registers their presence under water, could, Mr. Nixon believes, be supplemented by a wireless outfit such that it would feel out and give warning of objects as far away as twenty miles.

Better provisions for uninterrupted sending of messages to other ships, adequate life boats, drill and the assignment of each passenger on embarkation to his place in a life boat, and a larger proportion of skilled men among the crew are some of the recommendations of the secretary of the Navy George Von L. Meyer, in the *North American Review*. He tells also of a better form of life boat and one more likely to keep afloat in heavy seas than the ordinary type. This is nothing less than the captain's bridge built in the form of a detachable water-tight raft large enough to hold six or seven hundred people. This proposition received the prize offered at the Paris Exposition of 1900 by persons who had lost friends in the sinking of the *Burgoyne*, but it is significant of how short lived terror is, that the suggestion has to little extent been acted upon.

Henry R. Towne's recommendation in the *New York Times* and the *Engineering News* would be an extension of the same idea, namely, a raft construction of part of the

deck, built to float off with a thousand persons aboard. Rear-Admiral Charles D. Sigbee, writing in the *July Century*, believes that pontoons such as Mr. Towne advocates "are dangerous and cumbrous weights to be set adrift at a time of supreme peril and difficulty, perhaps in a heavy sea or from a vessel inclined from the normal. In fact, they might not be detachable at all in a great swirl of waters. Admiral Sigbee tells, however, of another suggestion for a pontoon, which is, in effect, an unsinkable structure of the vessel itself above the water line. "After moderate subdivision below the water-line," says he, "a liner could be so constructed as to have, above the water-line, a great subdivided structure which would be, in effect, an enormous habitable pontoon of sufficient buoyancy to float the vessel even after great flooding below. The pontoon would be without air-ports, but lighted and ventilated by artificial means, such as we find in the navy at the present time. There would be watertight doors or hatches."

In May, *Harper's* published an article which was in a sense a premonition of the great disaster of April 15. The *Menace of Cape Race* by George Harding, dealt with that region of the sea not so many leagues to the northwest of where the *Titanic* foundered, where "icebergs, northeasterly gales, submerged rocks, a sheer shore and a singularly treacherous current" are made doubly menacing by the almost continuous fog created by the contact of the polar current with the Gulf stream. Here with icebergs not in the broad open starlight as that which struck the *Titanic* was said to be, but lurking under a veil of mist so thick as often to deaden the sound of the fog horn and obliterate the light of Cape Race, the sea is truly "His, and He made it," and the ship which escapes would seem to escape by His mercy alone. Here too the careless hand of man would seem to co-operate with the hand of God, for whereas at a lighthouse farther north there are two lights, "one high when the fog floats low and one low when the fog floats high" and a low and a high fog whistle, at Cape Race there is but one whistle and one light.

And yet year after year thousands of ships follow this route. It is a few days shorter for the slow-going tramp and "added to the great fleet of tramps," says Mr. Harding, "are the Canadian liners which must use Cape Race during the ice season on the route by Belle Isle as well as many coast-wise craft, schooners and full-rigged fish carriers." A whole coast population get their living off these wrecks.

In a single month, according to Mr. Harding, an Atlantic liner crowded with passengers and four tramp steamers were totally wrecked within four miles of one another. "Of wrecks on the cape," says Mr. Harding, "a record is kept in a more or less accurate fashion; but of the narrow escapes from wreck no account is taken. There must be

an enormous number of these. It is necessary for a bewildered captain, unable to take noon-day observations, and running on dead reckonings, to locate the Cape Race fog-whistle. There is no other way to determine his position, and he is in haste—desperate haste, when he thinks of his owners—to get along. Consequently he takes a chance and goes close in murky weather. Steamers have come so close to the cliffs in fog, indeed, that the fishermen on the heads, unable even to discern an outline of the blind craft, have clearly heard the panic on the bridge when the captain reversed the engine-room signals and in the same breath ordered the life-boats manned. After that they have listened to the churning of the screw, to the orders from the bridge, and to the gradual departure of the vessel from her dangerous position."

COMMUNICATIONS

THE SATURDAY HALF-HOLIDAY

To the Editor:

"A Half-holiday: An Appeal" by Ellen A. Freeman, of Troy, in your issue of June 8, is of special interest to some of us in Syracuse, where the Consumers' League is in its fourth season of work for the same end, under what—barring the difference in size of population—seem similar conditions. Our country trade, to be sure, has ceased to be a vital factor, since with frequent trolley service, shoppers from neighboring towns no longer buy exclusively or chiefly on Saturday. But the attitude of the majority of the merchants, the arguments they present against the half-holiday, as to Saturday being their best day, etc., and the complications arising from a large working population with money to spend on Saturday, and the cut rates at which meats and other food stuffs are sold on Saturday afternoon well nigh compelling them to buy then, all these are the same.

Perhaps our experience may be of use to Troy, although our Saturday half-holiday is still in the making, and we cannot claim discovery of any short-cut to success.

Our study of the situation here and in the cities where Saturday half-holiday has become a custom—such as Albany, Rochester and Buffalo—has convinced us that most of the arguments against it fall into three classes—non-applicable to the half-holiday, obsolete and theoretic.

The arguments of hardship to working-people, for example, through their having no other time than Saturday afternoon in which to shop, might possibly apply if there were question of closing retail stores early all the year around. But with many classes of workingmen—e. g. builders, plumbers, etc.—getting off at five o'clock every day, and with all of them having the noon hour daily for necessary shopping, it seems as if they might

manage for eight or nine Saturdays without suffering or even much inconvenience. This argument is raised by the leisure classes rather than by the workers themselves, who in many factory meetings have willingly signed pledges not to shop after one on summer Saturdays, agreeing with a hearty "That's so" to the suggestion that it was unfair for one set who already had the half-holiday to keep others from it.

In the "obsolete" class falls the argument of hardship to working people through pay-day falling on Saturday, and the necessity the stores are under of relieving the working-man of his wages immediately upon receipt if they are not to go in drink. This last argument which has always seemed unduly insulting to the great mass of sober, industrious workers, has fallen to the ground here through the growing custom, especially in the larger industries, of paying early in the week—often Monday, Wednesday or Thursday. This is the custom in such establishments as the H. H. Franklin Automobile Co., the Solvay Process Co., the Smith-Premier Typewriter Co., which employ thousands of men. Moreover, the fact ascertained by a recent inquiry at the banks, that in most manufactories the pay-money is drawn out early in the week, points to the break-down of Saturday as general pay-day as much farther reaching than we had believed. Moreover, the employers in the large establishments before mentioned declare that their employees have been no less steady and efficient as a result of getting their pay in the middle of the week when the stores are not open at night, and there is, theoretically, only the saloon in which to spend it.

It should be noted in this connection that with us there has been no attempt to get markets and groceries to adopt the Saturday half-holiday; though it may well be questioned whether, if they would offer their cut-rates in the afternoon instead of the evening, they might not as easily close at six as at ten for the summer weeks. And unquestionably this would greatly help on the general half-holiday.

In the "theoretic" class belong such arguments as that which assumes that the Saturday afternoon trade would be entirely lost to the merchant by a Saturday half-holiday, and since his heaviest trade is on Saturday, the loss of it would mean ruin. This is the same argument which kept our stores open every night of the week for so many years. It ignores the experience of the far greater change which came when all decided to close at six p. m., except on Saturday, which proved that people will still buy, and that they will of necessity do their shopping when stores are open. Moreover, the experience of cities which have the Saturday half-holiday as described to us by their leading firms has not involved financial loss. Of course, the more general the custom, the less chance of loss to individual firms; but a trial of the plan by a minority of Syracuse merchants with their competitors

all keeping open showed last summer that even under such adverse conditions it was possible to be generous without loss.

We are fortunate here in having such progressive merchants, even though they are still few, who realize that the Saturday night trade has become a fetich—that its importance, especially in July and August, is entirely over-rated; that at all seasons it is largely maintained by the custom of widely advertised bargains, and could easily here as elsewhere be readjusted to other days by a shift of bargains; that Saturday night is a sort of parade in the shopping districts, a survival of the village stage of development. Some seventy of these men, including our most progressive department store merchants, Dey Brothers and Co., who had previously given Friday afternoons to their employes, last summer started a Saturday half-holiday movement which it is hoped may some time become general.

This was after three years of effort by the Consumers' League to focus the sentiment already existing in a number of single line stores, such as jewelry, millinery, stationery, etc. This season we are hoping to hold the interest of last year and add to it, although the majority of department stores have as yet held off.

Our most successful line of work, the one which we believe is the most effective and surest in the end, is the attempt to rouse the shopping public to the need, and to persuade them to support the progressive stores, especially by not shopping the eight or nine Saturday afternoons and evenings of July and August when these are giving the half-holiday. In pursuance of this policy—with the slogan

"Merchants promise to give the half-holiday when the public show they wish it by not shopping then"

the League has kept the subject before the city by advertising; by talks at clubs, churches, factories and labor-lodges; the distribution on streets Saturday nights of hand-bills; the getting of thousands of signatures; by a "badge-day" when twenty-five thousand half-holiday badges were distributed in one Saturday afternoon, by automobile parades and by mass-meetings. In all this we have been helped by the clergymen of the city, twenty of whom have this year formed a special committee to aid the cause; by a merchants' committee formed last year from among the favorable merchants, and this year continued with some additions as a citizens' committee, and by an advisory board, ten prominent men including the Catholic bishop.

It is a long, hard task to educate public opinion and make it effective in any given cause, but in the face of discouragements too numerous to mention, we still believe it the only way in a city like ours where the merchants have so long been accustomed to act individually that it seems at times almost impossible to secure co-operation.

It is a satisfaction that the cause is being pushed in Troy, and we heartily wish it success.

EMILY LOVETT EATON,

President of the Consumers' League of Syracuse.

To the Editor:

May I be permitted a few words on the business of securing the Saturday half holiday?

The clerks in England have won the weekly half-holiday through their union. The New Shop Hours Act is now a law in England, and merchants will have to carry out its provisions or render themselves liable to severe penalties. It gives every saleswoman, including those that work in refreshment houses and hotels, a half-holiday every week beginning not later than one o'clock. It also insists upon regular hours for meals.

In Australia, where I lived most of my life, the Saturday half-holiday is generally enforced throughout the entire year. The women vote in Australia.

The only thorough and satisfactory way to secure the Saturday half-holiday is through trade union organization, and, through organization, the enactment and enforcement of necessary legislation. For the efficient following of this fundamental policy men as well as women need enfranchisement.

Under this method of procedure the workers may enjoy the half-holiday as a simple and natural right the year round, which is better democracy than any system which procures it as a favor only during the summer months.

S. M. FRANKLIN,

Secretary National Women's Trade Union League of America.

JOTTINGS

HIGHER PAY FOR MARINE PHYSICIANS

One of the measures which the House of Representatives may or may not reach before adjournment this summer is the Richardson bill providing for an increase in the pay and allowances of the Public Health and Marine-Hospital service—a bill which, according to its friends, is aimed at the improvement of a valuable federal work. The bill, having passed the Senate, is now on the unanimous consent calendar.

The functions of the Marine-Hospital service, as is well known, are to give medical relief to the merchant marine, life-saving service, revenue-cutter service and other government employes; to carry on the medical inspection of immigrants; to maintain the national quarantine, and assist state quarantines; to fight epidemics; to co-operate with city and state boards of health in investigating and suppressing disease; to carry on research work in the interest of public health. On account of the importance of these duties, it is felt that well qualified physicians should

be attached to the corps. Such physicians, it is declared, will not apply for entrance to a corps the pay of which is far below that given to physicians of the other government services. As things are now, moreover, the expenses attached to traveling are largely borne by the officers themselves, and owing to these conditions 9 per cent of the present strength of the corps have resigned during the last three years.

A friend of the Richardson bill puts the case thus: "The House of Representatives should remember that the duties of the Marine-Hospital service are extra-hazardous, that its officers are stationed at some of the most unsanitary ports on earth in the interest of American shipping as it bears upon public health, that it is fighting diseases in times of peace as well as of war, and that many of the surgeons have succumbed to the diseases which they were combatting."

WHAT BABIES COUNT IN BUFFALO

"It is not the babies borrr, but the babies saved, that count", ran a legend staring out from one corner of the health department's section at Buffalo's recent child welfare exhibit. Illustrating the statement were exhibits and charts of all kinds from the food and drugs bureau, the vital statistics bureau, medical inspection bureau and others. The deadly roller towel and house fly, menaces to child life, were not forgotten; and in one booth a dental clinic was held every afternoon and evening, where the teeth of children were examined free of charge. In full sight of visitors the youngsters had the defects in their teeth charted and were given cards entitling them to free services at the dental department of the University of Buffalo. Over the booth was posted the question "Is not Dental Inspection in the Schools Worth While?"

In more than one respect this was a unique exhibit. Pupils of the vocational schools built the screens, lettered the wall cards and printed on their own presses an attractive hand book, several thousand copies of which were sold. The city authorities gave without charge the use of the large convention hall, and appropriated funds for the exhibit for the health department.

CHILD LABOR AND THE CHERRY SLAUGHTER

"It is an unpublished fact," said Owen R. Lovejoy, general secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, at the recent Lehigh Valley Child Helping Conference, "that the Cherry Mine disaster was due to two little boys, under the child labor age, who unintentionally committed the error that brought death to almost two hundred miners." Mr. Lovejoy referred to the fact that the boy in charge of the hay car which caught fire was under the legal working age. It is declared that if he had had a little more strength he probably could have pushed the bale of hay into the seepage, thus extinguishing the fire and preventing the whole disaster.

THE COMMON WELFARE

PLAY FOR NEGROES

Something of the spirit which informs the movement for Negro betterment in 1912 was shown at the recent meeting of the Hampton Negro Conference, by the enthusiasm with which the leaders of the race in agriculture, the ministry, business and social work discussed the subject of amusement and recreation in relation to the efficiency of every-day life. Negro ministers who had gone on record as opposed to all forms of dancing and who had vigorously insisted that the Negro of the present needed to buckle down to hard work and sober thought, were finally won over to the cause of furnishing young colored people with legitimate and health-giving amusements.

Mrs. G. W. Cook, of Washington, D. C., outlined the growth of the play movement. She emphasized the importance of adapting play to the child's "play ages"—the dramatic stage, the self-assertive or "big Injun" stage, and, finally, the critical period of adolescence. She advocated story telling, as well as the reading and reciting of poetry, as part of the play life of children. To meet the problem of keeping the country child on the land and in sympathy with the life of those about him, Mrs. Cook declared that teachers would do well to take their "big Injuns" and show them the great advantages of country over city life by playing ball with them and indulging in various kinds of outdoor life to forestall the hankering for the city. She urged, too, the instilling in the child of a sense of responsibility toward work and life.

The reports of seventeen colored teachers who are at work in eighteen counties in Virginia, under the direction of Hampton Institute, trying to secure the more complete co-operation of parents, ministers and teachers in improving school life, showed them to be carrying on school demonstration work aimed to give new life and fresh hope to neglected country districts.

Jackson Davis, supervisor of the rural

elementary schools of Virginia, gave a summary of the industrial supervisors' work in Virginia, showing that work was carried on in eighteen counties, where there are 469 Negro schools with an average term of six months. In these schools over \$6,200 has been spent on new buildings this year. There are in these counties 348 improvement leagues, and the Negroes in these counties gave in cash \$13,744.16 for buildings, improvements, lengthening school terms, and industrial materials. One hundred and two schools have introduced individual drinking cups.

Prof. J. M. Gandy, executive secretary of the Negro Organization Society of Virginia, declared that today 32,228 Negroes, or 67 per cent of the 48,114 Negro farm operators, controlling 2,238,000 acres, own and operate their farms in Virginia. While the Negroes are not getting on an average as much produce per acre as the white farmers, Professor Gandy believes that with improved methods of soil cultivation the hard-working Negroes of Virginia will soon be able to make a much better living on the farm. He summed up the real needs of Negro rural life as follows: reinforcement of the idea of keeping colored youth on the farm, of buying and improving land, of producing better crops and farm animals, of building better school houses, and of improving home life.

M. W. Reddick, principal of Americus Institute, Americus, Ga., described his method of raising money for Negro education among the Negroes themselves. His school was organized in October, 1897, with the avowed object of teaching the colored people how to give for the improvement of their own race. It is owned by an association of seventy Baptist churches. The first year \$154 was raised for education. Some of those who at that time gave one dollar are now contributing from fifty to one hundred dollars. The annual receipts have gone up to almost eight thousand dollars. By the publication of his ac-

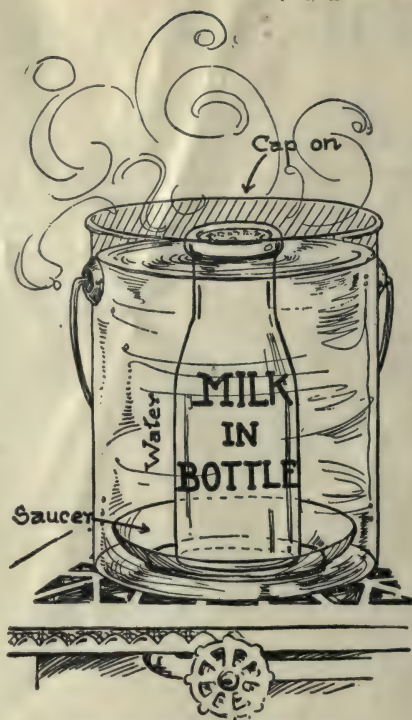
counts Mr. Reddick has secured the cooperation of white and colored organizations as well as church workers.

George E. Haynes, of the social science department of Fiske University and director of the National League on Urban Conditions among Negroes, New York, gave the following as causes of the movement of colored people to the city: the divorce of the Negro from the soil; the growth of commercial and industrial centers; legislation affecting urban conditions; the relations of tenant and landlord; the influence of employment runners in the South; exaggerated stories of success in the city. In his opinion, the remedy lies "on the land," in farming and pointing out to rural Negroes the disadvantages and dangers of city life and "in town," in helping the Negro to adjust himself to his new environment.

Study of the 238 registration cards shows a distribution by states as follows: from Virginia, 173 delegates; North Carolina, 27; Kentucky, 4; South Carolina, 8; District of Columbia, 5; Maryland, 4; Georgia, 6; Tennessee, 2; Indiana, 2; Florida, 2; 1 each from Oklahoma, Connecticut, Mississippi, Delaware and Alabama. Occupations were represented as follows: teaching, 138; homemaking, 25; missionary work, 2; club workers, 4; ministers, 25; farmers, 15; dressmakers, 6. Practically all who attended the Hampton Negro Conference have been engaged in some form of professional or volunteer community work.

CHICAGO FIGHTS FOR PURE MILK

Chicago is fighting to have an ordinance passed to compel milkmen to deliver pure milk. The Illinois metropolis, according to G. B. Young, commissioner of health, has been left without adequate protection of its milk supply through a state law passed at the last session of the legislature which declared it unlawful for cities to require a tuberculin test of cattle employed in the production of milk. Chicago at the time this law was passed had an ordinance providing that milk not produced by cows shown by the



HOME PASTEURIZATION.

tuberculin test to be free from tuberculosis must be pasteurized. The city law department has held that the entire city ordinance, including that part referring to pasteurization, was invalidated by that state law.

A new ordinance drafted by the Department of Health and recommended to the City Council by the health committee for acceptance is now awaiting passage. This proposed ordinance provides that all raw milk sold in Chicago shall be of a grade defined as "inspected" and that all milk which cannot meet the requirements for this grade must be pasteurized.

The Department of Health through its weekly bulletin is trying to convince the citizens that this protective ordinance is necessary to save Chicago's babies from the milk of unhealthy foster mothers. It is making headway, too, for the department is proving by means of a gross dirt test that "much of the lily white milk analyzes as jet black death" and that too many citizens are exchanging "good money for bad milk." Since

the first of the year 16,122 samples of milk have been subjected to the dirt test "with the result that 3,400 or 21 per cent have been found absolutely filthy." Only a third of the samples were really clean.

For these reasons the Department of Health says that until Chicago has a properly handled milk supply every housewife should home-pasteurize all milk, especially that which is to be used for baby feeding. It recommends a simple method for doing this.

In a small tin pail place a saucer; on the saucer stand the bottle of milk (leaving the cap on the bottle). Now pour sufficient hot water (not so hot as to break the bottle) into the pail to fill same to within three or four inches of top of bottle and then stand the pail and its contents on the stove. The instant the water begins to boil remove the bottle of milk from the pail and cool it as rapidly as possible.

Keep the bottle of milk in the ice-box and keep the cap on the bottle when not in use. When you remove the cap do so with a clean fork prong and be careful that the milk side of the cap does not come in contact with anything dirty.

ST. LOUIS GETS GUARDIAN BILL

First-hand observation, by the members of the Municipal Assembly, of the fine homes in which the Children's Aid Society places destitute children and of the horrible conditions at the industrial school, secured the passage of the St. Louis Children's Guardian Bill. The last item in *THE SURVEY*¹ about this measure rightly declared that the guardian bill was in danger. The bill was held up in the House of Delegates, mainly because many members were opposed to what they understood to be the "farming out" method. One delegate mentioned that he had, when a boy, witnessed the most atrocious injustice in Connecticut where children were given out at public auction to the highest bidders, who often mistreated and overworked them.

An automobile trip, conducted by a member of the board of the Children's Aid Society, to some of the placing out homes and to the industrial school changed this opponent and others into advocates of the bill. On the morning of the trip, the friends of the measure

at best could count upon but a bare majority. Later in the day the bill was passed by an overwhelming majority. Those who had been on the inspection trip became ardent enthusiasts for the bill and before the assembly convened they were on the floor converting opponents.

The bill establishes a Board of Children's Guardians which is to be appointed by the mayor with the approval of the council. The board through public examination selects an agent, a number of visitors, and a stenographer to place out destitute children in private homes instead of keeping them in the industrial school. All children must be placed within Missouri and within fifty miles of St. Louis. The city is to pay for the board and maintenance of every child so placed, not more than \$3.50 a week. In addition the board may pay for clothing and medical treatment for the children under its care.

The same board will supervise the industrial school in which delinquent children will be confined, but all dependent children will be removed from the school and placed in homes by October 1. The sum of \$150,000 has been appropriated for a new industrial school. Work on this will begin in a few weeks.

THE MOVING PICTURE IN A MEDIAEVAL TOWN

The outdoor moving picture, as an educational and recreational factor, is being given a trial in Montreal, Can. This innovation is especially interesting because Montreal, owing to the religious and racial makeup of its population, is one of the most conservative cities on this continent.

Another evidence of the awakening of this city from its mediaevalism is the Child Welfare Exhibit to be held there in October, at the same time as the Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction is in session. This body has never before met in Montreal.

The Child Welfare Moving Picture Committee was formed to educate the people for the meetings in October and to create a civic demand for the child's weal. The initiative was taken by the University Settlement. A delegation

¹See *THE SURVEY*, April 13, page 92.

representing that organization, the City Improvement League, the Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, the Parks and Playgrounds Association, the Women's Club, the Federation Nationale and other bodies appealed to the Board of Control for the use of the city parks. The mayor and aldermen granted the request and promised the protection of the park police.

Three performances a week have been given. The pictures have been chosen to illustrate child welfare, as well as other subjects both educational and frivolous. During the first week the attendance was 40,000. The well-ordered, interested, enthusiastic crowds were made up of fathers, mothers with babies in arms, in carriages or bundled in rugs on the grass; boys and girls; and young men and young women. Encouraged by their success the co-operators, who include not only the already mentioned organizations, but the press, the Berliner Gramophone Company, the General Film Company and the Nickel Moving Picture Theatre are planning, funds and weather permitting, to continue the moving picture shows until the Child Welfare Exhibit takes their place.

"NORFOLK PLAN" FOR LOAN SOCIETIES

At the last meeting in Cleveland of the National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, considerable interest centered in the report of the membership committee on the so-called "Norfolk plan" or organization for remedial loan societies. Under this plan societies were formed in Norfolk and Suffolk, Va., in 1910, in Atlanta in 1911 and in Baltimore in 1912. A society in Newport News has been operating for several years along similar lines; in fact, from this society came the idea which with slight changes is now being advertised as the "Norfolk plan." The scheme provides for the issuing of shares of permanent and withdrawal stock. The first constitutes the fixed and non-borrowing capital. The withdrawal stock may be paid for in regular installments and holders may obtain loans provided they can furnish two endorsers or deposit collateral security. Loans are made at an an-

nual interest charge of 6 per cent, but the membership committee found that by the process of discounting the interest and requiring the return of the money borrowed in weekly installments the cost of the loan to the borrower is made to mount up to more than 14 per cent yearly.

The plan combines certain features of the co-operative savings and loan associations but differs from them in one fundamental respect. Instead of being organized on a truly co-operative basis in which all members participate equally in profits the "Norfolk plan" prescribes that the greater part of the profits shall be credited to the holders of the permanent stock. The plan was presented to the conference of 1911 by Redmond J. Stewart of Baltimore and Arthur J. Morris of Morris, Garnett & Cotton, attorneys, of Norfolk. At that time the subject was referred to the membership committee for further investigation and report. The report as presented in Cleveland questioned the ability of societies operating under the plan to succeed financially, and doubted the adequacy of the plan to meet the need for small loans. It reads, in part:

On the remedial side the committee doubts the adequacy of the endorsed note scheme in its proposed application as meeting the need for small loans, and believes that those who are interested in the remedial loan movement would do infinitely better to encourage the organization of remedial loan societies operating along well-tried lines and co-operative savings and loan associations or credit unions organized among the employees. The committee does not approve the method of claiming to make loans at 6 or 8 per cent per annum when the actual charge to the borrower in the case of the Norfolk society is 14.11 per cent and in the case of the Atlanta society is 18.91 per cent. As to its legality, it is our opinion that the plan violates the laws of several states. In New York state, for instance, the plan would violate section 314 of the Banking Law as a device or scheme to exact a greater return than the legal rate of interest of 6 per cent per annum. It would also violate another section of the New York Banking Law which provides that no society shall have as a part of its plan installment shares payable in regular or periodical payments except those societies organized under the building and loan laws.

Regarding admission to the federation it is the opinion of the committee that no society of this character should be admitted until it has at least demonstrated its ability to actually operate successfully on a sound business basis.

TONY

HELEN R. GUTMANN

Do you know Tony? Probably not, though you may often have seen him at his stand on a busy corner. He may even have shined your shoes and, if he did, you wondered, carelessly, if he were a boy or a man—he, with his slight, dwarfed body and the sunken dull eyes of an old man. No—even if you admired his speed and deftness, spoke to him, and wondered at his short, almost surly, answers—you don't know Tony. To know him, you must know Celia, lying white and listless in a dark corner of a dingy tenement room. You certainly don't know Celia. No one thinks of her now. Yet a year ago, every one on the block spoke of her. There was no one as pretty as she, and Vanni loved her, prosperous Vanni whose fruit stand is just at the corner. The pretty color came and went in her soft cheeks then, and her laugh was as bright as Italian sunshine, but New York is bleak and cold and that is why Celia lies in the dark room and coughs her life away. Only Tony, who cannot remember when he began to love Celia, comes to her now. She has ceased to wonder why Vanni does not come. One does not want a sick wife who cannot tend stand, or work, but lies and coughs all day; that is understood.

The American doctor, who comes now and again, wonders each time to find the feeble little light of life still burning, but Celia knows why, and so does Tony; but he also knows that every evening Vanni and Rosa walk together as lovers, and all the neighbors watch and nod. That is why he works so feverishly, and, in very fear for his soul, short-changes you if he can, for poor little Celia wishes so much for a tombstone to mark the place in this cold, bleak land where she must lie. She cannot die in peace until she knows there is money to buy one. It is a passion stronger than death itself. So Tony works and saves and starves, that he may have enough; for in very love, a love he has never put into words, he wants her to die before she hears that Vanni has so soon forgotten and is to marry Rosa.

Sometimes, in the still hot evenings, when all the rest are on the roof, or in the street, Tony sits at Celia's side and in whispers, they discuss the relative advantages of a lamb, a broken lily, or best of all,—if business is very, very good this summer,—a broken column with a vine. And some day soon, the American doctor will be called, no longer to wonder at the strong hold on life in the frail body, but to sign the certificate that will let it rest in the peaceful City of the Dead. Then, when next Tony shines your shoes, you will know, in spite of his dwarfed body, that Tony is an old, old man.

EDITORIAL GRIST

FIRST NATIONAL NEWS-PAPER CONFERENCE

EDWARD ALSWORTH ROSS

Professor of Sociology, University of Wisconsin.

Following its ideal of social service, the University of Wisconsin, through its Extension Department, called a conference of newspaper and magazine men to consider the question Are Newspaper and Magazine Writers Free to Tell the Truth? Time and again journalists have gotten together to thresh out questions relating to their interests, from the tariff on wood pulp to the law of libel, but never before have they assembled for the sole purpose of considering whether or not they are doing their full duty by the public. The questions considered at the individual sessions cut to the quick.

Is the Newspaper-Reading Public Getting all the Truth It is Entitled to? Can the Impartiality of the News-Gathering and News-Supplying Agencies be Fairly Challenged? How is News Service Affected by the Constantly Increasing Cost of the Newspaper Plant, the Increasing Proportion of Total Newspaper Revenue Derived from the Advertisers and by the Non-Journalistic Interests of the Capitalist Owner?

If the Newspaper is to Play Its Due Part in Social Advance, Can It be Run as Simply a Business Proposition? Can Commercial

Journalism Make Good, or Must We Look for the Endowed Newspaper? Can Commercial Journalism Make Good; or Must We Look for the Public Newspaper?

When possible two papers were secured for each session, one a defense, the other an attack of newspaper practice on the point at issue. The heads of the press associations vindicated their impartiality, while the socialist editor led the assault on the news-gathering agencies and not a few came to his aid. A representative of the New York *World* denied that current economic developments in newspaper publishing are impairing the veracity of the press, while a magazine man from Boston gave evidence of the subserviency of the press of that city to big advertisers. Charles H. Grasty, proprietor of the Baltimore *Sun*, argued that a fearless and free newspaper will achieve a commercial success while Louis Post of the *Public* impeached the veracity of the daily newspapers of Chicago and analyzed secret influences which suppress or distort news that the public has a right to know. Hamilton Holt of the *Independent* plead for an endowed newspaper and the head of the Los Angeles *Municipal News* told the story of the most conspicuous public newspaper in America.

The discussions of the papers were vivacious, but not once was there a want of candor or courtesy. When cross-examined the socialist editor confessed that a socialist newspaper is no place to look for accounts of labor mistakes. The head of a press service admitted that news is written from the "point of view" of the paper that hires the reporter. The daily newspaper men were amazed at the widespread distrust of newspaper truthfulness shown by the men of the weeklies and the monthlies. Editors chafing under conditions which they supposed were peculiar to their town were startled by the range of testimony revealing the same bondage of newspaper men in other places.

Out of three days of the frankest discussion emerged at last two interpretations as to the cause of the failure of many newspapers to present the truth they owe their readers. The daily news-

paper men present, all of them connected with newspapers notable for fearlessness, argued that the advance of commercialism in the newspaper field may be stayed if only editors will have courage and faith. They believe that the pressure of the advertisers may safely be withstood, and that the editor who plays fair with his readers will be the man who makes money for his paper. Another group insisted that the commercializing forces are practically irresistible, save by a few men of rare qualities, and argued that nothing but the stimulating competition of an endowed newspaper or a public newspaper can hold the press up to its duty to the public.

The felt benefits of this first conference were such that at the close the participants unanimously recommended that a second gathering be held under the same auspices in 1913 and that the organizers of the first conference arrange for the second.

THE HABEAS CORPUS JIMMY

It is refreshing to find a loyalty to equity, grounded on common sense combined with equal loyalty to the law, such as Chief Justice Harry Olson of the Chicago Municipal Court frequently has occasion to express. The latest instance has to do with the release of a convicted panderer on a writ of habeas corpus issued by one of the judges on this bench. His extraordinary action was based upon an entirely obvious clerical error in the court record, stating the sentence to have been for five months' imprisonment when it should have read for nine months. The chief justice immediately had the error rectified, the criminal rearrested and recommitted to prison for the full term to which he was sentenced, grimly serving notice upon those who might make further attempt to interfere with the execution of law that "an illegal writ of habeas corpus is no better than a jimmy used to liberate a prisoner from jail." There was no further attempt so to do either by the aforesaid judge or any one else.

WITH ARIZONA'S FIRST LEGISLATURE

H. A. E. CHANDLER

Professor of Economics, University of Arizona

The first legislature of the state of Arizona, the newest and last of the continental states to be admitted into the Union, has established a record for social betterment measures which will not be surpassed by any of her older sisters in many a long session. Arizona is youthful and virile, full of pluck and ambition, conscious of the magnitude of the great problems which confront her, and eager to work out their solution. She possesses rich natural resources, but is poor in point of numbers, in human resources. For thirty years she has been struggling for statehood, and for the right to put into law, through a legislature controlled only by her people, measures of social reform and betterment. Her capitalists have felt the need of developing her natural resources, but her people have felt the greater need of protecting and conserving her human resources. In the first session of her first legislature, recently concluded, constructive social measures were passed of which any of the older states of the Union might be justly proud.

Many of the men who drew up the constitution continued their work as members of the legislature. There is, therefore, a close harmony between the two bodies of legislation. The members of the constitutional convention, some of whom were deeply interested in social reform, were unwilling to rest many reforms with the new legislature-to-be, the character of which no man could foretell. Therefore there were embodied in the constitution several strikingly progressive measures, among the most important of which are the following:

1. "The common law doctrine of fellow servant, so far as it affects the liability of master for injuries to his servant, is forever abrogated."

2. "The right of action to recover damages for injuries shall never be abrogated, and the amount to be recovered shall not be subject to any statutory limitation."

3. "An employers' liability law shall be passed, by the terms of which any employer * * * shall be liable for death or injury * * * in all cases in which death or injury

shall not have been caused by the negligence of the employe killed or injured."

4. "The legislature shall enact a workmen's compulsory compensation law applicable in such employments as the legislature may determine to be especially dangerous, by which compulsory compensation shall be required to be paid * * * by the employer * * * if accident is caused in whole or in part, or is contributed to, by a necessary risk or danger of such employment, or a necessary risk or danger inherent in the nature thereof or by failure of employer * * * to exercise due care * * *," it being optional with employe to settle for such compensation, or to retain the right to sue, etc.

5. "The defence of contributory negligence, or assumption of risk, shall be a question of fact, and left to the jury."

6. "No child under age of fourteen shall be employed in any gainful occupation during any part of the school year."

7. "It shall be unlawful for any corporation * * * to require of its employes as a condition of their employment any contract whereby such corporation * * * shall be released from liability on account of personal injuries."

Other clauses of social importance, including the one of establishing the office of mine inspector, were embodied in the constitution.

Permanence and dignity were added to the work of the legislature by the unpartisan action of the governor and legislators. Members of the same political party, they were yet actuated by the ambition to establish a record for non-partisan and enlightened legislation and administration. Republicans as well as Democrats were put upon the most important committees, and both houses, as well as the governor, though differing upon smaller details, were in harmony on the larger questions and worked together with the one end in view—strong, progressive legislation that would stand the test of future political contests.

Of the 300 bills introduced, over 100 were passed, and of the hundred new laws, fully one-third are of important social significance. The most important bills dealt with the following topics: child labor; woman labor; mining code, with provisions for mine inspection and important limitations upon conditions of underground work in mines; miners' labor lien law; five laws regulating hours of labor, including eight-hour day for miners; several reformatory measures,

including indeterminate sentence for criminals and care for unfortunate girls; anti-labor black list; workman's compulsory compensation.

It was the earnest desire of the legislature to pass the best child labor law in the United States, and it must be conceded that they did remarkably well. The act was introduced by Mike Cuniff, president of the Senate and former managing editor of the *World's Work*, a man who has been a miner and owner of mines and who is deeply interested in all labor questions. The most important provisions of this act are: no child under fourteen is permitted to work in any industrial or mercantile pursuit; it is unlawful for any person, firm or corporation to employ any child under fourteen in any business whatever during any part of the school year; more than sixty dangerous and unhealthful occupations, in which no child under sixteen may be employed, are enumerated; the state board of health is empowered to determine from time to time what other occupations are dangerous and unhealthful, and may prohibit employment in such additional ones; females under sixteen are not permitted to work in any occupation requiring them to stand constantly; the right of corporations and others to employ any minors is conditioned upon strict examination by school officials and the board of health, and upon previously obtaining proper certificates as well as upon keeping correct records, the most important of which must be conspicuously posted; the state superintendent, truant officers, etc., are given right to enter any and all establishments at all times; no child under eighteen can be employed about blast furnaces, smelters and twenty other hazardous occupations; no female is permitted to work about any mine, quarry or coal breaker; no boy under sixteen and no girl under eighteen is permitted to work before seven in the morning or after seven in the evening. The presence of any child in an establishment is *prima facie* evidence of his employment there. Physical fitness of any child must be passed upon by the state board of health before he can be employed.

In strict compliance with the constitutional mandate the legislature passed the employers' liability act and the workmen's compulsory compensation act. These strengthened the force of the constitutional provisions dealing with these important subjects, the latter by clearly laying down the principle that "compulsory compensation shall be paid by his employer to any workman . . . if injury is caused in whole or in part . . . by failure of employer or his agents to exercise due care, etc.," and further by declaring the common law doctrine of "no liability without fault" to be abrogated. The employers' liability act clearly states that "any employer shall be liable for death of or injury . . . in all cases in which such death or injury . . . shall not have been caused by the negligence of the employee killed or injured."

Two very important bills were the one establishing the office and defining the duties of mine inspector, and the one containing the new mining code. A bill was passed making the miner's lien for wages take precedence of a first mortgage. The mining bill has been well received by both miners and operators. In addition to the foregoing, several other important laws have been enacted to protect the laboring classes in Arizona.

Viewing the entire group of social legislation enacted in Arizona during the last three years, it stands out conspicuously as a notable effort to deal with social problems with characteristic, twentieth century thoroughness. Of course, there is still the question of what the courts will do with several of these laws. Some of them may be temporarily nullified, but one who knows the temper of Arizona people does not doubt that, with the recall, the people will obtain the needed reforms in spite (if necessary) of courts or other public servants. The disposition of Arizona is not radical, but it is progressive and determined. The general trend of thought and action, as indicated by recent constitutional and legislative enactments, gives great promise for the social welfare of the youngest of American states.

THE TREND OF THINGS

The new social hygiene according to Havelock Ellis, writing in the last issue of the *Yale Review*, is intimately bound up with the decreasing birth rate, or rather with the purposeful regulation of the birth rate. About the spirit of such regulation Mr. Ellis has this to say: "We cannot," he says, "desire any compulsory elimination of the unfit or any centrally regulated breeding of the fit. Such notions are idle, and even the mere fact that unbalanced brains may air them abroad tends to impair the legitimate authority of eugenic ideals. The two measures which are now commonly put forward for the attainment of eugenic ends—health certificates as a preliminary to marriage, and the segregation or sterilization of the unfit—are excellent if wisely applied; but they become mischievous if not ridiculous in the hands of fanatics who would employ them by force. Domestic animals may be highly bred from outside compulsorily; man can only be bred upwards from within, through the medium of his conscience and intelligence and will, working together under the control of a high sense of responsibility. The infinite cunning of men and women is fully equal to the defeat of any attempt to touch life at this intimate point against the wish of those to whom the creation of life is entrusted. Galton, who recognized the futility of mere legislation, believed that the hope of the future lies in rendering eugenics a part of religion."

* * *

For future issues the *Twentieth Century* announces a department to be conducted by Frances Squire Potter through which the interest of women will be enlisted on social, economic and political questions. The magazine, under its new editorial regime, presents the following "creed" which, in the day of the abandonment of not a few of the sensational and semi-radical monthlies, is noteworthy for its sturdy self-assertion, its scope, and its mellowing of sheer economic and political purposes with its touch of cultural fire.

1. We believe the editorial staff and contributors should tell the truth and shame the advertising syndicates and the money trust.

2. We believe there is a new American literature in the making, which will rival the efflorescence of old Concord, because touched by a holy cause as were the writers in the second third of the nineteenth century.

3. We believe the burdens of this literature will be the cause of labor, the cause of woman, the prairie, the mountain, the desert, the sea, the crowd and the homogeneity of America, although its authors will be Hoosiers, Yankees, the sons and daughters of Dixie, Irish, Italians, Slavs, Scandinavians, Negroes, Jews, rather than the old literary aristocracy.

4. We believe the *Twentieth Century Magazine* furnishes at present their only absolutely untrammelled monthly medium.

5. We believe American standards can only be achieved here and extended to the rest of the world by the early reduction of the cost of living,

the establishment of a minimum wage and employment and vocational bureaus, the public control of transportation, communication and natural resources, and the appropriation of the unearned increment.

6. We believe in the new politics, securing self-government for men and women in each unit of government, by simple, direct, elastic methods.

7. We believe in a new alignment of political parties, because the Republican and Democratic parties utterly fail to group men according to the issues of the day, and we advocate the immediate organization of the Federal or Progressive Party.

8. We believe in a constitutional convention to revise the United States constitution so as to assign to nation, state and municipality the appropriate function of each.

9. We believe in the new education, compulsory industrial training up to the age of eighteen, subsidized by the state, which will give the nation the fullest development of the peculiar talents of each citizen.

10. We believe in the new church, which will be a party for the development of the national faith, the highest organized expression of which will be the nation.

11. We believe in the new art, which will make all children original creators, which will demand that labor shall not destroy individuality, which will beautify schoolhouse, public building, city, town, village and country-side, save the beauties of physical nature and cultivate the beauties of human nature, by literature in the library, music in the public music hall and public park, the opera and the drama in the public theatre, cleanliness in the home and the community, and conservation in the national domain.

12. We believe in twentieth century America, the land of synthesis, the amalgamated race, the homogeneous people, the federal nation, the home and period of correlated science and collective organization.

* * *

"YOU, ON WHOSE BACK THE LASH DESCENDS!"

LOUISE SEYMOUR HASBROUCK IN NEW YORK TIMES.

[Wilmington, Del., March 2.—Richard Wright * * * was sentenced to fourteen years in prison and to receive seventy lashes on his bare back. * * * He could not stand all of the punishment at once, so a week will be allowed to elapse and then he will be given the remaining thirty lashes. * * * Wright's crime was stealing from various persons living along the Delaware River.—*News-paper dispatch.*]

Though lordly robbers pardon win—

(So soft we've grown, so kind!)

Still for the petty thief, the whip;

Still shall he Justice find.

"Him whom she loves she chasteneth,

And, lest her cherished die,

She gives a week between the blows—

A week, for blood to dry.

And since, too probably, he bears,

In sick and darkened brain,

The brand his mother gave, the lash

Outside shall mark it plain.

To every ounce of quivering flesh,

To every shrieking nerve,

Grimly the nine-thonged counselor speaks,

Just friend that does not swerve.

"Grow gentle!" (You, so gently schooled)

"Walk straight!" (You, bowed in pain)

And when your back's raw meat is cooled,

Thing, be a man again!

Be good! Can you not reason feel?

Good! Can you wonder why?

You, on whose back the lash descends,

Under a wintry sky!

The case of the working girl in Canada, her equipment and her social life is told by Marjorie McMurchy in the *Canadian Courier*. This is the vivid narrative of real cases. Here is B. Y., a girl with ambition who came to the city to earn enough to set herself up in business at home. She came also with a decent standard of living and gave up one position because she could not live decently on \$6 a week. "Her resources," says Mrs. McMurchy, "were exhausted before she got another position. In her present employment she gets \$4 a week. But she is learning the catering business, and her wages will be increased if she is a successful worker. She is not yet certain that she can make good in the city. B. Y.'s case brings us nearer to the lower levels of comfort and safety in the life of a girl who is earning wages. At first when she came to the city, B. Y. paid \$1.75 a week for her room, and \$3 a week for her meals. This left her \$1.25 per week for all other expenses, which is an impossible margin. She finds that by sharing a room with another girl, or with two or three other girls, it is possible to rent a room for \$1 a week. If a girl pays less than a dollar the locality is undesirable. B. Y. is given her lunch where she works. The lowest sum which a girl wage-earner pays for three meals a day is \$2.25 a week. With a room at a dollar a week and meals at \$2.25, both sums the lowest possible expenditure out of \$6, \$2.75 a week is left for other expenses. There are thousands of girls in Canadian cities who earn \$6 or less a week."

* * *

"We are still sending 12,000 men and women to prison annually because they are too poor to pay their fines at the moment of sentence," said Warren F. Spalding to a Massachusetts audience recently. After appealing for an extension of the probation system he went on to say that "it has been proved that if given time to pay their fines most men will do so."

"About one half of the courts collected fines to the amount of \$27,000 last year. The other half did not even try to do so, but imprisoned the offender for being poor; supported him for a week or more, deprived his family, if he had one, of his earnings, gave him the name of 'jail bird,' and, in most cases, did not get the fine. The rich man paid his fine and did not feel it. There should not be such a discrimination against the poor man."

"No matter how good the prisons may be made the discharged prisoner will always need help. Many are homeless, friendless, penniless. Nobody will have him, nobody will associate with him, and nobody will give him a dollar or a meal, or a kind word. The community's attitude is unchristian. Every jail city should have a prisoners' aid society, every church a committee on discharged prisoners, with a definite purpose to reinstate them."

"When all has been done to make prisons

what they should be the work of prevention will remain. Most men and women go astray because they think nobody cares, and in most cases they are right in so thinking. It is the business of good people to care. When all good people care for those who are becoming bad, for those who are bad, for those who have repented, the crime problem will be easily solved."

* * *

The Church and the Immigrants by Leroy Hodges in a recent issue of the *Missionary Review* sets, briefly and plainly before church people the "true conditions in regard to the recent immigrants, in the firm belief that the knowledge of these conditions will lead the churches to overcome the inertia which has characterized their past efforts."

Mr. Hodges notes not merely apathy on the part of the immigrant toward the church but movements of antagonism and denunciation of their own church among immigrant groups, as in the ore mines of Minnesota, the factory workers of Fall River and other industrial groups in West Virginia and in the northwestern states. Some Protestant churches, says Mr. Hodges, are creating the impression that they are ministering adequately to the immigrant; but they are doing no such thing. Instead, they have usually taken an attitude of superiority or of indifference to the immigrant and have deliberately built up a caste distinction. Some of these even refuse to receive immigrants as Americans are received, but hold services for them in barns. They offer them no social opportunities; their workers attempt to "Christianize" them by "teachings hardly advanced enough to be offered to the youngest children in the Sunday-schools." Some of their tracts indeed "have done as much to poison the minds of recent immigrants against the churches as any one other cause." The churches furthermore have done little to Americanize the national Catholic parochial schools, even passing on the ideals and language of the fathers to the children, and have placed sectarianism above humanity.

The remedy lies in Mr. Hodges' opinion in directing as sincere and intelligent work toward the immigrant mission problem as is now directed toward the problem of the foreign mission.

* * *

"It is hard," said Edward Q. Keasbey of the New Jersey bar in an address before the Maryland Bar Association, "for the people to understand why they should be met with a phrase taken from Magna Charta when they ask for a law limiting the hours of labor or providing for compensation to workmen injured by machinery in a factory. The need that is felt by the common man just now is not so much (what Magna Charta provided) protection against political oppression or the power of government officials, as protection against the oppression of long hours of labor and hard conditions of life."



AUTO RIDES NOW FOR JOHNNY AND SUSY.

The New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children has put into service a motor bus for the transportation of children committed to the society's care by the various courts. The wagon which the motor bus replaces has had sixteen years of continuous service. It has carried during that time 172,399 children all over the city to and from the various courts and institutions, without an accident.

COMMUNICATIONS

MUST CHARITY GO?

TO THE EDITOR:

At a session of the National Conference at Cleveland a burst of applause followed the familiar suggestion that the word "charity" be abandoned. What is charity, and must it go? It is not alms and it never was; as St. Paul knew when he said "though I give all my goods to feed the poor, and have not charity." "Blessed is he that considereth the poor." Charity means giving thought to the poor, and the charity conferences are giving fearless thought to the most radical solutions of poverty. In fact modern charity is so opposed to giving alms that it often does not give money enough. At least, however, it gives thought, and thought never pauperizes.

Must we give up a beautiful word which in St. Paul's day did not mean alms and which does not now? Mayo Jones of Toledo said he had lived to see "socialism" become a respectable word. It is associations which give Fifth Avenue so different a meaning from Sixth Avenue. The present associations of charity are redeeming the word.

Wise charity is an ally of justice. The cry "Not charity but justice" is flimsy, for we need both. We can no more give up charity because we lack justice, than we can give up the blessed Red Cross relief because we have not abolished war. To the very end of the world we shall need charity for misfortune. To paraphrase Aristotle: "In an age of charity there will be no need of justice, but in an age of justice we shall still need charity." I believe that organized charity is organized love.

FREDERIC ALMY.

Buffalo.

August 17, 1912.

DANCE HALLS AND MINORS

To THE EDITOR:

There is so much misunderstanding regarding the state law in Minnesota affecting dance halls that it may be well to publish the law. Any ordinance passed by a municipality would need to conform to the state law which is as follows:

KEEPERS OF PUBLIC PLACES to exclude minors: Whoever permits any person under the age of twenty-one years to be or to remain in any dance house, concert saloon, place where intoxicating liquors are sold or given away, or any place of entertainment, injurious to the morals, owned, kept or managed by him in whole or in part, or shall permit any person under the age of twenty-one years to play any game of skill or chance in any such place, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and be punished by a fine of not less than twenty-five dollars. (Revised Laws of Minnesota, 1905 Sec. 4936). (6538: '07 C. 115).

The term "dance-house" carries with it opprobrium, it implies immoral conditions. It is classed in this law with other immoral places—such places as no parent would wish his son or daughter under twenty-one years or over, to frequent. The dance hall managers in this city are pursuing a policy harmful to themselves in making so much of this law as being applicable to them,—they are laying themselves open to the charge of maintaining "dance houses" rather than "dance halls." They have put considerable energy into inciting their patrons against the enforcement of this state law by making them believe that it operated upon the patrons. The law distinctly applies to keepers. If the dance hall managers would put as much energy into securing conditions absolutely above reproach, they would need feel no concern regarding the state law. The agitation of this past year connected with the dance hall situation and the effort to enforce the state law grew out of an awakening of intelligent citizens to the dangers surrounding such places. Since the city has no ordinance dealing with dance halls, the only means of checking the dangers is through the state law.

G. POLLARD.

Minneapolis.

To THE EDITOR:

I am quite familiar with the Minnesota state law, but consider it a piece of legislation which should be changed. The law that I referred to in my previous letter to you was the local ordinance in Duluth. I am familiar with the fact that there is no local ordinance in Minneapolis.

I reiterate my belief that a dance hall law which shuts out young people under twenty-one years of age is not advisable legislation, unless a full system of public recreation facilities through school houses, churches, municipal halls, social centers, etc., is provided to take care of the young people between fourteen and twenty-one, who have the greatest need for evening and Sunday recreation.

BELLE LINDNER ISRAELS.

[Chairman Committee on Amusement
Resources of Working Girls (Inc.)]
New York.

JOTTINGS

LABOR SUNDAY

The Federal Council Commission on the Church and Social Service (215 Fourth Avenue, New York) reports that about 20,000 pastors are arranging to observe Labor Sunday on either September 1, or in some cases, a later Sunday, and that the subject of seven-day labor will be presented with an appeal for one day in seven for industrial workers. The commission supplies a leaflet of suggestions and a printed program for the day on application.

SEAMEN'S BILL BEFORE SENATE

The United States Senate has received from the House of Representatives the seamen's bill. This bill, which has already been described in *THE SURVEY*,¹ was debated at great length in the House. Its friends fear, in spite of the strong support which it has received from many quarters, that it cannot pass the Senate at this session. It has been referred to the Senate Committee on Commerce whose chairman is Senator Nelson of Minnesota.

AN ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE NEGRO

A new and important encyclopædia has been added to the list of reference books on special subjects. The Negro Year Book, an annual encyclopædia of the Negro, edited by Monroe N. Work, who is in charge of research and records of Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, had its origin in an effort to answer systematically the inquiries that pour annually into Mr. Work's department. The book is divided into three sections, the Negro in 1911 under the subheadings economics, religion, education, politics and race problem; the Negro, his world distribution, governments, and chronology in America; and the Negro, his history in the United States. Under all these headings are given summaries of the facts, together with a bibliography of fuller sources of information. The Year Book may be obtained from Tuskegee Institute for twenty-five cents.

A QUARTERLY ON CHILD LABOR

The proceedings of the Eighth Annual Conference on Child Labor are published this year as volume one, number one, of the *Child Labor Bulletin* (quarterly) of the National Child Labor Committee. Proceedings of previous annual meetings have been published in the *Annals of the American Society of Political and Social Science*, but the demand for more frequent publications has led the committee to establish its own quarterly. In addition to the publication of papers dealing with the various aspects of child labor reform the *Bulletin*, whose editorial offices are at 105 E. 22d St., solicits news items and reports from its readers.

¹See *THE SURVEY*, May 18, page 292.

THE COMMON WELFARE

WHAT "WIDE OPEN" MEANT IN PITTSBURGH

Nine councilmen of Pittsburgh considered, from July 18 to August 2, a mass of testimony presented under the auspices of the Voters' League by social workers, ministers, private detectives and a policeman to show that under the administration of John M. Morin, director of the Department of Public Safety, the town had been allowed to be "wide open," particularly in reference to the opening of new disorderly houses, the sale of liquor in such places and the conducting of many gambling dens.

A hearing of charges against Director Joseph G. Armstrong of the Department of Public Works, was held in June and July, and Director E. R. Walters, of the Department of Health and Charities, will face a similar investigation beginning September 18. Counsel for both sides will sum up following the end of the last case and not until then will councilmen vote on the cases of any of the three directors. Hearings are not on the question of graft or the solicitation of bribes but have to do with incompetency and particularized inefficiency in administration, all being embraced under the charge of malfeasance in office.

That the attitude of many Pittsburghers towards Director Morin's department may be understood, it should be mentioned that Mayor W. A. Magee elevated him from the status of saloon keeper in April, 1909, to become head of the fire and police forces of Pittsburgh. He is Republican candidate for congressman-at-large from Pennsylvania.

Police officials—inspectors, captains and the superintendent, themselves to a degree defendants in the case—were witnesses for the defense. The principal points made for Morin were that the Hill and Northside sections (in which the "big number" houses have spread) are not properly residential districts; that it is difficult to stop the sale of liquor in houses; and that the "Lang" list of disorderly houses made up at the

close of the Guthrie administration was not complete. A "supplemental" list of ninety-three addresses of such houses operated in 1909, compiled from the memory of police officers, was offered, which, according to their figures, would cut the increase down to a dozen in number.

In regard to the character of the residents of the Hill and Northside sections, Anna Heldman, visiting nurse, and G. M. P. Baird, head worker of the Irene Kaufmann Settlement, testified, in response to the questions of Attorney A. Leo Weil, president and chief counsel of the Voters' League, that scores of respectable families of all nationalities reside in and about Poplar alley, Pasture street, Sachem alley, Colwell street and other thoroughfares mentioned in the testimony. Miss Heldman, after ten years' experience in the neighborhood, gave striking testimony of the deteriorating effect upon the character of growing boys and girls of the existence of such places in immediate proximity to their homes. Director C. C. Cooper, of Kingsley House, followed with like evidence. Nannie Oppenheimer, a probation officer of the Juvenile Court, who is in the Hill section every afternoon of the week, said conditions have been growing steadily worse in the last three years. The Rev. G. L. C. Richardson, head of the Methodist mission in Robinson street, Northside, told a similar tale of conditions in that neighborhood. The defense asked him to give specific addresses and names, and after a midnight tour through his neighborhood he returned to the stand with data. Elizabeth Stadlander, of the Juvenile Court, corroborated Dr. Richardson's assertions in regard to the Northside.

Former Director E. G. Lang struck a hard blow at the defense on both its second and third points. He told of his definite orders in 1909 to Superintendent Thomas McQuaide and inspectors still in office to include every house of a questionable character on the police list

compiled at that time. If they followed orders, there had been an increase, not of a dozen but of a hundred places, in the last three years.

"It is easy for the police to secure evidence," declared Mr. Lang. Defending police officers told of a "reign of terror" in the Hill section in the winter of 1908 and 1909 occasioned by assaults by Negroes and gave that as a reason for the opening of houses there. Mr. Lang produced evidence that the same police officials had found on investigation only two actual cases, the remainder of the alleged "reign of terror" being confined largely to the columns of a certain newspaper which "played up" the subject for political purpose.

ILLICIT LIQUOR SELLING PROVED

William Reese, patrolman of a downtown beat, was the star witness for the Voters' League. He told of reporting liquor selling in houses to his superiors and of being met with a laugh and the statement, "They are all doing that now." Apparently the prosecution was unfortunate in not discovering another witness, H. B. Rich, a contractor and former policeman, until after the case had been given to the defense. Mr. Rich has been making regular tours of disorderly houses in the past year to gather data for a book on the social evil.

Men working under the direction of Detective Robert Wilson made their reports in regard to liquor selling in the houses, the number of such places, and the practices permitted in them. Mr. Wilson told of a conversation a year or so ago in which he apprised Director Morin fully of the condition of affairs. The latter on the stand admitted the conversation, but claimed it occurred two years ago. A Wilson employe, a trusted friend of the detective-in-chief, who investigated gambling houses, was seen with a roll of money on July 17 and disappeared, being next heard of in Canada. A police lieutenant went on his vacation the day before the prosecution wished to call him to the stand. A woman of the underworld and a man disappeared between two days. When

Attorney James H. Beal attacked the Voters' League for having made charges of graft and solicitation of bribes on which no testimony was offered, Mr. Weil replied by explaining that a ruling of Judge Robert S. Frazer had required that specifications be given as to each charge prior to the hearing; and by pointing to the disappearance of three witnesses.

Superintendent McQuaide was asked if he was present at a conversation between Judge Buffington, W. H. Matthews, formerly director of Kingsley House, Mayor Magee and Director Morin, at which the statement was alleged to have been made for the administration that it refused to forbid the sale of liquor in houses on the grounds that the proprietors, if so forbidden, could make no money. He denied his presence there. Judge Buffington and Mr. Matthews were out of town and the questions asked Mr. Morin when he took the stand in his own defense were of so unimportant a character that he could not be queried in regard to his and the administration's policy in regard to liquor selling. The defense stated that Mayor Magee would take the stand but he did not do so.

The defense threatened to have the names of subscribers to the funds of the Voters' League made public but did not make the attempt. Mr. Weil made public denial of the existence of a half-million dollar fund of which he was to be paid \$15,000. Concerning this there had been much talk in circles in sympathy with the administration. From Detective Wilson the defense learned that the league's expenditures on account of the services of his men to date totalled only \$3,200.

Unlike many civic movements which reach court, the prosecution in the person of Mr. Weil, assisted by W. E. Walsh and John D. Meyer, was a match for the other side of the counsel table where Mr. Beal and John D. Hunter sat. Mr. Beal is a member of Reed, Smith, Shaw and Beal, attorneys for the Pittsburgh Railways Company.

The impression made on the public mind by the Morin hearing in contrast with that of Director Armstrong, was

summarized by the expression of a councilman:

"Armstrong turned his pockets inside out," he said, "and his counsel let him answer any question that would throw light on the subject. In this case, counsel made a battle of objections. Morin didn't seem to want us to get a peep into even his vest pocket!" In many quarters the strongest count against the director of public safety is considered to have consisted of departmental records showing that he had over-ruled the finding of the trial board in a number of instances when it recommended the discharge of offending policemen. In one case a patrolman had faced the board, consisting of the superintendent and inspectors, fourteen times. Other men had been found guilty of immorality, thefts and drunkenness.

A MORALS COMMISSION NOW FOR PITTSBURGH

These hearings give special pertinency to the inauguration last spring of a Morals Efficiency Commission in Pittsburgh. This body differs from a vice commission of the Chicago type. The latter aimed to arouse public opinion and to bring the average "good citizen" face to face with facts customarily dodged or hidden. The new Pittsburgh organization is to shun publicity, work quietly and will probably make its reports to city officials confidential. This policy is based on the ground that from an investigation and report of the Chicago type "no good could result that would compensate for the bad name which the reports of the commission might give the city if the findings were printed and scattered broadcast."

Mayor William A. Magee has appointed as members nine men and three women. A large proportion of the commission have been prominent in proceedings of the eugenics society. It is given only \$500 with which to finance the first year's work.

The members of the commission are Dr. Lawrence Litchfield; Dr. Frederick A. Rhodes; Professor John H. Leete, Carnegie Technical School; Rabbi Rudolph I. Coffee; W. L. Stewart, wholesale merchant; Edward A. Woods, in-

surance; George A. Seibel, newspaper man; Charles A. Poth, attorney; Mrs. S. B. McCormick, wife of Chancellor McCormick, University of Pittsburgh; Mrs. John H. Armstrong; Miss Suzanne Beatty; Professor Frederick S. Webster, retired.

Pertinent sections of the enabling ordinance are as follows:

Section 2. That such commission shall have power to suggest and recommend to the Departments of Police and Health, the council and mayor, such measures and activities, based upon private investigations and study of problems and conditions, as shall tend to improve the public morals of the city; and in order to make such investigation effective, shall have authority to invite communication and conduct inquiries for the purpose of securing information.

Section 3. Such commission shall have power to organize itself as it may see fit, to elect a chairman and a secretary, and to co-operate with other civic, religious, philanthropic and educational bodies to achieve the purpose of its creation. It shall at least once in three months make a report of its activities in writing to the council.

HUGHES-BORAH BILL PASSES THE SENATE

By passing the Hughes-Borah bill the United States Senate brings the proposed federal commission on industrial relations one step nearer. Carrying an appropriation of \$100,000 for its first year's expenses, the bill passed the House of Representatives a month ago, with an amendment fathered by Congressman Fitzgerald, chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, which bore evidences of being framed for the purpose of crippling the work of the commission. This amendment would have prohibited the commission from employing anyone at a compensation exceeding the rate of \$3,000 a year. Such a restriction, friends of the measure felt might seriously embarrass the commission in securing necessary expert service for particular parts of its work and mar the results that might be expected of a bill projected on broad lines and intended to provide for a thorough inquiry into all important aspects of the labor situation.

Shortly after the House acted, the Senate Committee on Education and Labor reported the bill favorably, changing it,

however, to a term of two years instead of three. A strong group of economists, social workers, business men and labor union officials united in urging that the term be increased to three years to permit of a more thorough and extended inquiry and that the Fitzgerald amendment be eliminated. Their efforts have met with success. The measure as passed by the Senate affirms the action of the House in favoring an appropriation of \$100,000 for the first year's expenses and provides for a report at the end of two years.

By a Senate amendment the smuggling of Asiatic labor into the country is made one of the subjects of the commission's investigations. The bill will now have to go back to the House for action upon the Senate amendments, before the President can sign the act creating the commission and appoint its nine members.

EXTENSION OF PAROLE LAW BEFORE CONGRESS

A measure which George W. Wickersham, attorney general of the United States, characterizes as one in the interests of modern philanthropic penology, is now pending before the United States Senate. The bill which has already passed the house and which has been favorably reported to the Senate, extends the benefits of the federal parole law to prisoners who have been sentenced for life terms. This amendment was recommended by the members of the federal boards of parole in their annual report for 1911.

The subject of the extension of the parole law to life prisoners was considered by the American Prison Association at its annual meeting in 1908. A committee of five was appointed to make investigations and report the following year upon the advisability of opening the benefits of parole to prisoners for life terms. That committee after thorough study unanimously favored the application of the parole system to life prisoners.

Fifteen states have already set the example by permitting any prisoner to be paroled after he has served a term of considerable length, provided his record

warrants. The Department of Justice suggests that if a life prisoner were required to serve fifteen years before he is eligible to parole, this period would be sufficient to impress upon the law breaker the seriousness of his crime and to act as a deterrent to others, while at the same time not being long enough to prevent his release until the period when his mental and physical powers are so deteriorated that he cannot be of any value to the community.

Under the present system of executive clemency, fifty-one United States prisoners sentenced for life have been released during the past five years. Of that number only ten actually served more than fifteen years' imprisonment. The average was about eleven and a half years. Since these prisoners are discharged the authorities have no further hold upon them, whereas under the parole system advocates of the bill urge that should the release of the prisoner prove to be detrimental to society, he may be retaken and returned to the penitentiary.

STUDYING A CITY'S HEALTH

About fifteen months ago, in May, 1911, the Public Health Hospital and Budget Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine was formed with a broad program as a medico-sociological laboratory. Its aim was to acquire exact information in matters of public health and to assist in turning this information to public account. The name shows the three sides of this program—work for the improvement and extension of our hospitals, from the point of view of equipment, administration, medical, economic and social efficiency; advisory work in the preparation of the municipal budget in co-operation with the other public and private social agencies, and underlying both these, the thorough study of public health in all its aspects both here and abroad with a view to recommending the best methods of meeting its problems in New York.

In its work as a bureau of research and information the committee was well started by a donation for an executive

staff from Mrs. E. H. Harriman. Through the efforts of the committee an association of dispensaries has been formed and this fall a system of districting dispensary work will go into effect.

Before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment the committee presented reports on New York hospitals, among them a study of the hospital for contagious diseases which led to special appropriations for these institutions. Reports have been prepared also on other aspects of the treatment of contagious diseases in New York, on the character of the examinations given applicants for municipal civil service medical positions; on the New York Board of Inebriety and on the sanitation of high schools and the health environment of school children.

Data is now being collected on the training of nurses, on the work of all public health agencies in the city and most important of all, on the present method of recording vital statistics. The committee believes that until the Department of Health has a bureau of vital statistics the city will be hampered in effective work for public health. The executive-secretary of the committee is E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, doctor of philosophy of the department of social science of Columbia University.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE CONSULAR REPORTS ON CO-OPERATION

N. O. NELSON

[BOTH AS MANUFACTURER AND WRITER, MR. NELSON IS PERHAPS THE DEAN OF AMERICAN CO-OPERATIVISTS, AND TO HIM THE SURVEY TURNED FOR A REVIEW OF THE RECENT GRIST OF CONSULAR REPORTS ON CO-OPERATIVE ENTERPRISES ABROAD—Ed.]

President Taft has called the attention of Congress and the country to the co-operative plan of business as related to the cost of living. Consular reports from many countries running through two years are the basis of his message. President Roosevelt directed the attention of the country life commission to this subject. Assistant Secretary of Agri-

culture Hayes, Mr. Egan, our minister to Denmark, and others in authority are ardent advocates of co-operation. For myself, I have passed the jubilee anniversary of my connection with co-operation and the practice of it in my business.

It is not generally known that the system is extensively used in this country by the orange and fruit growers of California, the grain and dairy farmers of the Upper Mississippi Valley and the truck growers of the South. It is spreading about as fast in this country as it did in Europe in its early stages. It has always been hard to start, but when set going right it goes of its own accord. Robert Owen is voted the father of co-operation, yet practically all his numerous societies failed. It was left for the twenty-eight Rochdale workmen to devise the simple plan, which is supplanting competition in trade and production. Burgomaster Raffeissen and Dr. Schulze-Delitsch did the same thing for banking in Germany and at about the same time—in the forties. The key to it is that the profit goes to the members based on the business done with or the work done for the association and not to the capital as in private business.

In the consular reports we learn that in Great Britain there were in 1909, 2,585,293 members, 166 millions share capital, 530 millions annual trade and 58½ million dollars net profits. These figures are now largely increased, the membership having grown 100,000 last year. My later information is that they have 85 million dollars invested in members' homes and the factories turn out about 75 millions a year.

In Germany, Austria and Italy people's banks or credit societies were the first and are still the most prominent forms of co-operation. Some of them are incorporated, but the commonest form is in effect a partnership consisting of, say, from 50 to 150 farmers, who need capital for profitable productive uses. On their joint responsibility the society borrows at a low rate from the big banks and also takes deposits from its members. Under a committee's supervision a loan is made to a member for a specific profitable purpose, he giving two fellow mem-

bers as security. In this way capital is brought in, its use is directed and no loss ever occurs. In some countries the government makes large advances to these societies through their central federated banks. Germany and Austria have upwards of 13,000 such societies each, and Italy has a large number. Then there are the creameries, selling associations, bakeries, stores, etc.

Denmark is the most completely organized of all and has shown the most comprehensive results. There are 1,157 creameries with 157,000 members; 34 slaughter houses with 95,000 members and 2,449 other trading societies. Their export of eggs alone is almost seven million dollars a year. Danish exports of butter, bacon, eggs, and stock exceed 100 millions a year.

In Germany the wholesale co-operative made sales in 1911 to the amount of 21 million dollars and the co-operative factory output amounted to 13 millions. The store membership increased by 125,000 in the year, making 1,200,000 in 1,100 societies.

Ireland has made remarkable progress in rural co-operation, having over 1,000 productive, trading and banking societies.

France, Germany, Russia and the smaller countries are well started and growing rapidly. The International Co-operative Alliance meets biennially (this year in Glasgow) and there are annual congresses in all the countries of Europe.

In this form of production and trade lies the hope of the world. Neither legislation, education nor social work can prevent the rise of energy and ability or the inclination of the majority to lean. Co-operation creates its own ability, introduces new ideals and standards, and holds the ablest by the slogan, "Each for all and all for each."

Trade has always been for private profit; it is the producer of riches and poverty; it subordinates welfare to profit. Co-operation gives to each the part of profit which his business or work has contributed. Dr. Sun Yat Sen, in his noble program for the revolution of Chinese society, following the racial and political revolution, should not rest with

borrowing the single tax from Henry George, but should borrow also the co-operative plan of business from the Rochdale pioneers.

THE NEW BEDFORD TEXTILE STRIKE

WARREN DUNHAM FOSTER

That the New Bedford textile strike will be another Lawrence now seems unlikely, but the situation is, in its way, as significant as was that in the other Massachusetts city. With no prospect of a present settlement of the strike, victory seems to be perching on the banners of the old labor organizations—but a sorry victory it is.

It is not strange that the city which saw one of the first serious defections from traditional trade unionism should be the scene of the activity of the Industrial Workers of the World.

The cause of the present strike goes well back into the 80's. Ever since then the manufacturers have insisted upon their right to fine operatives for imperfect work. On their side, the operatives have resisted the imposition of penalties. It was in the legislative session of 1887-8 that serious agitation for a bill prohibiting fining first showed itself. In the two sessions following, the bills were defeated, but in 1891 it was made illegal for employers, directly or indirectly, to make deductions from the wages of textile workers for inefficiency. Accepting the law, for the time, the manufacturers began to pay two sets of prices—one for first rate work and the other for that which was not up to standard. At this system, known as grading, the operatives rebelled. Rebellion was useless, however, for the Supreme Court declared the prohibition of fining was unconstitutional, but that the grading system did not conflict with the organic law of the commonwealth. This decision nullified the whole law. Soon after this, however, a legislative enactment required that the weaver give his consent to the imposition of penalties and that he meet with the overseer to decide upon the fine. Last year Charles F. Cummins

of Fall River insisted to the legislature that grading was in reality fining. A new bill prohibiting fining was passed by both houses and signed by the governor. Soon after the law went into effect, on a case brought by the Lancaster Mills, the bill was declared unconstitutional. Thereupon the manufacturers decided to collect fines, but, at the end of every six months' period, to distribute the amount of the fines equally among the operatives. The plan was to give each weaver, good, bad or indifferent, a share in the money collected from penalties. Immediately the weavers struck.

The manufacturers declared that they would be glad to meet the weavers if they had anything to offer in place of the system which had already been tried. The weavers said they did not wish any system whatever; that if their work was bad they wanted to be discharged, but that they would not accept a reduction in wages as penalty. Eight days later, the New Bedford Textile Council endorsed the action of the weavers. Eighteen cloth mills are affected. The few cloth mills that had no system of fining are working as are the woolen mills which were not affected at all.

The weavers, who compose about half of the New Bedford operatives, have a union of their own which, although it is affiliated with the Textile Council, has no connection with the United Textile Workers, an affiliated body in the American Federation of Labor. In 1903, the weavers broke away from the United Textile Workers and the breach is still unhealed. This year, however, the weavers offered to assist the "regular" unions to obtain a 10 per cent increase in wages in return for assistance in the endeavor to obtain the standard list. Before the outbreak of the present trouble, the 10 per cent increase was granted, but the standard list refused.

There are in New Bedford four divisions in the labor army. For several years, the I. W. W. has been represented under the direction of the Yates brothers—radical but unselfish leaders. The I. W. W. has grown from twenty-five or fifty members to the 600 or thereabouts in the organization at the time of the Lawrence strike. At the outbreak of the present trouble, the I. W. W. tried

to force a general strike, but was not successful. Notwithstanding this failure and the absence of money with which to pay strike benefits, the organization has grown probably to about 2,000 members now. The I. W. W. leaders themselves claim a membership of 6,000, but apparently have been unable to substantiate that figure. Following the principle of the organization, when the strike was not quickly successful, the I. W. W. by a large majority voted to call it off and to return to work. Those members who formerly held places in the mills which were not affected by the primary strike found that their places were filled and that, probably, for them all places in New Bedford would always be filled. The fourth division of the labor army is the large body of non-union men which is divided in its sympathies.

Although the system of grading was the fundamental cause of the strike the immediate occasion of the difficulty is really the same as it was in Lawrence. The fifty-four hour law has caused an increase of speed of the machinery in an effort to do as much work as was formerly done in the fifty-six hour week. The inevitable result has been poor cloth; because of the poor cloth, fines have been levied; because of the levying of fines, the strike has been called. Unlike Lawrence, however, there has been little demonstration. Early in the strike, there was some violence, but the I. W. W. leaders were at once arrested. The police met the violence at its inception; sufficient intelligence has been used to keep the situation well in hand as was not done at Lawrence, and the knowledge that to each policeman has been served an extra round of 200 ball cartridges has had a quieting effect on the more radical of the strikers and their sympathizers. Moreover, as yet, there has been little destitution in New Bedford. The earnings of New Bedford operatives are higher than those of the Lawrence men and women because the cloth turned out is of a better grade. The family surplus for this reason is not negligible. Charitable organizations in New Bedford are very highly organized and have freely used the large funds at their command. As yet hunger has played little part in the strike.

CIVICS

A PLAN FOR CO-ORDINATING STATE PUBLIC WELFARE WORK

L. A. HALBERT

GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT BOARD OF PUBLIC WELFARE, KANSAS CITY, MO.

[The establishment in 1909 in Kansas City of a Board of Public Welfare has resulted directly or indirectly in the creation of somewhat similar boards or social service commissions in Duluth, Seattle, St. Joseph and Cincinnati. Other cities in which there is agitation on foot to form social welfare bodies of similar character are Denver, Dallas and St. Louis.

Another interesting movement which is largely an outgrowth of the experiment in Kansas City, has been the formation of a private organization known as the Public Welfare League in Kansas. Among its directors are Frank Strong, chancellor of Kansas University, Dr. S. J. Crumline, secretary of the Kansas Board of Health, Frank Sanders, president of Ottawa University, J. K. Codding, warden of the Kansas City Penitentiary and Henry J. Allen, editor of the *Wichita Beacon*.

Mr. Halbert, at a public meeting in Topeka called to consider the adaptation of the work of the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare, made the suggestions for co-ordinating social work embodied in this article. Although it was prepared on the basis of local conditions in Kansas its main tenets are of general application in other states.]

The care of the poor, the sick, and the delinquent are interrelated problems. People who are too poor to secure a reasonable standard of living become sick, or people who are sick lose their earning capacity and become poor. People whose resistance is weakened either by poverty or sickness frequently become delinquent, and criminals often become poor through shiftlessness, or sick through vice and dissipation. Because of this interrelation it is important that the agencies dealing with all these classes should be carefully co-ordinated. Poverty, sickness, and delinquency are also closely related to bad living and working conditions. Therefore agencies for improving living and working conditions also need to be closely correlated to those dealing with the unfortunate.

Let us consider briefly the public bodies which are dealing with these problems. The Board of Control directs a number of varied institutions for the classes just mentioned. The Board of Penal Institutions governs certain others. The State Health Commissioner deals with unsanitary, bad living conditions. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has charge of factory inspection, of employment bureaus and of investigations designed to improve working conditions. The state school system, which is presided over by the state superintendent of schools, deals with poor pupils who cannot buy their books and also with certain delinquent and truant children. All these are state-wide agencies with well-defined powers and duties. It would be unwise to disturb the organization which they have built up, but I think that a form of co-operation of some sort might profitably be developed between them.

The heads of these various boards and departments could be organized into a sort of federation called the State Public Welfare Commission.

I wish to suggest, also, a form of organization for every county in the state and that this state commission be empowered to appoint a County Board of Public Welfare in each county. This method of selection would separate such a board from all purely political considerations and insure their having a primary interest in the unfortunate people or bad conditions in their local counties. I will outline their functions in detail.

1. Charitable Activities.

The County Board of Public Welfare should have control of all the relief dispensed by the county and should have the administration of the county poor farm when there is such an institution. It should be charged also with supplying the books to children too poor to buy them and should watch over all dependent children placed out to families in the county to see that their interests are properly protected. It should have the supervision of local private charities, making recommendation with regard to their endorsement by the state board.

2. Correctional Activities.

This board should have committed to it by the Juvenile Courts the delinquent children who are placed on probation in order that it, as a board, might work out the plans and look after the supervision or treatment of such delinquents. It should have supervision of the work of checking up truants from school. The county jail and oversight of all adult prisoners placed on probation should be in its charge.

3. Health Activities.

The duty of noticing and rectifying any unsanitary conditions should be entrusted to this board because the smaller communities

seldom have health officers, or if they do, these officers make that work merely incidental. The county board should pass on who should be sent to the state hospital at the county's expense. It should hire the services of such physicians as are necessary or select the cases that are entitled to the free treatment of a county doctor. It should occasionally secure samples of the water or food or milk supplies and forward them to the State Health Department for analysis.

4. Activities for Labor.

This board should co-operate with the State Free Employment Bureau both in getting citizens to secure their help from this source and putting the laborers in touch with this means of help. It should investigate any working conditions that are contrary to law, the protection of dangerous machinery and the observance of the eight-hour law on public works. It should also assist the Bureau of Labor Statistics in securing information pertaining to labor and industry in the local communities.

5. Miscellaneous Activities.

I suggest that the agents of this local board should look after the questions of truancy and of children too poor to buy their books because the problems of these children are closely allied to all the activities of this board and the causes of their difficulties may lie in some condition which could be remedied by this board. It might be practical to require all commercial recreation ventures, such as pool halls, dance halls, theatres and motion picture shows to get permits from these boards so that they might be supervised and censored. The county board might arrange for free legal aid in certain instances or suggest to the county commissioners special road work to supply work for the unemployed, if there seemed to be any special need. Lectures and other special means of educating the public on social betterment schemes could be promoted through it.

6. Plan of Work.

In some of the frontier counties of Kansas the volunteer services of such a board as I have described would be sufficient. In other counties, where there is too little work for a probation officer and too little for a truancy officer to make it practical to hire one of each or not enough work to keep a poor commissioner, all these functions could be combined in one intelligent social worker whose services would be continuous and much more effective than the haphazard efforts of an occasional officer who performs these duties for a fee. In more thickly populated counties it might be desirable to have several social workers in the employ of the county board. Their work could be divided either geographically or each could be assigned different duties or functions.

7. Trained Workers.

All the employes of these various boards should be under a civil service merit system and should be trained people as far as pos-

sible. It should be possible to transfer them from one county to another. In fact, a system of training with institute work for social workers might be arranged under the state university. A highly trained field secretary of the state commission should have general supervision of the whole scheme of county boards and standardize the work as far as possible. Outside of the employing of such a secretary and of the other office help and agents that would be necessary to carry on this work, the work belonging to each one of the various state departments represented in this commission, would continue as before.

TWO INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVE HIGH SCHOOLS

Lansing, Mich., is the most recent imitator of the Industrial Co-operative High School of Fitchburg, Mass. Superintendent of Schools Cummings is just completing arrangements for a course that will give boys alternating weeks of study and of work in industrial establishments under conditions of actual industry. As in the University of Cincinnati, the American parent of such undertakings, the boys will work in pairs. While one boy is at the machine—and being paid for his work—his mate will be receiving formal class-room instruction, but the next week they will exchange places. As yet the work for girls is in a nebulous state, but it is hoped that by the autumn of 1913 there will be a similar opportunity for the young women of Lansing.

Heretofore Lansing has made no provision for real training in industrial education. An awakening came when the manufacturers—mostly makers of automobiles and accessories—discovered that they were unable to obtain sufficiently skilled mechanics. Superintendent Cummings was quick to take advantage of this situation, and, aided by E. C. Cooley of Chicago, President Snyder of Cincinnati, and accounts of success at Fitchburg, succeeded in convincing the city that money could be made and boys rendered useful and happy citizens by the adoption of the plan. As has been true in most of the comparatively few American attempts at industrial education, an immediate industrial need was joined to the demand for educational justice.

This same increasing difficulty on the part of manufacturers to find mechanics sufficiently skilled to maintain the standard of their products and with an educational foundation to make them available for positions of responsibility, has led more than half a score of the biggest factories of Hartford, Conn., to join hands with the manual training department of the public high school in a co-operative plan of industrial education.

Acting on an appeal from the manufacturers, the school authorities in March opened a continuation school for machinists' apprentices and helpers. The overcrowded condition of the industrial courses in the evening schools has for some time made the need for such a course apparent. Some months ago,

says William C. Holden, who is in charge of the new venture, a committee of the Manufacturers' Association, headed by Charles B. Cook of the Royal Typewriter Company, after considering the following plan, petitioned the school authorities to offer such a course.

The plan is for the school to receive as pupils young men selected by the management of the shops up to the limit of the school's capacity. In the time allowed, which is two half-days, or eight hours each week, we aim to give them a group of studies that will be most helpful to them as mechanics, as men, and as citizens.

The course of study as now outlined follows:

First Year: English, drawing, mathematics, science, theory of shop practice; second year: English, drawing, mathematics, science, theory of shop practice; third year: English, drawing, science, accounting and system; theory of shop practice, and fourth year: English, accounting and system, civics and economics, industrial history and geography, theory of shop practice.

The course of study as now outlined is merely a suggestive group of studies. The real course must be a matter of development subject to revision, quantitative and qualitative, as experience suggests. One great difficulty experienced is in adjusting the work to make it equally efficient for all the boys. Some have never graduated from grammar school, while one has completed part of a college course.

The essential features of the understanding, as between the school and the factories, are given below.

1. No machinist employer in Hartford who subscribes to the regulations of the school, shall be debarred from sending one boy. Above that, the number admitted from any shop shall, or may be, pro rata of the number of employees on the pay roll, or as many as they may desire to send up to that limit.

2. The instruction shall be based on a contemplated four years' course of two half days per week, and shall continue, for the present, nine months each year corresponding to the regular school terms. It is believed that it should, and eventually will, continue for eleven or more months each year.

3. The school periods shall be 8 to 12 A. M. and 1 to 5 P. M., to be divided into five periods, conforming to the regular school periods, or at the discretion of the instructor.

4. Classes shall be subject to fire drills and to other inflexible rules of the school.

5. Pupils shall be paid and docked for tardiness, or absence according to the custom of the shop employing them, records of the same to be transmitted by mail each week.

6. Reports of grade or standing shall be made by the school to the employer and to the parent or guardian of each pupil four times each year at regular intervals.

7. The school shall classify all pupils by certificate or examination into the most efficient working groups, and transfer or promote them as conditions and progress suggest.

8. At the completion of the course, which shall be determined by progress and not by months of attendance, the school shall grant a suitable certificate.

9. In the case of indentured apprentices it is assumed that the school's instruction will be a consideration in the contract. The school will, therefore, receive such pupils only upon the approval of the contract and will feel at liberty to insist upon its fulfillment.

10. It shall be the duty of the teachers to visit the pupils at their work in their shops frequently, the better to understand their environment, their aptitude, their problems, and perplexities, and hence the better to guide and instruct them.

11. The classes shall also visit from time to time, by previous arrangement, the shops co-operating for the purpose of studying some phases of the work which are under consideration in the classroom.

HISTORY AND PURPOSES OF "PARK LIFE"

ROBERT E. YOUNG, Jr.

During Prof. B. J. Horchem's experience as a teacher in country and city schools, as a county superintendent, and as principal of a public school, he was fond of out-door work for his pupils. As county superintendent, he was zealous to see that Arbor Day was observed. Finally, in the fall of 1907, he purchased a neglected farm of a few acres near Dubuque, and in 1908 eight or nine of his boys went out to it two or three times a week to work in the garden a few hours. After they had finished their labors, they sat in their tent and debated, sang and learned of things that would be useful to them in later life. Their arithmetic meant something practical to them now as commercial problems came up; their board measure became useful to them in the shop; their physics and chemistry had a part in their everyday life. Agricultural problems sharpened their wits. Every boy at the end of that summer was healthier, wiser and happier.

The good results of that first year led to a continuance of the work. A few acres on the top of a majestic bluff overlooking the Mississippi river were secured. Here forty or fifty boys, attracted by the glowing stories of the older members, pitched their tents and stayed all through the summer weeks except Sundays. They experienced a summer of happiness and joy, of optimism and hope. They learned more than ever. Professor Horchem induced lecturers to come from various progressive educational centers. They opened to the boys realms which heretofore had been mysteries to them. The boys were told of the stars above them as they sat around the campfire at night. The doors of the plant kingdom were opened for them. Agricultural experts explained the good points of fine cattle and gave lessons in cultivating the great staple crops. The members of the group learned to govern themselves—the lecturers and professors marveled that there was such good order without formal discipline. The school was conducted for all, rich or poor, and it taught faith in the integrity of fellow associates.

Benjamin John Horchem, principal of a school in Dubuque, Ia., as the result of running a vacation school camp for five seasons along novel lines, is an advocate of a twelve months' school year. What is more, his boys like the plan. Some of his other beliefs are that our city schools should be in the suburbs, that desk work should not be featured so much as at present and that examinations are unnecessary and unwise. The accompanying article is by one of the first members of "Park Life" in 1908.

Then came educational trips. The boys were taken on short excursions to points of interest in the country surrounding Dubuque. On these jaunts the boys camped out.

The third and fourth years were repetitions of the second, except that the work was on a larger scale. "Park Life" antedated the Boy Scout Movement, as well as the later development of the school garden; but when new ideas or improvements were developed by these and other boys' clubs organizations, they were promptly incorporated in "Park Life," with the result that it employs some of the methods and principles of all in a harmonious blending of city and country life.

"Park Life" anticipated nature-study with large domestic animals. It teaches the youth to learn to do by doing, to know by seeing. It gives health first, sociability second, and then knowledge. It teaches the boys to appreciate a home with park-like grounds for ornamentation and economic purposes. "Park Life" instills a desire in the hearts of its boys to get away from the congested districts of the large cities—they will work to get little homes in the suburbs, surrounded by gardens. Rapid transportation will enable them and others to do this. By this means the slums, the festering sores of our cities, will be done away with. Every third generation should return to the land, or it will degenerate. With "Park Life" laborers living near to the soil, and combining city and country life, this danger will be eliminated. "Park Life" is as yet only in a transitional period. But in time these things must come about; and "Park Life" will be supported by the state, just as the public schools are, in order to maintain the integrity and wholeness of that state.

This year "Park Life" has secured a large tract of 400 acres near the city of Dubuque along the Mississippi as a magnificent location for continuing the work.

"Park Life" looks to a happier, more wholesome education of the physical, the intellectual, and the moral nature. It looks to the improvement of the social structure of America; and it takes into account the rapid change of conditions certain to come in the mode of life of the population of this country—something that our time-worn educational system of the present can not do. "Park Life" will prepare the pupils to enjoy more, and to be of greater service to their fellows under the new social conditions to which, as a people, we are rapidly tending.

JOTTINGS

ST. LOUIS TO ABOLISH ASPHITS

In St. Louis, beginning next November, household ashes will be removed by city wagons at the cost of the municipality. The drivers will be instructed to take only ashes which are placed in alleys in metal cans holding not less than ten nor more than twenty gallons. Wagons will call three times each

week during the winter. Thousands of ash-pits throughout the city will be rendered useless by this new ordinance. To prevent any concern manufacturing metal cans from gaining a monopoly of the sale of the receptacles, the street commissioner will send to retail stores a list of several kinds of approved cans now on the market and the names of the manufacturers. Several abandoned quarries will be filled by the ashes removed by the city.

SOCIALIZING SCHOOLS IN COLORADO

If Ben Lindsey has his way, and he has a way of getting his way, Colorado will probably be the first state to provide for social centers by name in its constitution. At the next general state election in November the voters are to pass upon the proposition of the Direct Legislation League for placing the playgrounds, recreation, neighborhood and social centers, public baths, public libraries and schools under the same authority. The proposed amendment also provides that except during school hours, school houses shall be open to the people for discussion of public questions concerning their civic, social, business, and political affairs. At present the conduct and business of the schools are regulated and controlled by general state statutes. In order to facilitate the wider use of the school plant by the people of the cities the league has included in the draft of the amendment a home rule provision for the schools. The arguments used by Judge Lindsey and his co-workers to support the change are that by combining the playgrounds, libraries, public baths, social centers and schools under the same governing board conflicts such as now exist in Denver between the Park Board and the School Board would cease, service would be co-ordinated and would cost less, because duplication of plant and employes would be prevented. An advance indication of the way the people are likely to vote has already been given. At the last municipal election in Denver the people defeated by 10,000 majority a proposed amendment to the city charter to create a fixed board to take over the playgrounds largely because it interfered with the plan for centralization.

SLOT MACHINES FOR CLEANLINESS

St. Louis is attracting the interest of other cities by its plan to supply a cake of soap, two paper towels, and a sanitary cardboard comb, all for one cent. The articles will be sold by means of slot machines operated by the city and placed in public comfort stations and in the picnic grounds in the parks. The towels, soap, and comb are wrapped in a cylindrical cardboard box, which drops into the hands of the purchaser. The boxes will be furnished at \$10 a thousand, and a manufacturing concern is to furnish the slot machines free. The city will really make money by this arrangement, because attendants at the comfort stations will no longer be necessary.

HEALTH

NURSING AND PUBLIC HEALTH

HARRIET FULMER

ST. LUKE'S HOSPITAL, CHICAGO

The eighteenth annual meeting of the American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses met at the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, in early June. Delegates were in attendance from all parts of the United States. Mary Wheeler, inspector of Nurse Training Schools of Illinois, was the presiding officer. It would be impossible in this limited space to give even the titles of the many interesting papers, reports and discussions dealing with the problems confronting the nurse educators. The really significant facts which developed from this conference are: (a) that the training schools for nurses must fit the student not only for actual bedside nursing, but for the larger field of public health service, in which the nursing profession must sooner or later play a most important part; (b) that nursing educators as a body must declare themselves for the higher educational qualifications of the nurse applicant; (c) that nursing institutions shall affiliate as far as possible with already existing educational institutions,—high schools, colleges and universities; and (d) that the registration laws be made uniform and compulsory.

Illustrating how the scope and purpose of this society has grown, the committee on revision of constitution recommended that the name of the organization be changed to The National League of Nursing Education. The report was unanimously accepted.

In connection with the reports and papers on state registration, there was a complete and carefully arranged exhibit showing blanks, reports, and copies of state laws of the thirty-three states having registration. This was compiled by Ida M. Giles, nurse of state board of Pennsylvania.

In the report of the committee of education, M. A. Nutting of the Department of Nursing and Health, Columbia College, said, in referring to the nursing and public health course at Columbia:

"The most significant event during the past year is the division of the college by the action of the board of trustees into two more or less distinct departments—the School of Education, which will continue to train teachers for all branches of educational work, and the new School of Practical Arts which is organized very much like a regular arts college, with a four years' course, the emphasis being mainly on technical and scientific work. Students will be able, however, to pursue all the academic subjects usually included in a college course.

"Students desiring to prepare as teachers or for educational work in connection with training schools or public health activities will register in the School of Education, while those who are to do practical scientific or administrative work mainly, will enter the School of Practical Arts. All are under the direction and government of the same department, and to the outsider there is no line of demarcation.

"This arrangement will be of distinct advantage to students who do not desire to teach as they will not be obliged, as was heretofore the case, to take all the educational courses in order to obtain a certificate or a degree.

"The most interesting feature of this readjustment from the standpoint of the department is the direct and definite connection of the college with the training school through the preparatory course. A student may now enter the School of Practical Arts direct from the high school, take her preliminary sciences in one or two years, enter a training school and return on the satisfactory completion of her course, to finish work for her degree. The work done in the nursing school, if it is of a high character, with good solid theoretical courses, is counted toward the degree, receiving quite substantial recognition."

Annie Goodrich, inspector of Nurse Training Schools, New York state, gave a general presentation of the statutory requirements of the different states. There are now thirty-three states having legal registration for nurses based upon an examination by a state board. In only seven states is this registration compulsory and without qualification. Miss Goodrich advocated similar compulsory laws in the other states.

The attitude of the hospital trustee, and the obligation of the hospital to the training school were covered in two important papers presented by Mary Gladwin, superintendent of nurses, Scranton Road Hospital, Cleveland, and Mary Riddle, of Newton Hospital, Mass. Inasmuch as the majority of the hospitals are receiving a larger proportion of service from the pupil nurse than the institution pays for, the nurse's time being used in performing duties of maids and orderlies, we may partially attribute to this the dearth of educated women as applicants.

The organization will meet in Atlantic City in 1913.

AMERICAN NURSES MEET

ELLA PHILLIPS CRANDALL
Teachers College, New York

The fifteenth annual convention of the American Nurses' Association met at Chicago last month, immediately following that of the American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses, hereafter to be known as the National League for Nursing Education. The convention was conspicuous for its numbers, its enthusiasm and for several enactments of historic importance. It is claimed that there were 4,000 nurses in attendance; at least it was the largest gathering of nurses that has been held in this country.

Perhaps for the first time American nurses were brought face to face in a comparative way with nursing facts, conditions and problems peculiar to the North and the South, the East and the West, through the exceedingly forceful and sympathetic report of the interstate secretary who had traveled many thousands of miles and visited hundreds of schools of nursing during the year just closed.

The Red Cross Nursing Service, which holds as its ideal to teach the world that the highest law is the conservation of life, reported larger enrollment (amounting to more than 3,100), higher standards and greater interest than ever and a promptness of response to calls of disaster surpassing all previous records.

The Red Cross Nursing Service of America now stands out unique in all the world in that it recognizes only nurses who have graduated from accredited schools and who meet the requirements of state registration.

The convention declared itself almost unanimously in favor of equal suffrage and sent a telegram to that effect to its honored member, Lavinia L. Dock.

Another action of far-reaching significance was that of the executive councils of the American Nurses' Association, and the National League for Nursing Education in joint session., which resulted in the appointment of a large and permanent committee with power to add to its number and with instructions to prepare a permanent exhibit representing every aspect of nursing interests. They were given as much time as they should find necessary in which to prepare for the first exhibition, after

which time the committee will keep it up to date and send it over the country upon request. This action grew out of the regretted necessity, owing to insufficient time for preparation, of rejecting an invitation to make a similar exhibit at the International Congress of Hygiene and Demography in September. American nurses find some consolation, however, in the anticipation that a paper will be presented by a nurse at one of the general sessions of the congress, setting forth the work which the exhibit would have portrayed in graphic form. It is interesting to note in this connection that about fifty years ago Florence Nightingale presented two papers before this congress, the subjects being, however, public sanitation rather than nursing.

The formation of a new national association designed to embrace all workers engaged in public health nursing activities was the outgrowth of a joint committee on standardization of public health nursing which was appointed last January, and represented the two national associations mentioned above. The name, the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, was chosen with especial care to adequately represent its very inclusive membership and interests. These are best set forth in the article on membership in its constitution, which reads:

"There shall be three types of membership—namely, corporate members, individual members and associate members. Any organization, whether a private society, a church, a business enterprise or a city, state or other governmental board or committee engaged in public health nursing shall be eligible for corporate membership provided that they conform to the minimum requirements for membership as established from time to time by this organization, and shall be entitled to one vote cast by a delegate in attendance, who shall be a nurse and a member of the American Nurses' Association.

"Individual Membership: Any nurse who is a member of the American Nurses' Association and actively engaged in public health nursing shall be eligible for individual membership which shall entitle her to the full power of speech and discussion at the meetings, and to the receipt of any literature which may be disseminated. She shall also have the power to vote.

"Associate membership: Any individual not a nurse, or any nurse not actively engaged in public health nursing, shall be eligible for associate membership, which shall entitle them to the full privileges of speech and discussion at the meetings and to the receipt of any literature which may be disseminated. They shall however have no vote."

It is the first instance to the writer's knowledge of a large body of nurses including lay people in its membership. It is therefore regarded as a very striking evidence that nurses are alert to the fact that their service to society is most intimately associated with that of other workers and that their interests are no longer peculiar to themselves. Indeed,

the primary object of the organization is the extension of public education in health matters. Social workers and public officers, as well as nurses, will be interested to know that Lillian D. Wald of the Henry Street (Nurses') Settlement, New York, was unanimously elected president of this new organization.

A happy feature of the meeting at which this organization was effected, was the presentation by the Cleveland Visiting Nurse Association of two gifts. The first was its local seal together with its copyright, to be hereafter the insignia of the National Association, and, it is hoped, the tangible expression of the standards of public health nursing in the United States, which will in time be universally accepted by all workers and sponsors of work in this field. This gift has peculiar value to nurses because it was the earnest hope of the lamented Isabel Hampton Robb that it might some day serve just this purpose.

The second gift was the *Cleveland Visiting Nurse Quarterly*, with all its rights. This is a journal devoted exclusively to public health nursing matters. The acceptance of the *Quarterly*, though no less appreciated than the Seal, was referred to the executive committee of the new organization, because of the financial and editorial responsibilities involved.

The climax of the entire convention came at the close when the American Nurses' Association granted to the other two national societies, The National League for Nursing Education and the new organization, corporate membership in its body with automatic representation through their presidents on its executive committee and through the same officers on its executive council as members ex officio. This action has for the first time in the history of nursing in the United States, welded together as a unit all interests and activities and needs and hopes of nurses expressed in the all inclusive name "American Nurses' Association." Through its active membership it represents about 25,000 of the 100,000 nurses practicing within our borders, and it is hoped that that membership will continue to grow until it becomes, not a creditable representation but a veritable enrollment. It is not too much to say that the convention is the most significant one since those which brought into being the original societies.

A HEALTH HOLIDAY

FRANCES FENTON BERNARD

A public health day with a number of new features was held recently in Gainesville, Florida. A group of women forming the civics committee of the local School Improvement Association was responsible for initiating the affair and carrying it through. Ready response to appeals for help was had, however, from the people of the town and from various organizations.

For three weeks beforehand the daily papers printed matter relating to health prob-

lems in a southern town, prepared by the civics committee. Malaria, its transmission and prevention; the hookworm disease; the fly-borne diseases; pure milk and water; and adequate sewage disposal were discussed concretely and the coming public Health Day advertised. Special emphasis was laid upon getting rid of the fly. The State Board of Health, in the absence of a city board, assisted through suggestions, the donation of Florida fly posters which were placed in the windows of all prominent stores, through the loan of the moving-picture on the "Fly Pest" and by providing lantern slides on malaria, hookworm, etc.

The assistant health officer, Dr. Hiram Byrd, was on the ground for a day and a half. Business men subscribed money for expenses. Programs of the Health Day's events were distributed widely a few days before, banners and posters were placed in conspicuous places and the mayor issued a proclamation setting aside the day for the special purpose of considering the community's health. The day began with exercises in the school. Dr. Byrd gave an illustrated talk on germs and parasites, to the 700 school children and to many parents and friends, and a fly-fighting campaign was started among the children. Almost 100 blood tests for malaria were made among the children and informal talks to each grade on prevention of malaria, care of the teeth, etc., accompanied these. The children were much interested. In the afternoon the fly film was shown at the moving-picture theatre. In the evening, the school children held a torchlight parade, carrying transparencies with health mottoes, and competing for prizes offered by business men. The entire town turned out to see the parade, which led to a mass meeting in the city hall. A leading physician presided, the mayor spoke and the council were present. The awarding of prizes to the school children was followed by lantern slide talks on malaria, the hookworm, the fly and next steps in Gainesville's health problems. Finally, a set of slides showing unsanitary local conditions such as dirty alleys, back yards, open garbage, etc., were shown and described by the sanitary inspector.

The movement for public health has only begun in Gainesville, but as a result of public Health Day, the school, representatives of the university, and the city officials have been enlisted in the cause.

JOTTINGS

BOOKS FOR NURSES

An annotated list of text reference books for training schools for nurses has been prepared by the department of nursing and health of the School of Practical Arts, Columbia University. The compilers of the list state that the purpose has been to suggest a number of representative works in each of the various fields and to indicate their general character, so that a judicious and varied se-

lection may be more easily made. The list is thus suggestive rather than critical or exhaustive." The bulletin (Technical Education Bulletin, No. 11) may be had from the Secretary, Teachers' College, 525 West 120th street, New York city, at a nominal price.

PREVENTION THROUGH HOSPITALS

"The time has come for hospitals to do something toward the prevention of disease. Millions of dollars are spent in caring for the victims of preventable diseases. It is time something was spent by hospital boards toward the prevention of disease. Too many hospitals are lax in their prevention work, notably in the failure to properly disinfect the stools of typhoid patients. The development of social service departments is a step in the right direction. The contribution of \$100,000 to Mt. Sinai Hospital was an earnest of what we may expect in other places. Medical health departments should be in very much closer touch with hospitals than they are."—Editorial Comment in the *International Hospital Record*.

"NEVER VACCINATED"

In view of the fact that it costs Michigan \$150,000 a year to take care of its indigent smallpox patients and to protect the public against the disease, the vaccination history of 283 cases of smallpox in Michigan reported during the first three months of 1912, is of interest. The State Board of Health classifies the cases as follows:

NO. OF CASES	WHEN VACCINATED
2	50 or 60 years ago
3	14 years ago
1	years ago
1	at the time of exposure
1	12 years ago
1	infancy and again 10 years ago
1	about 10 years ago
1	some 20 years ago
1	one week after exposure
10	about 3 years ago (some doubt)
1	some years previous
2	In childhood
2	when very young
1	30 years ago
2	6 years ago
1	2 years ago
1	4 years ago
1	5 years ago
5	doubtful if ever
245	NEVER VACCINATED

AROUSING RUSSIA OVER TUBERCULOSIS

The first conference of the Russian League against Tuberculosis, founded a year ago, was recently held. The deliberations of the council and assembly resulted in the following work-program for the year ahead:

The publication of the *Journal of the League*—6000 rubles have been settled to this purpose; a competition for a popular booklet on tuberculosis; a topographical map of the distribution of tuberculosis in the land; a collection of demonstrative tables explaining to the people the problem of tuberculosis; the preparation of a transportable museum of tuberculosis; the organization of the second meeting, enlisting the aid of the press, fur-

nishing public lectures on tuberculosis as a disease of the people, and organizing lotteries for the campaign.

INFANTILE PARALYSIS

Reports from states in which infantile paralysis is reportable and the printed bulletins of some other states show that although the number of cases in 1911 was not nearly so large as in 1910, the disease was widely distributed throughout the country. Cases reported in 1910 numbered 5,861, with 950 deaths; in 1911, 1,931 cases and 440 deaths. The data, however, are incomplete, and therefore the actual number of cases and deaths are undoubtedly considerably larger than the figures indicate. Commenting upon the reports, the *Journal of the American Medical Association* says: "These figures, however, bear out our previous knowledge that the disease has alternate active and more or less quiescent periods owing to lack of susceptible individuals or to the attenuation of the infection. Both causes probably operate." The *Journal* sees, in the need of more complete reports for studying the disease, an argument for extending the registration area.

COMPULSORY SEGREGATION LAW

What is regarded by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis as the most advanced legislation against tuberculosis that has been enacted by any state, if not in any country, is found in a bill recently passed by the New Jersey legislature and signed by Governor Wilson. The new law provides that tuberculosis patients who refuse to obey the regulations laid down by the state Board of Health concerning the prevention of the disease, and who thus become a menace to the health of those with whom they associate, shall be compulsorily segregated by order of the courts, in institutions provided for the purpose. If such patients refuse to obey the rules and regulations of the institution in which they are placed, they may "be isolated or separated from other persons and restrained from leaving the institution." The law further provides that all counties in New Jersey shall within six months from April 1, make provision in special institutions for the care of all persons in these counties having tuberculosis. The state treasury will pay each county \$3.00 a week for each person maintained in these institutions except those who are able to pay their own expenses.

The only other state, according to the statement issued by the National Tuberculosis Association, which provides for compulsory segregation of dangerous cases of tuberculosis is Maryland. The only city in the United States having a special ordinance providing for compulsory removal of dangerous cases, is San Francisco. A few other cities among them, New York, exercise this power under certain provisions of their sanitary code, but no other city has any special ordinance on the subject.

INDUSTRY

THE INDUSTRIAL PLATFORM OF THE NEW PARTY

PAUL U. KELLOGG

The men and women identified with child labor committees, consumers' leagues, charity organization societies, settlements and the like, who drew up at Cleveland in June a series of labor planks which they could stand for collectively, little thought that in less than two months their platform would be adopted bodily as the practical economic gospel of a new political party. Yet that is the way the event has turned.

For three years the National Conference of Charities and Correction has had a committee on standards of living and labor. At the close of this year's session under the chairmanship of Owen R. Lovejoy, those present adjourned as members of the conference (which adopts no resolutions), and as individuals put forward their platform of industrial minimums. There were trade unionists and representatives of employers' associations among them, but for the most part the participants were actively engaged in what we lump as social work. There was a logical sequence in their approach to industrial conditions. The standards they set were clear-cut and they offered the public a new conception of the sphere of governmental concern in industry. They held that the human waste which modern large-scale production throws back upon the community in the shape of trade injuries and occupational disease, overwork and overstrain, orphanage and depleted households gives the public a stake in the human side of industry; that because of this public element, the public is entitled to complete facts as to the terms of work—hours, wages, accidents, etc.; that with these facts and with the advances made by physician and neurologist, economist and engineer, the public can formulate certain minimum standards below which it can be scientifically demonstrated that work can be carried on only at a social deficit; and finally that all industrial conditions falling below such standards should come within the sphere of governmental supervision and control, in the same way that subnormal sanitary conditions because they threaten the general welfare are subject to regulation.

In line with this general principle, certain minimum standards were put out which have won acceptance among those who know labor conditions first hand; and public commissions were called for to: investigate wages, factory inspection, social insurance, etc., as a basis for formulating minimums which the public should sanction.

This general program Theodore Roosevelt drafted into his Confession of Faith and on August 6 put it before the Chicago convention of the Progressive Party with characteristic vigor. The same program had been presented by social workers at a hearing of the

platform committee, at the earlier Chicago convention; but it left little apparent residuum in the compressed labor paragraph adopted by the Republican Party. The Democratic Party merely reiterated its labor planks of four years ago.

On the platform committee of the Progressive Party, and among the members of a sub-committee charged with the actual drafting of the document, were Prof. George W. Kirchwey of Columbia University who laid the groundwork for the social and industrial planks; Dean Lewis of the University of Pennsylvania Law School, who acted as chairman; William Allen White of the *Emporia Gazette*; Chester H. Rowell of the *Fresno, Cal., Republican*, who proved a good team mate to the Kansan; Gifford Pinchot, former chief of the Forest Service; and Prof. Charles E. Merriam, the independent candidate who put up such a stiff campaign for efficiency and progress against Harrison at the last municipal election in Chicago. Charles McCarthy, head of the Legislative Reference Bureau at Madison, Wis., acted as general counsellor to the group. These men responded ardently to the conception of eliminating human waste from industry, and incorporated with it another important factor in their section on social and industrial justice. The second plank added to the section dealt with state and national action to give effect to the program, and pledged the federal control over interstate commerce and the taxing power to these ends.

"SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL JUSTICE.

"The supreme duty of the national government is the conservation of human resources through an enlarged measure of social and industrial justice. We pledge ourselves to work unceasingly in state and nation for:

"Effective legislation looking to the prevention of industrial accidents, occupational diseases, overwork, involuntary unemployment, and other injurious effects incident to modern industry.

"The fixing of minimum safety and health standards for the various occupations and the exercise of the public authority of state and nation, including the federal control over interstate commerce, and the taxing power to maintain such standards.

"The prohibition of child labor.

"Minimum wage standards for working women to provide a 'living wage' in all industrial occupations.

"The general prohibition of night-work for women, and the establishment of an eight-hour day for women and young persons.

"One day's rest in seven for all wage-workers.

"The eight-hour day in continuous twenty-four-hour industries.

"The abolition of the convict contract labor system; substituting a system of prison production for governmental consumption only, and the application of prisoners' earnings to the support of their dependent families.

"Publicity as to wages, hours and conditions of labor; full reports upon industrial accidents and diseases, and the opening to public inspection of all tallies, weights, measures and check systems on labor products.

"We pledge our party to establish a department of labor, with a seat in the cabinet, and with jurisdiction over matters affecting the conditions of labor and living."

As political issues, it is natural to compare these planks with the Lloyd-George program in England or with the objective demands of the Socialist Party. As social proposals, however, their origin lies in the gradual crystallization of working convictions among many of those who are in everyday contact with the rapidly developing economic conditions in our industrial cities and who in the various states have sought to grapple with them constructively, through protective legislation dealing with wage-earning women and children, compensation and factory inspection acts.

Social workers are in fact, perhaps more than in any previous campaign, supplying personnel as well as issues to organized politics. The most signal example is, of course, Charles D. Hilles, chairman of the Republican National Committee, who was formerly superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum. Louis D. Brandeis is perhaps the man best known in social work who looks to Woodrow Wilson as the candidate from whom progressive accomplishment in social reform can be expected with most confidence. Otto T. Bannard, vice-president of the New York Charity Organization Society, is one of the leading Taft men of the East, and Henry Morgenthau, chairman of the New York Committee of Safety, is a member of the Democratic campaign committee. Mrs. J. Borden Harriman, who has been identified with many philanthropic movements, is leading in organizing Democratic women.

The list for both of the older parties could be lengthened indefinitely; but the launching of the new third party has been the signal for the political outcropping of social workers. Ben B. Lindsey, judge of the Denver Juvenile Court; Raymond Robins, the social service campaign leader of the Men and Religion Forward Movement, and Jane Addams, headworker of the foremost American settlement, all made their impress as speakers before the convention. Miss Addams and Judge Lindsey are members of the new national committee. John A. Kingsbury, general agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; Samuel McCune Lindsay, former director of the New York School of Philanthropy; Frances A. Kellor, head of the Immigration Bureau of the State Labor Department; Mary E. Dreier, president of the New York Women's Trade Union

League; Margaret Dreier Robins of the National Women's Trade Union League; Alice Carpenter of Boston; Henry Moscovitz of the Joint Board of Sanitary Control of the Cloak, Suit and Skirt Trade, were among the delegates who bore an active part with respect to the social and industrial content of the platform.

It is a truism of political history that minority parties ultimately write the platforms for all parties. In time, the causes which they have the temerity to espouse, are taken up by the established organizations when direct appeal to the latter may have proven fruitless. Doubtless this feeling has played a part in leading these and other social workers to throw themselves into the new movement. They have also had a sense of belonging there. They find themselves not in the position of bringing powerful interests round to a new way of thinking but of being met more than half way by men definitely committed to progress in all lines. They see the possibility of a new alignment in American public life which may ultimately lead to a temperamental cleavage between the conservative and progressive and one which is taking shape at a time when another great extension of the suffrage is in process.

However things may turn, the fact remains that in the past month, we have had for the first time in American life a striking hands of political reformers, conservationists and social workers in a piece of national team play; political and industrial insurgency joining forces in a rounded social program. Whatever the outcome of the present campaign or of the third party movement, it may serve to bring forward by fully five years the active discussion of proposals which the public mind has been slow to react upon in the United States, despite the fact that in New Zealand, England and continental Europe they have made large draughts on constructive criticism and statesmanship of the first calibre.

Such developments as those at Chicago have been bound to provoke comment pro and con. There are those who are opposed intrinsically to the whole range of proposals regardless of who advances them. Others, whose minds are open toward them, but who, by no means convinced as to their practicability or consequences, are disinclined to see them advanced as pledges, rather than as topics for discussion. There are those who find themselves in agreement with President Taft in holding, as he did in his address of acceptance, that the popular appeal of his contestants to the social unrest is vague, and where not vague, is Socialistic, and look to a slow and deliberative evolution, along lines familiar in the past for the solution of many of our social problems. There are those who find agreement with Governor Wilson in believing, as he stated in his address of acceptance, that the "so-called labor question is a question only because we have not yet found the rule of right in adjusting the interests of labor and

capital," and, who point to the social and economic legislation passed in New Jersey under his governorship as an earnest of things to come under his presidency, not as "class legislation" but as measures "taken in the interest of the whole people." There may even be those who will endorse the New York *Evening Post* in threatening social workers with their jobs for making common cause with the third candidate, long since convicted, in the opinion of the *Evening Post*, of personal sin and gross public immoralities. And there are those who, while sincere advocates of some or all of the proposed measures, believe that the hope of fundamental social reform, involving often technique and slow definition, lies in the strategy of a detached position, from which social workers can make their appeal to the leaders of all parties. In antithesis of these various positions, the frontage taken by those who have thrown themselves into the new movement, was interpreted in a few luminous phrases by Miss Addams in seconding Mr. Roosevelt's nomination. Speaking both as a worker in the cause of woman suffrage and of social advance, she said:

"I rise to second the nomination, stirred by the splendid platform adopted by this convention.

"Measures of industrial amelioration, demands for social justice, long discussed by small groups in charity conferences and economic associations, have here been considered in a great national convention, and are at last thrust into the stern arena of political action.

"A great party has pledged itself to the protection of children, to the care of the aged, to the relief of overworked girls, to the safeguarding of burdened men. Committed to these humane undertakings, it is inevitable that such a party should appeal to women, should seek to draw upon the great reservoir of their moral energy so long undesired and unutilized in practical politics—one is the corollary of the other; a program of human welfare, the necessity for women's participation.

"We ratify this platform not only because it represents our earnest convictions and formulates our high hopes, but because it pulls upon our faculties and calls us to definite action. We find it a prophecy that democracy shall not be actually realized until no group of our people—certainly not ten million of them so sadly in need of reassurance—shall fail to bear the responsibilities and give the education of self-government.

"The new party has become the American exponent of a world-wide movement towards juster social conditions, a movement which the United States, lagging behind other great nations, has been unaccountably slow to embody in political action.

"I second the nomination of Theodore Roosevelt, because he is one of the few men in our public life who has been responsive to

the social appeal and who has caught the significance of the modern movement. Because of that, because the program will require a leader of invincible courage, of open mind, of democratic sympathies, one endowed with power to interpret the common man and to identify himself with the common lot, I second this move."

DEEP LAND-DIVING

"The most hazardous occupation known to man," says a recent bulletin issued by the Bureau of Mines, "is that of life-saver in the bureau." Continuing, the bulletin's statements are substantially as follows:

It is popularly supposed that deep-sea diving has the highest mortality rate among all the dangerous callings, but it is not to be compared with rescue work. In the first year of this service two out of the twenty-four experienced miners employed by the bureau in this desperate work have given their lives while attempting to save others. Seven others have fallen unconscious in the poisonous vapors of the mines and have been rescued and resuscitated only after the most heroic efforts of their comrades.

The mortality rate among Bureau of Mines rescuers is on this basis eighty in one thousand men.

With such a fearful record before them, it might be thought that miners would hesitate about engaging in such a business, but this is not the case. Miners are as brave a body of men as can be found in any industry, and those who have been trained in rescue work by the Bureau of Mines and have sought employment as life-savers are imbued with the spirit that they are engaged in a great work, which promises within a few years to materially reduce the death rate in American mines.

That the life-savers have made a good beginning is shown in the records of the Bureau of Mines. In the period of one year forty entombed miners have been rescued directly through the efforts of the bureau's men, and perhaps as many more by individual miners who were trained in rescue work by the Bureau of Mines. Best of all, the federal rescuers have stopped the death roll among volunteer life-savers at disasters. In the past it is said that a rescuer has given up his life for every man saved. Forty volunteer rescuers were killed at Hanna, Wyo., two years ago, trying to save fourteen entombed men. At the Cherry mine fire in Illinois twelve volunteers who went into the mines were brought up on the cage lifeless.

Since the Bureau of Mines took up this great work but one volunteer rescuer in the last eight or ten disasters has lost his life, and this was a hero in Colorado, who loaned his helmet to a dying miner. The latter was saved, but the rescuer was found dead where he had given up his helmet.

In the accomplishment of this, as said before, the Bureau of Mines has had two martyrs—Joseph Evans of Wilkes-Barre, Pa., at

the Pancoast colliery fire, Throop, Pa., April 7, 1911, and John Ferrell, Ellsworth, Pa., at a fire in the Cherry Valley mine, Washington county, Pa., January 19, 1912. Evans, who had been an experienced miner and mine foreman for years, had been trained by the Bureau of Mines and had charge of the mine rescue car that responded to the call for aid. He lost his life while pressing forward in the suffocating gases to locate entombed miners and bring them to a place of safety. All indications show that Evans died from over-exertion in his heroic efforts to save the lives of men, some of whom he had known personally, having worked as a miner in that section of the coal fields.

Ferrell was exploring a burning mine with the idea of determining whether it was safe for the miners to enter when he met death. He had gone in the mine with another federal rescuer, who had become affected by the gases and who had told Ferrell he intended to get to the fresh air as soon as possible. The second rescuer staggered fainting out of the mine, but Ferrell failed to follow, as he had promised. Another bureau rescuer, alarmed at the failure of Ferrell to appear, went in search of him. Later he returned and fell unconscious. Still another rescuer endeavored to find Ferrell, and barely succeeded in reaching the surface before he became unconscious. A second crew from the Bureau of Mines responded, and Ferrell's body was recovered. From its location it is assumed that Ferrell, in the darkness having failed to note his comrade pass on the way out of the mine, went in search of him. Thus Ferrell gave up his life endeavoring to save another.

These are two of the "one chance men" described by Damon Runyan in the *New York American*:

Main North vomits a fearful roar, and seventy men are in the hole;
Whites and blacks and a Jap or two, but probably never a living soul.
Probably not, but there may be one. Is there a man who will go and see?
Swinging a safety lamp he comes, and, God! What a man of men is he!
Overalled, capped, and a querulous grin; Bobbing his head as he dives in—
Shoving the weeping girls aside: "Don't let them follow me!"
Into the dismal pit he goes
By the light of the lamp that faintly shows
Where the dead lie dead in mournful rows—
God! What a man of men is he!

Main North's mouth breathes the breath of Hell, and its guts are rotted with afterdamp,
But God and the State send a man to see, and he goes looking with a safety lamp.
Death lurks there, but it hides its face from a man who passes so carelessly,
Peking his light in its very eyes—God! What a man of men is he!
Grease and grime to the roots of his hair; Blear-eyed, bleeding, as he tests the air—
Tests the roof, and tests the walls, and notes where the dead must be:

Over the falls of treacherous shale;
Ears sharp set for a human hail—
On he goes down the Death wind's trail—
God! What a man a man can be!

It's a hundred to one that never a man has lived for a moment after the blast—
But the mine inspector's a one chance man, and he follows that chance from first to last.
The women pray at the mouth of the pit as the dead file out so mournfully—
Down in the depths he toils for them—God! What a man of men is he!
Listens and hopes for a human cry;
Feels of the dead as he passes them by—
Feels for the tunk of a human heart where the forms stretch silently.
Follows a hope however slim;
Maps a path through the chaos grim
For the rescue gangs that must follow him—
God! What a man a man can be!

JOTTINGS

HOUSE BARS STOP WATCH

The House Committee on Labor and the Senate Committee on Education and Labor have reported favorably the bill introduced by Representative Pepper to regulate the method of directing the work of government employes. This bill is really the result of the work of the special committee which investigated the Taylor system of management for the House. It makes it unlawful for any officer having charge of the work of any employe of the United States government to "hold the stop watch" over an employe in order to make a time study of his movements. The bill also says that no premium or bonus or cash reward shall be paid to any employe except for suggestions which result in improvement or economy in the operation of the plant in which he is employed.

The preamble of the bill is a long one, and sets forth the main argument for its passage, namely, that the tendency of so-called scientific management is "to further aggravate the accident disabilities and mortality and reduce the workman to a mere mechanical, instead of a social and moral, relation to his work."

WESTERN UNION PENSIONS

The Western Union Telegraph Company has announced a pension plan applicable to employes who have been twenty years or more in the service. The amount of pension will depend upon the average salary received by the employe for the ten years preceding retirement and also upon the number of years of service, the amount increasing progressively after twenty-five years. The minimum is \$25 and the maximum \$100 per month.

This move has apparently not had the effect of allaying the unrest, according to the *Commercial Telegraphers' Journal*, which exists generally among the employes of the telegraph companies. The *Journal* is urging a campaign for government ownership.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

THE HOME IDEA IN HUNGARY'S REFORMATORIES

ISABEL C. BARROWS

Some years ago Hungary discovered that too much crime was being committed by her boys and girls under twenty. Accordingly, she concluded that methods adopted up to that time for lessening juvenile waywardness were inadequate. Her answer to this condition was, not only to increase the number of reformatories but to revise their administration. To be sure, as long ago as 1792 Hungary had ordained that there should be "*pro junioribus ceterisque quarum emendatio facilius sperari potest, domus correctoria.*"

But it was easier to plan than to execute. In 1843 it was argued that there should be a reform school for young offenders in connection with every prison. As the years went by asylums and reform schools of the old-fashioned type were established here and there, but it was not until 1884 that the excellent school at Aszod was founded. This was followed by one in Kolozsvár in 1886, one for girls in Rákos-Palota in 1890, and a third for boys in 1895. Since then one has been established in Kassa, making four for boys and one for girls, all under the same authority, the minister of justice. All are under a similar régime, the cottage plan, though differing in the degree to which technical education is carried out.

In accordance with the determination to improve her methods, the reform schools of different countries were visited and a system suited to the people of Hungary was formulated. This had for its foundation the home idea, though the minister of justice frankly confessed that in these cottages under the care of a man, the most important element in family education,—the mother—would be lacking. He thought the system, however, far preferable to any system based on military rigidity and severity. The families are limited to twenty inmates and the head of the family, or his substitute, is always present to guide, watch over, and inspire the boys.

After trying both methods the people of Hungary decided that it was unwise to make two classes of children who need state care. If some children have been arrested and found criminal, they are not, after all, differ-

ent from many others in exactly the same surroundings who have not been caught. These are of the same stock, and with insufficient guardianship and bad homes, they are likely to become criminals. They are, therefore, received into the same institutions which are not in any sense prisons. They are considered schools and the inmates are called boarders or pupils.

Various experiments as to classification in the cottages were made. After several had been tried and not found satisfactory, the present plan of classifying boys by occupations was decided upon. Each family is a unit. The boys never come in contact with the other families, except on Sundays at service, when they are not allowed to converse. If more than one cottage is following a certain industry the older boys are put together in one and the younger in another.

Each newcomer goes into solitary confinement for a certain period in the reception cottage, where he is visited daily by the director, the religious helper, the doctor, and the foreman who keeps him supplied with some kind of work. The boy's history is learned, his character is studied, he is influenced for good, his tastes are learned, his capability gauged, and when the director sees fit the boy is placed in the family which is to be his home until he is of age, or has so mastered his trade that he can go out, not as an apprentice, but as a master workman. Besides this training for work with the hands, school work, moral instruction, and religious teaching are given the boys.

Hungary has now provision for 940 boys up to the age of twenty, and for 240 girls. The schools having the highest grade of teaching are at Aszod and Kassa.

The writer has visited at Rákos-Palota, near Budapest the admirable school for girls and the reformatory at Kassa for boys. The girls reformatory teaches domestic employments, from keeping house to breeding fowls and caring for a dairy. In addition, the girls learn to sew, to embroider white linen, church vestments, and altar

cloths, and to make exquisite lace. They were a bright lot of young girls and women, happy in the good home about which there was not a trace of prison atmosphere. A few were weaving baskets and others making dainty artificial flowers.

At Kassa there are twelve cottages with twenty boys in each family. The daily life is simple and wholesome. The beds are spotlessly clean and well made, the boys themselves taking care of them. The dishes consist of a cup, plate, spoon, knife and fork, and they are washed by the boys. Each boy has his own set, which he keeps in his locker. He has also a small ventilated locker for his simple wardrobe. The boys wear uniforms, which are attractive for their absolute cleanliness. Neatness and personal cleanliness are important means of moral reformation at these schools.

The diet is simple but based on scientific principles, and the boys gain in weight and strength steadily under it. It is the same in all the reformatories, with extra food for the sick if ordered by physicians. In general, it may be said that it consists of four repasts daily. The bread, two pounds, is divided into four rations. For breakfast they have in addition one-third of a quart of milk. For dinner, four times a week, a pint of soup, and some vegetables; three times a week, besides the vegetables, bouillon and three ounces of beef. Seven times a year, on festival days, they have for dinner 13 ounces of roast pork or veal. For luncheon they have half a pint of milk, or an ounce of butter with their bread, or some fruit. For supper a pint of soup five times a week and twice a week vegetables. They are not allowed to buy any sort of food, but those who have good marks may receive things from home on holidays. Great care is taken that the food shall be of excellent quality and properly cooked in the central kitchen whence it is distributed to the cottages.

The school work is planned with relation to the practical life, and no time is wasted. There are different chapels for various religions: Catholic, Jewish, Lutheran, and Calvinistic. Great stress is laid not on any particular confessional, but on the devotional attitude in life, and nothing is done without acknowledgement of the divine source of power. In all the reform schools of Hungary the following six prayers are used without dis-

tinction of faith:

Morning prayer. My first thought is addressed to thee, O my Father, who hast kept us during the past night, my comrades and me, thy unworthy servants, from all evil and danger. Give us, our Father, strength and endurance for this day, that we may pass this short period of our life to thy satisfaction and to that of our superiors. Glory to thee in heaven and to us on earth peace. Amen.

Before study. Bless us, O our all-powerful Father, and open our minds that we may understand that which our master is going to teach us; that we may remember it and through it become as thy children, more deserving of compassion. Amen.

After study. We thank the Lord for all the wise instruction which we have received from our master. May we use it for our good and for that of our neighbors, as to thy glory, our heavenly Father. Amen.

Before meals. Bless, O my God, the food of which we are going to partake. Bless all those who offer it to us and give daily bread to all my neighbors, even the poorest. Amen.

After meals. All powerful God, who dost clothe the flowers of the meadows and who dost feed the birds of the air, I thank thee that thou dost not forget us. Grant, O God, that this food which, through thy grace we have shared, may strengthen our bodies that we may serve thee. Amen.

Evening prayer. Our holy Father who art in heaven, lo, another day has passed in which we should have kept thy commands. If we have not succeeded, because we are weak, be merciful, O our Father. And while our weary bodies rest may thy eyes, which see all things, watch over us and over all our neighbors. Glory to thee in the highest and peace here below. Amen.

It is on the industrial side of Kassa that one is most struck with what Hungary is doing. Four separate industries are carried on, each in charge of expert teachers and heads of departments. There is first the outdoor work, which includes gardens, lawns, greenhouses, orchards, market gardens and fields. The boy who goes through the course has practical training—a knowledge of theories of various methods of cultivating the soil; a knowledge of grains and plants, fruit trees, vines, wine making, silk raising, draining and landscape gardening.

In the next department leather work of all kinds is taught with the same practical and thorough instruction. In shoe making, the boys must learn the anatomy of the foot, the relation of bones, ligaments, muscles, joints, nerves and tendons; they must know the normal foot and the deformities of the feet; they must be able to show all these things

by drawings. Then they must learn all about leather and its special use for a foot covering, and cut the shoes, boots, sandals, and ties by patterns which they have drawn themselves, cutting them first in paper, and then be able to construct them by their own handiwork. The leather industry includes the making of trunks, valises, portfolios, saddle bags, toilet cases, portemanteaus, etc. It is as beautiful work as can be found in a first-class leather store in Vienna.

The wood industry is mainly cabinet work, and the boys make costly inlaid, highly polished, and truly artistic furniture. Some realization of the thorough training these young men receive is gained from the splendid work of their hands which is seen in an alcove curtained off with handsome draperies (also their work). There are drawing-room tables, chairs, sofas, and other finely made articles.

The fourth department is not less surprising. Here little boys may be seen winding bobbins with threads of various kinds. The accomplished and courteous professor who has these industries in charge will act as guide, conducting visitors through every branch of the weaving and spinning, from the simple hand loom for rags to the intricate Jacquard loom, with its roll of handsome silk tapestry. Strong, serviceable linen towels, beautiful damask table-cloths, with genuine Hungarian designs, heavy draperies, floor rugs, soft and rich in color and firm in consistency, are some of the products of these looms, one or two of which, by the way, were imported from America.

Not only do these boys learn to make the whole of any one object, and to make it as well as it can be made by hand, but they learn the use of machinery, all the power being electric. This makes them able to go into the best type of shop and factory when they are out in the world again, and so it is hoped to aid in developing industries all over Hungary. Hungarian names for all tools and materials must be used. German names are not allowed, for the teachers wish to inspire patriotism as well as skill.

The course of instruction in these reform schools is four years, and the boys work from forty to fifty hours a week at their trades, besides having twenty-one hours at their books. Allowing fifty-six hours for sleep and seven for recreation, there is not much chance for mischief.

The boys receive wages for their work, a certain proportion in each department. This is not paid to them in cash, though half of it may be used for friends in need. The rest is held for them till their final release, except a proper amount that may be used to purchase books, musical instruments, tools, drawing material, or similar things.

Every boy has his conduct book, in which his marks for conduct, application, and diligence are entered every week. Rules for the guidance of all these reformatories are issued from the department of justice. The discipline in all of them is as nearly uniform as possible. Meal hours, the time of rising and retiring are prescribed; the director has only to carry them out. The number and kind of garments for each boy and girl are given.

Strict regulations for the heads of families, teachers, assistants, the chaplains and doctors are laid down. The "curator" of each school is held responsible for any damage that his vigilance might have prevented, and he must deposit the amount of a year's salary to meet such losses before he begins his work. The deposit draws interest, which is regularly paid to him. The doctor must carefully report on each boy. The chaplains are warned not to preach over the heads of their hearers, and to make more of the substance of religion than its shibboleths. A "domestic council," made up of all the officers of a school, must consult every month and send their findings to the department of justice. The institutions are known as the "professional schools of the correctional establishment of Kassa,"—or wherever the school exists. Annual examinations take place and certificates are given showing each pupil's accomplishments.

At the age of twenty the inmates are released, but they may be released conditionally before that time if they can earn their own living. A good many pay something toward their own expenses while in the school. If the parents are not morally suitable persons to receive their sons and daughters, the young people are placed in probation elsewhere under the "patronage" system. A record is kept of all who leave.

The results of this careful and scientific work in the reformatories of Hungary will be watched with great interest in America, where we are trying to do similar work, extending it, however, to young men up to the age of thirty.

PLAYGROUNDS FOR GROWN-UPS

Alice A. Hills

Twenty-five years ago children's playgrounds were almost unknown, but since the formation in 1906 of the Playground Association of America about four hundred cities and towns have acquired supervised playgrounds. Their value is self-evident; as a medium for doing philanthropic work they are especially useful. Parents' hearts are immediately won if special attention is shown in teaching Leah to dance or Jacob to jump, and bananas and soda-water are lavished upon the instructor. Extreme poverty is sometimes brought to light through playgrounds, and occasionally a young Jesse James is discovered, who quite often proves to be mentally defective.

But what is being done for the child's parents and elder brothers and sisters? There are rich people who lead such lives of luxury that their condition is almost as lamentable as that of the poor, but they have the means, if not always the energy, to better themselves. The poor person's strongest instinct is to play, but having no facilities for wholesome recreation, most of his leisure and money are expended at the saloon. The middle-class men and women are confined to lives of constant economy—in money, time and pleasure—and not having the independence of the very rich or the very poor, their lives are greatly constricted. They work conscientiously during the day and on holidays indulge in the doubtful recreation of theaters and amusement parks.

As a result we have worn-out nerves and misery and drunkenness, conditions which are due largely to lack of proper recreation by means of which to counteract the monotony of the day's work.

In Germany and Russia gymnastics is an important part of the training in the standing army, in which every man in the country is compelled to serve a period of two years. In Sweden the government requires that a certain part of the day be devoted to gymnastics in the public schools. In England out-of-door sports and exercises are the common rule; while in our own country public gymnasiums and recreation centers are almost unheard of except in very large cities.

You say it would be absurd for grown people to play like children. Then hear where it is actually done.

In England every year at Stratford-on-Avon there is a pageant given in honor of Shakespeare; hundreds of the townspeople take part—men, women and children who dance and give scenes from the life of Shakespeare and his great plays. In our own country we have the festival of the Mardi Gras in New Orleans, and during the past summer a pageant was given in the town of Thetford, Vermont, in which men and women of the community as well as children participated. This plan of recreation for

grown people was tried by the Department of Docks and Ferries in New York in the early eighties, but a rough element proved too much for inadequate supervision and the attempt was not repeated. At Rutherford, N. J., the past year playgrounds were used constantly in the evening by grown people who lacked courage to attend during the day. As a consequence of this interest it was decided to open the grounds to older persons two nights a week. A few weeks ago the writer attended a mother's club meeting under the auspices of the Children's Aid Society in New York, and instead of the mothers sitting by and talking over their daily cares, they danced folk dances and played basketball. Did they look absurd and undignified? Not in the least. They danced gracefully and learned quickly, but the important thing about it was that they were enjoying it and forgetting their cares.

Some people say, "Grown people don't need recreation—they stay at home." But where do the people come from who parade the streets at night? They are merely looking for amusement, recreation—but what they find is not elevating to themselves or of especial credit to an American City. As a result, police-stations and alms-houses are filled. If the roughs who "hang around" street-corners could work off their energy in play or legitimate sport, they would not be so ready to assault and rob; if they were physically well, they would not be so willing to drink.

There are gymnasiums for them to attend, you say. There are approximately 3,476,476 adult inhabitants in New York; there are about 150 public gymnasiums and recreation centers, including settlements, Y. M. C. As., etc. This would make it necessary for about 23,000 people to attend one gymnasium. But even if there were enough to accommodate this number, they would not be filled; one of the essentials of play is the open air.

Of course, on grown people's "playgrounds," the sand-box and sliding-chute would be superfluous,—but these could be substituted by gymnastic apparatus, baseball, basketball and tennis courts. There are several games for adults which have become almost obsolete in this country; archery is a sport much used in past years, requiring skill and practice; bowling on the green is another game almost forgotten; moving pictures are given on some grounds; pageants, dramatics and folk dancing could be made especially interesting.

It would be a comparatively simple matter to open the day playgrounds at night for grown people, and though there would no doubt be difficulties to overcome, the results would be gratifying in the end; for fresh air and physical exercise performed in a spirit of play is a sure recipe for a normal state of mind. This course would be but following out the natural development of the child's playground movement. Well supervised recreation grounds for grown people should become a part of every city system.

THE SIXTH SAGAMORE SOCIOLOGICAL CONFERENCE

MARY C. CRAWFORD

Secretary Ford Hall Meetings, Boston

Cape Cod bedecked with wild roses again made an ideal background for the Sagamore Beach Conference for which two hundred social workers came together as the guests of George W. Coleman and his associates. The list of members and friends of this conference shows the extraordinary breadth of Mr. Coleman's acquaintance. For several days an old-time, conservative Baptist or Methodist preacher will perhaps sit side by side at the table with an attractive young actress, or a secretary of an anti-saloon league next to a brewer. And for every one of us this is good. The need of brotherhood will always remain the biggest need of all.

The opening speaker this year was Prof. Charles Zueblin who gave a thoughtful paper on *How Much of The New Social Order Is There in the Present?* Mr. Zueblin fervidly pointed out the direction which needed reforms may take. In the field of politics, in his opinion, revolution can be avoided only by a complete revision of the constitution of the United States. "No people," he declared, "ought to be governed by their ancestors, nor by people who have no personal interest in the question involved." In the schools radical social reforms cannot come too soon. The ideals of our public schools are wrong because they attempt to put all pupils through the same process. All-day schools where pupils study, eat, play and do hand work were advocated. The third field in which Mr. Zueblin sees social reforms coming is in the humane treatment of criminals, defectives, and dependents. Criminals must be fitted to return and become useful members of society. Still another sphere in which reform is needed and must soon come is in court procedure. Finally economic justice calls loudly for scientific production, for equitable distribution and for discriminating consumption.

"Discriminating consumption," as it happened, occupied a whole session of the conference next day. The assigned topic was *Publicity and Public Welfare*, and the speakers were George French of Boston; Livy S. Richards, editor of the *Boston Common*; William C. Freeman of the *New York Evening Mail*; and Alfred W. McCann of New York. Mr. French advanced the idea that much of the money now spent in ameliorating social conditions could be effectively invested in advertising which would bring home sharply to the people the evils of the slums. Livy Richards showed how "big business" misleads the public by suppressing and coloring news. During the Boston street car strike, he said, newspapers were notified that the large department stores were not disposed to take their usual Sunday space if the public were to be told, in large head lines, that rioting on the cars made it unsafe for women to go down town shopping. Accordingly strike news was at once "soft-

pedalled." The sensation of this session, however, was the revelations of Alfred W. McCann concerning food adulteration in many much-advertised products.

The two closing sessions of the conference were devoted to a paper by Prof. Amos W. Wells on the *Churches Should Lead in Social Reform* and to an account by Jacob Billikopf, member of the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare, and president of the Missouri State Conference of Charities and Corrections, of the splendid work Kansas City is doing for delinquents, defectives, and dependents.

On the evening of adjournment a ringing set of resolutions were unanimously adopted as the platform of the conference. The reference to Ettor, the Lawrence labor leader in these, inspired Rev. Albert Williams, a vigorous young Socialist parson of Boston, to a magnificent tribute to the incomparable qualities of leadership latent in the people themselves. Most social workers, he said, know of Ettor only to scorn him. Yet Ettor turned the trick and wrung from the mill-owners at Lawrence concessions which will make life better for the workers. It is the duty of comfortably placed social workers to get to know the Ettors of our day; in them alone lies the real hope of better things.

PERSONALS

Professor Charles Richmond Henderson of Chicago University has been appointed lecturer in the Orient under the Barrows Lectureship, founded in that university some years ago "to send representatives from various universities to cultivate kindly relations between East and West, particularly in university centers." Professor Henderson, who will have a seven-months' leave of absence, beginning October, next, will lecture on the Social Program of the West in the more important cities of India, China, and Japan. A course of lectures which will be an effort to interpret to the East the new social spirit of the West will be given at the university centers of Madras, Bombay, Lahore, and Calcutta; single lectures will be given in other cities of India. The courses to be given in other countries are not yet fully arranged.

* * *

When Frederic Almy, secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo, N. Y., answered a knock at his front door at 11:30 o'clock one night a short time ago he was surprised to see the muzzle of a revolver pointed at him. Slamming the door he was in the act of locking it when a bullet splintered the glass and cut a 6-inch pathway through the upper part of his right arm. (Mr. Almy had been preparing for bed when the rap came and descended in his night clothes, unarmed.) A Buffalo newspaper reported that Mr. Almy supposed on the way down that his caller

was "some automobilist whose car had broken down or some neighbor who needed his help." Who the assailant was the police of North Evans have not yet learned.

Though the bullet is still in the fleshy part of Mr. Almy's arm the wound has not kept him from his work.

* * *

Among its "personalities" the *American Magazine* recently gave an interesting account of the work of T. E. Swearingham, the blind state superintendent of education of South Carolina, whose methods of industrial education applied to agricultural conditions are starting the younger generation—through corn clubs, tomato clubs, school training, and practical demonstration—in the work of reviving South Carolina's agricultural development.

* * *

With the taking over of the Rochester Society for Organizing Charity by the Rochester United Charities, Emma W. Lee, assistant secretary of the latter organization, assumes full charge of all the family work to be done in Rochester by the central association. Miss Lee came from the Boston Associated Charities to Rochester, and during the last year has been laying the foundation for the necessary development of a larger and more intensive family rehabilitation work.

* * *

Eugene Kerner, of Newark, N. J., whose experience has been in the fields of charity organization work, tuberculosis prevention, and hospital management, has been appointed to succeed Howard L. Udell as manager of the Associated Charities of Waterbury, Conn.

* * *

Rudolf Katz, a leader in the textile strikes in New Jersey and Pennsylvania the past year, has long been well known in the revolutionary labor movement of this country. For fully twenty years he has been active in the Socialist Labor Party as writer, lecturer and organizer. He has several times toured the eastern part of the country in that party's behalf, and he was at one time editor of its Bohemian weekly organ published in New York city.

In the field of labor organization, Katz has been twice a rebel. He is a cigarmaker by trade, and was at one time a member of the Cigarmakers' International Union, affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. Viewing various acts of this body as hindrances rather than aids to labor, Katz left it and helped launch, in 1896, the Socialist Trade and Labor Alliance, a trade union based on the Socialist principle of the class struggle. In 1905 when that body merged into the Industrial Workers of the World, Katz entered vigorously into the work of the new organization, and was largely instrumental in spreading its membership in New Jersey and Pennsylvania. When in 1908 one element of the I. W. W.

struck out from its constitution the clause calling for unity of the workers "on the political as well as on the industrial field," Katz repudiated the act, and stood with those who adhered to the original principles. On these lines he has been organizing ever since. This explains the fact that Haywood (who represents the anti-political I. W. W.) came to Paterson during the silk strike and made an attack on its leader.

Katz is a quiet, unassuming man, with, however, great powers of aggressiveness when the situation calls for it. He was born in Bohemia, and came to this country at the age of ten. He is now about forty years old, and lives in Paterson with his wife and four children.

SOLON DE LEON.

JOTTINGS

IN AID OF SOCIAL LEGISLATION

In the belief that concentrated effort will give the coming legislature definite social information together with needed moral support and so facilitate the enactment of social legislation, representatives from various parts of Pennsylvania recently formed a committee to carry out these purposes. Further conferences will probably be held before the meeting of the legislature of 1913. In order that material shall be of value to the members of the legislature, an outline for a brief has been prepared and can be obtained from the secretary. It is hoped that the committee will act as a clearing house for all social legislation at present being discussed. It will actively advocate a small number of measures of general importance and will endorse those that co-operating organizations are supporting.

The committee expects to get unanimity of opinion for the measures that it advocates and to obtain the active support of all social agencies of the state in behalf of these. The co-operation of the drafting committees of the various political parties will be sought, a permanent lobby may be maintained and the assistance of organizations will be sought at the hearings of the legislative committees. All social and philanthropic organizations are invited to co-operate. William B. Buck, 419 South Fifteenth Street, Philadelphia, is secretary, and Alexander Fleisher is assistant secretary.

WORKMAN'S COMPENSATION IN MASS.

The Massachusetts Workingmen's Compensation Act has started encouragingly. At the first meeting of the subscribers of the Massachusetts Employes' Insurance Association, the general mutual company created by the law, it was reported that subscriptions had come in so rapidly that it was not necessary to borrow from the state treasury the \$100,000, the loan of which had been authorized.

Classified Advertisements

Advertising rates are: Hotels and Resorts, Apartments, Tours and Travel, Real Estate, fifteen cents per line. "Want" advertisements under the various headings, "Situations Wanted," "Help Wanted," etc., five cents each word or initial, including the address, for each insertion. The first word of each advertisement is set in capital letters without charge. Other words may be set in capitals, if desired, at double rates. Replies will be forwarded by us to the advertiser. Orders and copy for Classified Advertisements must be received with remittance ten days before the Saturday on which it is intended the advertisement shall first appear. Address Advertising Department, The Survey, 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

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Preparation for private duty, social work and hospital positions; three years' course, no tuition fee. \$8 a month allowed to cover expenses of uniforms and text books. Michael Reese is a large, active Hospital, new buildings, latest equipment for scientific work; full class enters October 1st; announcement and particulars concerning School sent on application to

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YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION
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—American School of Home Economics.

NOTE.—Send for 100-page handbook. "The Profession of Home-making," which gives details of home-study, domestic science courses, etc., is FREE. Bulletins: "Freehand Cooking," 10 cts.; "Food Values," 10 cts.; "The Up-To-Date Home," 15 cts.
Address—A. S. H. E., 519 W. 69th St., Chicago, Ill.

SITUATIONS WANTED

COMPETENT physical director and instructor in athletics, also expert instructor in boxing and wrestling; desires new charge in September. Apply 1007, THE SURVEY.

POSITION in an institution as assistant matron. Have had a good education and good experience. Address 1040, THE SURVEY.

MAN AND WIFE superintendents large city mission engaged in religious, philanthropic and social work. Seek similar positions. Address **YOUNG PEOPLE, SURVEY.**

LADY PHYSICIAN with fifteen years experience as Superintendent of large institutions is open for position as Superintendent or Manager of Sanatorium or Hospital. Address 1041, THE SURVEY.

HELP WANTED

SUPERINTENDENT of Boys' Club in middle western city. Must be man of experience, energy and ability. Salary proportionate to demands. Address 1038, THE SURVEY.

REAL ESTATE

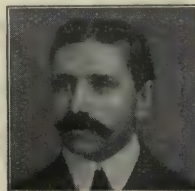
FOR SALE: Property suitable for an institution, school or family hotel in town suburban to New York. Accommodates forty. Beautifully and conveniently located. Address 1031, THE SURVEY.

PUBLICATIONS

CHEAP EDITIONS. Five of the Russell Sage Foundation Publications, in inexpensive paper covers, sent postpaid as follows: **HANDBOOK of Settlements**, by Robert A. Woods, 326 pages, 75 cents; **COTTAGE and Congregate Institutions**, Hastings H. Hart, illustrated, 136 pages, 50 cents; **SALES-WOMEN in Mercantile Stores**, Elizabeth B. Butler, illustrated, 217 pages, 75 cents; **EMPLOYMENT Bureau for New York**, Edward T. Devine, 238 pages, \$1; **CONFERENCE of Mayors (New York State)**, 193 pages, 60 cents. All five for \$3. Charities Publication Committee, care SURVEY.

What Social Workers Should Know about Their Own Communities.
(PUBLICATION NUMBER 7).

The first edition of this pamphlet, by Margaret F. Byington,—10,000 copies—has been exhausted in less than a year. The revised edition contains 289 questions for the social worker to use as a guide when he is making a study or preliminary "survey" of his city or town. Suggestions are also made as to sources of information, etc. Price 5 cents. Address "Russell Sage Foundation, 105 East 22nd St., New York City."



"THE SPIRIT OF SOCIAL WORK" and **"SOCIAL FORCES"** the two latest books by Edward T. Devine, sent postpaid for \$2 —\$1 each. The former is a volume of stirring addresses on social subjects; the latter, editorials from The Survey chosen for their lasting interest. The Survey, 105 East 22d Street, New York.

THE COMMON WELFARE

RURAL SOCIAL WORKERS MEET

For the third time socially minded men and women met at Amherst, Mass., under the auspices of the Agricultural College to discuss how rural life could be made better worth the living. Although the material basis of country happiness received full recognition, the session was tinged by a current of religious feeling.

Without the socialization of the country community, progress is impossible, was the first tenet of the Amherst conference. The first step in the redirection of rural life, the delegates agreed, is the obliteration of the individualism in New England that keeps country men and women apart. The frequent inability of country people to work together and to play together is what threatens disaster to co-operative projects—economic and social. That the feeling of self-sufficiency is being broken down in places was one of the conclusions drawn from the reports brought to the conference.

That any effort for the socialization

of the country community must be led from within and not from without was agreed. A valuable human factor in the regeneration of country life it was pointed out is the farmer who farms successfully, but, because he sees the need of a higher community life, works in town meeting, church, school, or grange to translate his visions into reality. To supplement and give direction to his efforts, the faculty of the Massachusetts Agricultural College, following the example of the middle western state educational institutions, is soon to have on its staff a trained social worker or "rural social engineer." His relation to the rural community as a whole will be practically the same as that of a member of the extension service to the individual farmer.

The problem of fusing the foreigner and the New Englander is one of the most difficult which was discussed at Amherst. An obvious step is to teach him the language of his neighbors. Then follows the task of showing him the road which leads to economic independence and usefulness; this service the Massa-

WHAT BREAKS UP THE HOME



Unemployment for Men Bad Employment for Women

From the Woman's Journal
"The Easiest Way"

chusetts Agricultural College attempts to render. The Amherst Conference was quite emphatic that some one lead him to an understanding of our democratic institutions. Ways and means toward this end were discussed.

The meetings were divided into sections, each one under the charge of a suitable organization. Thus, the clergyman section was in charge of the Federation of Churches of Massachusetts; the agricultural education section, of the State Board of Education; rural sanitation section, of the State Board of Health; rural play and recreation section, of the Division of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation; and so on through the list. The enumeration of these divisions of the conference indicates somewhat the scope of the meeting. Not only was the social side of better country living discussed, but definite practical help was brought to the solution of material problems. The goal of the conference may be expressed in the words of President Butterfield, "to attain in our community life just what we hope for in our individual life—perfection. We seek the ideal community, or, if you please, the Kingdom of Heaven."

CHICAGO'S VICTORY FOR CLEAN MILK

Chicago's struggle for a pure milk ordinance came to a successful issue on August 14, when by a vote of forty-nine to nine the city council enacted the ordinance drafted by the Department of Health. Following the defeat of the proposed ordinance in July,¹ a citizens' committee was organized to lead the fight for a favorable vote at a special session of the council. The co-operation of this committee, the Health Department, the newspapers, and scores of social agencies and organizations aroused public sentiment to a point of quick and vigorous expression.

As already pointed out in these columns, the ordinance provides that all raw milk sold in Chicago shall be of a grade defined as "inspected" and that all milk that cannot meet the requirements for this grade must be pasteurized.

¹See THE SURVEY, August 17, page 642.

Every bottle must be plainly marked "inspected" or "pasteurized." Inspected milk is to be produced only in dairies inspected and licensed by the Health Department. Every case of a contagious disease at such a dairy is to be instantly reported. Dairies may only be licensed when they score at least sixty-five out of a possible one hundred points based on the health of the cattle and the cleanliness of the premises, utensils and methods of handling. Before June 30, 1913, producers must have certificates showing that their cattle are free from tuberculosis and other diseases. Pasteurizing apparatus must be approved by the Department of Health. Milk shipped into the city must be kept at a temperature below sixty degrees. Beginning January 1, 1915, dairies must score seventy instead of sixty-five.

LOS ANGELES STUDYING HER LABOR CONDITIONS

In the fall the voters of Los Angeles, Cal., will have an opportunity to change their charter so as to create an industrial department in the city government. Meanwhile some of the work which will later devolve upon this department, if established, is being carried forward by an industrial committee of the city council. This committee is, it is said, in line with the principle of the Los Angeles Good Government Organization, which demands that active attention be given to industrial conditions in the city.

Not only will the committee give special heed to all matters coming before the council which relate to industry and labor, but it will also make a study of industrial conditions with a view to promoting industrial prosperity and bettering the life of the laborer. Its members are John Topham, Robert M. Lusk, and Haines W. Reed. One of the lines of activity which the committee desires to take up is the compilation of statistical data showing a comparison of industrial conditions in Los Angeles and other cities which are, or may become, its commercial competitors. Of this Mr. Reed writes in the *California Outlook*:

Such investigations will cover cost of labor, raw material and transportation; hours of

labor of all classes; cost of rent and of the chief necessities of life; and the volume of manufacturing and commerce. In order to make such an investigation it will be necessary to have a sufficient cash appropriation to carry on the work. It is the desire of the committee to publish the results of such investigations in pamphlet form for local distribution. In times of industrial or financial panic, or labor disturbance, considerable responsibility may devolve upon the newly appointed committee.

SUCCESS OF A FREE EMPLOYMENT BUREAU

About six months ago, the Employment Bureau of the Jewish Educational and Charitable Association of St. Louis put into operation a plan whereby the subscribers to the charities have become interested in securing work for the unemployed. In February it was found that the Labor Bureau had on its hands nearly ninety persons unemployed and in distress. The subscribers to the charities were approached individually by a written appeal to the effect that work for the able-bodied meant not only self-respect for them but also more funds for those necessarily dependent. A list of the unemployed, giving trade, age, social state and how long out of work, was enclosed. Subscribers were asked to tell friends likely to need help of the work of the Labor Bureau.

The letter brought results. The list of unemployed was soon reduced. The following month a report was sent to the subscribers, enclosing the shortened list.

The subscribers' interest now being assured, it was thought best to systematize the work. The roster of subscribers was gone over carefully and a classification made by occupations. Then a meeting of selected prominent men was called and they were asked to become chairmen of committees of their respective occupations. Each chairman was given a list of persons in his trade or calling who were subscribers to the charities. Each committee thus formed compiled a list of firms in that business. This done the Labor Bureau was ready for "phone business."

If a garment worker applied for work, the bureau communicated with the committee which could secure such work and as soon as an opening was heard of the Labor Bureau was told. Committee mem-

bers took charge of the applicant, who in most cases was successful in securing the job.

On the stationery of the Labor Bureau nothing that is suggestive of charity appears, as employers do not have much faith in men who apply at charity offices. The letter head is inscribed simply, Free Employment Bureau. Weekly letters are sent to all persons who help secure positions for applicants and in some cases to employers who secure help through the bureau, soliciting their patronage, like any business firm.

Oscar Leonard, superintendent of the Jewish Educational and Charitable Association, in summarizing the experience for the first half-year of the special employment bureau of his association, says:

The scheme is a success in so far as it has interested subscribers sufficiently to make them give their time as well as money toward securing positions for the bureau's applicants. Through it the bureau has secured work in six months for as many persons as in the previous two years. Not all applicants hold their positions very long. That is, however, no fault of the system but is due in part to the fact that many of those who apply are not normal. Even among workers who secure their own positions a great many change their employment frequently.

VOCATION BUREAUS FOR EDUCATED WOMEN

It is a matter of common observation that the woman fresh from college drifts like the school child into the nearest available job. Vocation bureaus and the standardizing of wages and working conditions have proved, after a generation of higher education, as necessary for university-trained women as they are for ill-trained child workers. In the case of the former the job is usually teaching. How far chance and a too "cultural" college course is responsible for this; how far this very cultural foundation may be used as a valuable basis for other sorts of work requiring intelligence; how far the college course can be modified to meet the practical needs of the market and to develop vocational tendencies in the individual, and finally what are the opportunities and what the working conditions in general in the various intellectual pursuits for women—these are things that no investigation or practical experimentation has so far shown.

It is for the immediate practical purpose of bringing together work along lines requiring intelligence and workers with vocational experience, as well as with solid general educational foundations, that the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations with headquarters at 38 W. 32d street, New York city, was founded in October, 1911. The bureau aims also to take up the study of the college woman and her work along the lines suggested above—or in the words of the prospectus to

investigate the present conditions of women's work, to develop new opportunities, to establish close connections with the colleges and to aid in giving information to undergraduates, to give specific advice regarding equipment for different vocations, and to insure in every possible way a wise choice of occupation and adequate preparation for its demands.

The investigation of conditions of work is regarded as highly important, as practical experience seems to point to the fact that "sweating" is no more unknown in intellectual than in industrial occupations.

Among the occupations listed by the bureau so far are secretarial work, a large and miscellaneous group; social work, the next largest; laboratory assistants in various branches of science, bookkeepers, proofreaders, librarians, travelling companions, and couriers with practical business experience and knowledge of foreign countries, trained nurses for executive or institutional positions, musicians, editorial writers, and household administrators trained in domestic science—any intellectual work in fact except teaching, which is for the present at least excluded.

During the first months of the bureau's existence the emphasis was put on technical training, and lack of this barred out a large percentage of the applicants. College training has never been a requirement. It has been found however that applicants for workers lay almost more emphasis on a college foundation than on technical training and for this reason an apprentice class equipped with the college course alone will probably be admitted to the privileges of the bureau.

The bureau is not a profit-making

agency but a co-operative organization at present supported by the New York alumnae of nine eastern colleges—Barnard, Bryn Mawr, Cornell, Mt. Holyoke, Radcliffe, Smith, Vassar, Wellesley, and Wells. Moderate fees are charged for employment and it is hoped eventually that, without sacrificing any phases of its work, the bureau can be made self-supporting. In the meantime the idea of the New York bureau, which is, put in a phrase, "to insure a free, wise choice of occupation," has spread to other cities. Philadelphia is starting a like enterprise and in four other cities plans for bureaus are under way.

The manager of the New York bureau is Frances Cummings, a graduate of Smith College who, as head of the review division of the Tenement House Department of New York, has had seven years' experience as organizer and executive.

EDITORIAL GRIST

FIRST CANADIAN TOWN PLANNING CONGRESS

JAMES FORD

Harvard University

The first Canadian Housing and Town Planning Congress was held in July at Winnipeg, Manitoba. There were some twenty delegates from the United States and eastern Canada, but the majority present were public officials of the cities of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. Inadequate publicity was undoubtedly the cause of the rather slender attendance. Qualitatively the congress was a noteworthy success.

The Winnipeg Town Planning Commission, which called the conference, is of recent foundation, but has shown remarkable vigor in the study of both the aesthetic and social aspects of its local problem. Its secretary, F. J. Cole, has made a careful study of the housing problem in Winnipeg and found conditions unnecessarily inadequate. The building code of the city, for example, still permits the erection of tenement houses covering 80 per cent of an interior lot. A

few basement dwellings are to be found in that ward of the city in which the infant mortality rate is very high. In general, however, Winnipeg is remarkably fortunate for a city of its size in the absence of extensive slums. The formation of a socially minded town planning commission may still save her from the disgrace of other cities.

A peculiarly noteworthy feature in the development of Winnipeg is the provision that no street shall be laid out that is less than sixty-six feet in width. Residence streets, furthermore, have stretches of lawn between the sidewalk and the roadway, which are cared for by the municipality and well planted with trees. The business streets are 132 feet wide and are apparently ample for the great city for which this commission must plan. The two rivers, which traverse the city, offer splendid opportunity for a park system. Commendable foresightedness has been shown by the Winnipeg commission in convening the first Canadian conference for city planning as well as the emphasis which it has laid upon the social aspect of the problem.

At the first session of the congress, Dr. Charles A. Hodgetts, medical adviser to the Commission on Conservation, gave a stereopticon talk on the Housing Problem. Dr. Hodgetts has made the Commission on Conservation a clearing house for information on existing health, housing, and town planning conditions and legislation for all the cities and provinces of Canada. His annual reports reveal the peculiar dangers of the fast-growing towns of Canada and present various solutions based on international experience. His paper at this conference was an outline of the housing problem. Dr. M. M. Seymour, commissioner of public health for Saskatchewan, followed with an address on the Tenement House Question, urging more careful legislation with reference to tenement and apartment houses and, if possible, their elimination.

The Duke of Connaught, governor general of Canada, spoke on Housing and Town Planning. This was followed by a paper on the Social Aspect of Town Planning by James Ford of Harvard University. Guy Wilfred Hayler, mem-

ber of the British Royal Sanitary Institute, discussed the Essential Elements of City Planning. It is significant of the growing importance of city planning in Canada that Mr. Hayler recently came to Winnipeg from England to open an office as town planner, thus affording the fast-growing cities of western Canada the opportunity to secure the services of an expert near at hand. Louis Betz of St. Paul, Minn., had as a subject the City Beautiful, while Mr. Ross of Regina explained the Town Planning Problems of Prairie Cities.

Mr. Ross emphasized the problem of the fluctuating population of western cities which in winter must house hundreds or thousands more than in summer. He urged the establishment of municipal pay lodging-houses for these transients, and urged also that some department of the Dominion government should disseminate advice on town planning to all the cities and villages of Canada. The latter cannot employ experts but "the government which gives assistance to agriculture should help cities which are the logical outcome of agriculture in the problems of housing, street-laying, etc., which they must meet in their rapid growth." L. G. Boughner, city editor of the *Minneapolis Tribune*, gave a stereopticon lecture on Beautifying the City in which he described the vacant lot and window gardens of his city.

The discussion which followed these papers was more vigorous than that which characterizes our American city planning congresses, though at Winnipeg, as elsewhere, inadequate opportunity was offered for extensive discussion and questioning. It was interesting to note that the public officials from the cities of Edmonton and Vancouver which practice a sort of land taxation which they inaccurately call the single tax were heartily in favor of that system and were confident that it relieved to some extent their problems of crowding. These cities, however, still suffer from the itinerant winter lodger and, moreover, are growing so rapidly that it is "impossible to secure carpenters, laborers, and build-

ing materials fast enough to house all comers without temporary crowding."

The newness of Canadian provinces and cities and their peculiar type of government have made possible more extensive town planning legislation than is to be found in our American states. British Columbia already has a town planning act which provides that all subdivisions of lots for building purposes within any city and contiguous to its boundaries must have the approval of the city engineer or mayor. Winnipeg, Ottawa, Toronto and Montreal all have committees or commissions actively interested in town planning. The Dominion government has appropriated \$1,500 to have plans drawn for the projected federal district of Ottawa. Specific legislation is pending or has been already passed in all the major provinces of Canada.

The first Canadian Town Planning Congress closed with the passage of a resolution for the formation of a permanent organization to be known as the Town Planning and Housing Association of Canada. Annual meetings will be held and the proceedings of this and subsequent congresses will be published.

A NEW ENGINE FOR CONCILIATION

HENRY STERLING

The history of strikes points the almost invariable rule that, if the public, which is the court of last resort, is but correctly advised of the facts, a decision in any case may quickly be reached. While this may seem like a simple formula, yet its application in specific cases has been attended with such difficulties that many solutions of that difficulty as well as the main problem have been offered. These range from the recommendation of President Taft for the appointment of a national commission on industrial relations which Congress has approved to the nostrums of economic quacks. It remained for the recent street railway strike in Boston to set in motion a new and effective agency for the speedy relief of economic con-

ditions which had become extremely burdensome to the community.

The strike on the Elevated Railway had been in effect for some weeks. Through the press, the company had made persistent claims of general corporate righteousness, while these claims had been as persistently denied by the union. The union had made repeated efforts to meet the company in conference looking toward a settlement, but had been steadily refused. This was the condition of affairs when about the middle of June the Central Labor Union and the Massachusetts state branch of the American Federation of Labor joined delegations to visit the governor and the mayor on behalf of the strikers. Here was instituted a new departure in strike procedure in Massachusetts, perhaps in strike procedure anywhere.

In the law creating the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration were clauses,¹ which, when studied, showed that the labor men could force that board first into a demand for mediation and then have it, through conciliation, try to bring the parties together. If that and the next step, arbitration, failed the board finally could proceed to an active investigation of all the causes

¹The particular portion of the statute creating the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration referred to, as amended in section eleven of chapter 514, Laws of Massachusetts, 1906, reads as follows:

"If it appears to the mayor of a city or to the selectmen of a town, that a strike or lock-out described in this section is seriously threatened or actually occurs, he or they shall at once give notice to the State Board; and such notice may be given by the employer or by the employees concerned in the strike or lock-out. If, when the State Board has knowledge that a strike or lock-out, which involves an employer and his present or former employees, is seriously threatened, or has actually occurred, such employer, at that time, is employing, or upon the occurrence of the strike or lock-out, was employing, not less than twenty-five persons in the same general line of business in any city or town in the Commonwealth, the State Board shall, as soon as may be, communicate with such employer and employees and endeavor by mediation to obtain an amicable settlement or endeavor to persuade them. If a strike or lock-out has not actually occurred or is not then continuing, to submit the controversy to a local board of conciliation and arbitration or to the State Board. Said State Board shall investigate the cause of such controversy and ascertain which party thereto is mainly responsible or blameworthy for the existence or continuance of the same, and may make and publish a report finding such cause and assigning such responsibility or blame. Said Board shall, upon the request of the Governor, investigate and report upon a controversy, if in his opinion it seriously affects, or threatens seriously to affect, the public welfare."

leading up to the strike and could make public declaration of its findings, placing the blame on whichever party they thought was to blame for the continuance of the strike. These provisions had been in the act at least twenty years but had been overlooked and unused. Labor men were much to blame. They lacked confidence in the board and had never attempted to use it. They doubted the power or disposition of the board to serve them. Nevertheless, they took the legal procedure, and Mayor Fitzgerald, at their request, formally notified the board that a strike was on, and then the board proceeded to its work.

The evidence adduced before the board seemed to show plainly that the officials had deceived the public in regard to the strike; that is to say, the first claim was that there were less than 1,000 men on strike; later, it was conceded that there were over 1,600, and finally that there were over 2,500. The books of the secretary of the new union show that about 3,272 received strike benefits, some who came out went back, and some had other employment. Moreover, the company claimed publicly over and over again that it imported no strike breakers, yet the criminal records of Greater Boston show that strike breakers from distant cities were arrested for various offenses.

In the meantime, numerous interviews had been held with Governor Foss and Mayor Fitzgerald. The latter finally promised that he would join with the governor in an effort to settle the strike along the line of the findings of the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration. Also, there were introduced resolutions in the Central Union demanding a strike of all union men in the City of Boston unless the Boston Elevated Company would consent to meet its men forthwith. The resolutions were received with an enthusiasm that astonished all present, and it was shown by the spirit of the meeting and by the action of other unions that the sentiment for a general strike was overwhelming.

On the evening that the findings, strongly favoring the strikers, of the

Board of Conciliation and Arbitration were made public, Governor Foss issued a demand that the company enter into a conference with its men with a view to the settlement of the difficulties. Mayor Fitzgerald at once joined in the demand. James A. Vahey, lawyer for the strikers, at almost the same time, laid before District Attorney Pelletier evidence tending to show that various officials of the Boston Elevated Company had been guilty of perjury, of conspiracy to induce vicious characters to come to the city, possibly of conspiracy to incite riots, and of violation of that section of the labor law which provided against the discharge or refusal to hire a man because of his membership in a union.

These three features all coming to a climax—first, the findings of the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration; second, Vahey's appeal to the district attorney; third, the general demand of governor and mayor that the strike be settled—created a strong public sympathy with the strikers, and put the company in a position that was utterly untenable for a public service corporation to hold. They had no chance but to withdraw from it with such speed and such grace as they might.

So the company consented to a consultation with the governor and the mayor, and later consented to meet representatives of their striking employees. All the demands of the union have been conceded and several things seem to have been established. First, that no public service corporation will ever again be likely to discharge men for joining a union; second, that public service corporations, even those which have apparently dominated legislatures and executives and courts, must, sooner or later, submit to public opinion and the law; third, that the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration, which has been looked upon as of not much service, can be made a vital factor in the settlement of strikes simply by studying the law and following the procedure laid down therein—the thing which it seems no one has ever heretofore thought worth while to do.

BOOKS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

WISCONSIN, AN EXPERIMENT IN DEMOCRACY

By FREDERIC C. HOWE. Charles Scribner's Sons. 202 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

Ever since Ambassador Bryce in his *American Commonwealth* referred to the American city as the failure of our republic, most people have taken it as axiomatic that the administration of our municipalities constitutes the most serious indictment against the success of democracy in the United States. Mr. Howe presents a new candidate for this place. The American state, he says, "is probably our most conspicuous political failure. It has not awakened the interest of reformers as has the city, nor has it aroused the ambition of men as has the national government." Wisconsin, which has carried democracy farther than any state except Oregon, has raised the state, according to Mr. Howe, from the low estate into which it had fallen and converted it into a vital political agency. He looks upon Wisconsin as a scientific experiment station for America. After paying tribute to La Follette as the builder of a new democracy he undertakes to outline the important contributions of the "Badger State" to the nation, giving as the first of these the identification of science with politics and the breeding of a spirit of public service unique in our land. The book might be said to consist of a personal eulogy of La Follette, plus unstinted commendation of the University of Wisconsin for democratizing learning. Special chapters are given to the Regulating of the Railroads and Public Utility Corporations, to the New Industrial Insurance Law, to the Industrial Commission, the State Board of Public Affairs, and the experiment in State Insurance. High praise is given to the efforts to equalize tax burdens as between counties, private individuals and corporations, and the rich and the poor. Four chapters explain the different ways in which the University of Wisconsin aims to be of the greatest possible service to the State. The volume is not overloaded with minor details. It does not contain much information which has not been presented at various times in magazine articles, but probably nowhere else has so much of the significant recent history of Wisconsin been brought together.

THE HISTORY OF THE GOVERNMENT OF DENVER

By CLYDE LYNDON KING, Ph.D. The Fisher Book Company. 319 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

A scholarly addition to the growing literature on municipal government of the past two decades is presented in this account which follows the growth of Denver since its founding half a century ago. In spite of the interest in Colorado's politics created by Judge Lindsey's *The Beast*, probably few outside of the state, except special students, will care for

quite so long an account of the numerous changes in the exact form of the government of the "Queen City of the Plains." Scholars will find in the volume a wealth of carefully digested material. It will furnish them the results of a concrete study of the American city which has had its share of the recent immigrants, but which, because of its great distance from the seaboard ports, has not been so nearly swamped by them. The author pays particular attention to the relations of the city to the public service corporations. In his concluding chapter he says that the evolution of Denver's government shows a tendency to centralize the power in the hands of the mayor, to vest even greater powers and responsibility in the electorate, and a progressive deterioration of the council. Denver's present governmental needs, he believes, are for a larger measure of home rule, a shorter ballot, the commission form of government, together with state and municipal public service commissions to regulate the utilities corporations.

THE INITIATIVE, REFERENDUM AND RECALL

Edited by WILLIAM BENNETT MUNRO. D. Appleton and Company. 364 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

Planned along lines slightly different from the other two volumes of the National Municipal League series, by Clinton Rogers Woodruff and Clyde Lyndon King, this book is an interesting contribution to the careful and thoughtful discussion of a widely considered plan of reform. Mr. Munro has made liberal use of magazine articles by Colonel Roosevelt, Governor Wilson, Representative McCall, Senator Bourne, and Charles Dwight Willard, as well as of papers presented at the annual meetings of the National Municipal League, which constituted the bulk of the other two volumes. He confines his own material to one introductory chapter of fifty pages, in which he gives a readable summary of the material presented in more detail and from different points of view in the succeeding pages. Some of the chapters in the volume have been specially prepared for it. This was practically made necessary by the fact that a number of the papers dealing, for instance, with direct legislation in Oregon are two or three years old. This plan has the result of presenting the history of the application of these instruments of democracy on the Pacific Coast and in the Northwest, in somewhat disconnected form by different authors. The volume shows that direct legislation is not new either in principle or in practice. An odd instance of contradiction is noticed in the statement in the first chapter that the recall made its first American appearance in the "imperative mandate" in the Populist prop-

aganda two decades ago and first received practical recognition in the Los Angeles charter in 1903, while later a note, apparently by the editor who also contributed the introduction, says that contradictory to popular belief, "the recall did not have its origin in Los Angeles in 1903. It was first embodied in the Articles of Confederation which reserved to the individual states the right of recalling any or all of their delegates to Congress and of sending others in their stead." The volume as a whole, however, affords definite and dispassionate information as well as careful arguments by fifteen representative authorities upon devices of democracy of which we are destined to hear more rather than less.

THE REGULATION OF MUNICIPAL UTILITIES

Edited by CLYDE LYNDON KING, Ph.D. D. Appleton and Company. 404 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

This volume, the third of the National Municipal League series, covers the whole subject of municipal franchises, the need for regulation, the purposes of public service commissions in various cities, arguments for and against municipal ownership, and so on. It contains chapters contributed by sixteen recognized experts which present a résumé of the experience of different communities in dealing with the problem. Dr. King contributes six chapters on entirely new matter, which form a very considerable proportion of the volume and give a clearer view of the principles involved. The volume as a whole is made an argument for regulation by public service commissions such as those established in 1907 in New York and Wisconsin as against municipal ownership.

A HOOSIER VILLAGE

By NEWELL LEROY SIMS. Columbia University. 181 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.58.

"A sociological study, with special reference to social causation," of the development and present conditions of an Indiana town of about 2,500 inhabitants. The interesting conclusion is reached that "not a single important change has been wrought in any sphere of the village life which has owed its origin primarily to the community itself. . . . Its activities have been energized and vitalized by disturbing agencies not inherent in the group itself. These extraneous influences have been chiefly either in the form of crises or the coming of new personalities into the village." Generalizing from the history of "Aton" it is suggested "that progress is tardy or wanting in the average rural village of the Central States simply because it is so situated that few stimuli reach it, and because its composition and social atmosphere, as a consequence, is such that it fails to generate its own motive power. But let it be so located that spirited rivalry or competition with other places arises through group struggle for existence, advantage or supremacy, or let it be found on a route of travel where constant and extensive communication with the wider world goes on, or let there be an influx of people from a different social environment or of a dif-

ferent race, or let successive crises be frequently encountered, or let anything that disturbs and stimulates happen, and the village will cease to move in a circle and soon swing out into the tortuous path of progress."

THE ELEMENTS OF STATISTICAL METHOD

By WILLFORD I. KING, M.A. The Macmillan Company. 250 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

This book purposes to "furnish a simple text" in the more elementary processes of the statistical method for the benefit of that large class of students and workers who are not expert mathematicians but who must make practical use of statistics. We are inclined to think, however, that they would find it more useful if it were not quite so "simple," for the simplicity is of that illusory sort which is attained by knocking all possible details out of a big and complex subject. There is little illustrative material, so that the general reader has no assistance in understanding the really excellent rules and principles of the method which are laid down. In the treatment of the more advanced mathematical parts, moreover, simplicity is sought by compressing the train of reasoning, which frequently only increases difficulties for the non-mathematical reader. In short, though the book suggests that the author would himself give an excellent course, it is not, we grieve to conclude, the book for which social workers have long been waiting.

THE HISTORY OF THE BRITISH POST OFFICE

By J. C. HEMMEON, Ph.D. Harvard University. 261 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.13.

A chronological account of the progress of the British post office from the time of Sir Brian Tuke, the first master of the posts, who in 1512 received a salary of £66 13s. 9d.; with chapters on the telegraph system as a branch of the postal department, the relation between the post office and the telephone companies, and other special aspects of postal development.

THE INDIVIDUALIZATION OF PUNISHMENT

By RAYMOND SALEILLES. Translated by Mrs. Rachel S. Jastrow. Little, Brown and Company. 322 pp. \$4.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$4.70.

The original of this fourth volume in the series of translations which is being issued under the auspices of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology was first published in France fourteen years ago. It is a protest against considering the crime rather than the criminal. Saleilles holds a position mediate between the classical school and the Italian school. With the former he maintains that the criminal is wholly or partly responsible for his crime, but he denies that the nature of the criminal is a constant factor which can be ignored in fixing punishments. In the adaptation of the punishment to the nature of the criminal lies the hope of his rehabilitation. About half the book is occupied with a discussion of the means by which individualization can be secured. It is pointed out that laws can do very little, except

to give opportunity to the judge; but that the greatest possibility is in a thoroughly sympathetic and trained judiciary. Speaking as he does for countries where neither the indeterminate sentence—administrative individualization, nor the parole—judicial individualization, is much in favor, he spends a good deal of time in defending what are to us truisms. Of the indeterminate sentence, which he classes as an administrative function, he speaks in the warmest terms. He points out, however, that even more than in the judiciary it is necessary to have administrators, that is, prison wardens, who thoroughly understand and are in sympathy with their work and who realize what is a true test of reformation, else the indeterminate sentence may be but an incentive to hypocrisy. One of the striking things about this book is the sincerely religious spirit which pervades its pages. Ecclesiastical law is treated in a sympathetic manner and the appeal to religious motives is made more than once in discussion. The English translation unfortunately does not do justice to the original, being neither forceful nor clear, and not idiomatic. Other reviewers, who have compared it with the French, state that certain passages are actually misinterpreted.

CHANGING AMERICA

By EDWARD ALSWORTH ROSS, Ph.D., LL.D. The Century Company. 236 pp. \$1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.31.

It was hardly fair to use this title for a collection of magazine articles and addresses scattered over three years, prepared for different kinds of audiences, and rather miscellaneous in character. They are all worth preserving in book form, especially the *Atlantic Monthly* article on the suppression of important news and the *Century* series on the Middle West, but the volume is not comparable with *The Changing Chinese*, and it would perhaps receive juster appreciation of its proper qualities if that comparison were not invited by the title.

FIRE PREVENTION

By PETER JOSEPH McKEON. The Chief Publishing Company. 240 pp. \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.85.

Mr. McKeon is well known to readers of this journal through the articles he contributed in the winter of 1910-11 after the factory fire in Newark, pointing out the dangers of similar casualties in New York and proposing a "fire institute" which should "improve living conditions in so far as they are detrimentally affected by fire." This book is "a treatise and textbook" on fire prevention, which is described as a "science." The average citizen may think it is not intended for him, but he will be mistaken, as he usually is when he thinks that, for the first page states without qualification that the fire problem "is up to the owners and occupants"; and the list of desired readers enumerated on the title page, while it begins with inspectors and fire marshals, ends with matrons and housekeepers.

THE ANARCHISTS

By ERNEST ALFRED VIZETELLY. John Lane Company. 308 pp. \$3.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.70.

A history of anarchism from the time of its founder, Bakunin, a contemporary of Karl Marx. It deals at length with the Propaganda by Deed, and includes full accounts of the assassination of Carnot, McKinley, King Humbert of Italy, and the Empress Elizabeth of Austria, with portraits of the assassins. This series of portraits—of Bakunin and the four instruments of the sect in their out-standing deeds—offers interesting material for the student of physiognomy.

PRACTICAL METHODS OF SEWAGE DISPOSAL

By HENRY N. OGDEN and H. BURDETT CLEVELAND. John Wiley and Sons. 132 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

There is more to the title, viz., "For residences, hotels, and institutions," that is, for the isolated house not connected with a city system. The authors are both members of the American Society of Civil Engineers. Mr. Ogden is Professor of Sanitary Engineering at Cornell University, and Mr. Burdett is the Principal Assistant Engineer of the New York State Department of Health. The book is written in a clear, non-technical style, and should be of value to persons in charge of institutions.

BOOKS RECEIVED IN AUGUST

- AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION CATALOGUE. Edited by Elva L. Bascom. American Library Association Publishing Board. 350 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.66.
- THE SOCIAL EVIL AND METHODS OF TREATMENT. By ORRIN G. COCKS. Association Press. 68 pp. \$2.25 cloth; \$1.15 paper; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.05 additional.
- THE STORY OF OLD FORT DEARBORN. By J. SEYMOUR CURTIS. A. C. McHugh and Company. 174 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.
- LIFE'S BEGINNINGS. By WINFIELD S. HILL. Association Press. 39 pp. \$2.25 cloth; \$1.15 paper; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.05 additional.
- DESTY AIR AND ILL HEALTH. By ROBERT HESSLER, A.M., M.D. William B. Burford Print. 352 pp. \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.10.
- THE COURTS, THE CONSTITUTION AND PARTIES. By ANDREW C. McLAUGHLIN. University of Chicago Press. 299 pp. \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.
- OUTLINES OF LECTURES ON THE TAXATION OF LAND VALUES. By LOUIS E. POST. The Public. 143 pp. \$.30; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.35.
- THE PEOPLE'S SCHOOL: A STUDY IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING. By RUTH MARY WEEKS. Houghton Mifflin Company. 208 pp. \$.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.66.
- THE BOOK OF WOMAN'S POWER. The Macmillan Company. 285 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.
- CAROLA WOERISHOFFER: HER LIFE AND WORK. Published by the class of 1907 of Bryn Mawr College. 137 pp.
- AN ESSAY ON HASHEESH. By VICTOR ROBINSON. Medical Review of Reviews. 83 pp. \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.53.
- WOMAN IN MODERN SOCIETY. By EARL BARNES, B. W. Huebner. 257 pp. \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.
- LA POLITIQUE DE REFORME SOCIALE EN ANGLETERRE. Conférences données à l'Institut par l' "Eighty Club." Misch et Thron.
- THE STANDARD RATE IN AMERICAN TRADE UNIONS. By DAVID A. McCABE, Ph.D. The Johns Hopkins Press. 251 pp.

PERSONALS.

"The general has laid down his sword, God is with us." Following the posting of this bulletin at the Salvation Army offices in London and the cabling around the world of the news of General William Booth's death, the headquarters were flooded with messages from all over the world, from Patagonia to Lapland. His death closes the long career of a remarkable man, who founded an institution which has impressed itself, whether permanently or not remains to be seen, even on Japan and China.

General Booth, whom the late William T. Stead regarded as the greatest man of his day, was born in 1829. At sixteen he began to preach in the slums of his native town, Nottingham, Eng. Shortly after his ordination as a Methodist minister, he carried his preaching into the slums of London. In 1865 he and his wife started the non-sectarian religious organization which developed into the Salvation Army. The wave of emotional enthusiasm which, in spite of ridicule and persecution, speedily converted east-end roughs, though in part due to the form of organization, was still more due to the fearless, enthusiastic character of the general. Traveling from the Orient to the Occident, he spread the idea of his army all over the world, till today the organization has no less than 21,000 officers and employees.

Five years before his death, General Booth was made honorary Doctor of Laws of Oxford, and was given the freedom of London.

His oldest son, Bramwell Booth, has succeeded General William Booth as commander of the army.

Almost unnoticed by the American press this month witnessed the death of one of the most practical and personally energetic of women philanthropists. Combining enthusiasm and keen sympathy with inflexible and hard-headed common sense, Octavia Hill for over half a century was a leader in efforts for improving housing and social conditions not only in London but throughout the United Kingdom.

Born about seventy-five years ago, she was the granddaughter of Dr. Southwood Smith, an earnest promoter of sanitary science. Early experience in the slums of London convinced her that sanitary science should be applied among the poor for the purpose of improving not only their homes but the people themselves. She believed that personal habits are affected by the domestic surroundings but saw little chance to help establish conditions of cleanliness, health, decency and comfort so long as tenants were left to the mercies of landlords whose only aim was monetary gain.

To test her theories Miss Hill decided to buy some squalid tenement house property, collect the rents herself and see if she could

better both the dwellings and the tenants. John Ruskin advanced \$15,000 to aid her plans. Miss Hill then leased three houses near her home. Tenants were not given any grace in the payment of rent but Miss Hill set aside a certain sum for annual repairs in each house. The surplus after breakage and ordinary wear had been repaired was expended for whatever improvements the tenants wished. Although Miss Hill reduced the rents in some cases to one-half of what they had been, at the end of a year and a half she had paid 5 per cent interest on the investment and was able to return part of the money she had borrowed. She then bought six more houses which faced some ground occupied by old dilapidated cowsheds and reeking manure heaps. This vacant land she cleared and turned into a playground. In 1869 two friends purchased eleven houses and placed them under her care. As time passed more blocks of dwellings came under her management and a number of women helped her. In 1887 the Women's University Settlement was organized and its members co-operated with Miss Hill in managing a dozen streets of cottages. In addition some blocks erected by the Ecclesiastical Commissioners were put under her care.

Miss Hill aided in the passage of the Artisan's Dwelling Act of 1874 and ten years later was a witness before the Special Commission on the problem of the housing of the poor. In recent years the work of private companies, wealthy philanthropists and the London County Council in building homes for the working classes has dwarfed Miss Hill's necessarily modest efforts. But she helped materially to start a general movement which has developed along broader lines than were possible for her, hampered by relatively limited funds.

From 1905 to 1909 she was a member of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws. Miss Hill also assisted in the formation of the London Charity Organization Society. The catholic range of her interests is shown by the fact that she was an active supporter of the Commons Preservation Society and of the Metropolitan Gardens Association, both of which aimed to protect and improve open spaces, and of the National Trust for Places of Historical Interest. Her actuating faith was that the enjoyment of beauty and of physical comfort are both essential to a well ordered, happy life.

Samuel Ely Eliot, formerly secretary of the Committee on Prevention of Blindness of the Russell Sage Foundation, is the present director of the Woods Run Industrial House, Petrel street, Pittsburgh, Penn. The settlement is surrounded by a population composed largely of Hungarian and Slavic immigrants. An outgrowth of relief work which began sixteen years ago, it carries on today the many and diversified activities of the modern settlement.

JOTTINGS

CONGRESS OF FARM WOMEN

One aspect of the "back to the land movement" in the United States is the recent notable increase in country life conferences both east and west. One of the newest of these gatherings is the International Congress of Farm Women, which was organized at Colorado Springs last October and is now laying plans for an effective meeting at Lethbridge, Alberta, Canada, October 21-25. The objects of the congress as set forth in the constitution are to improve the conditions—financial, physical, social, and spiritual—of agricultural homes.

"It aims to understand more completely the significance of the farm to the life of the nation and the dignity of the position of the farm woman as co-worker in the most potential and far-reaching of the national industries; to increase conservation of energy through intercourse and observation of processes; understanding of modern appliances and education in scientific management of work; to further develop the home through conference with authoritative experts on dairy methods, poultry culture, kitchen gardening, improved methods of equipping the home, problems of nutrition, children's welfare, industrial education, including home economics, the increase and proper use of leisure, and the stimulation of social intercourse in rural communities. This organization stands also for a more general state and national support and encouragement of institute and extension work among farm women."

Springing out of the International Dry Farming Congress the Congress of Farm Women is an attempt to meet the needs of women as the parent organization meets those of men. Plans have been made for a demonstration at Lethbridge of all varieties of labor-saving home devices, heating, ventilation, and sanitary operating apparatus, improved cooking utensils, and automatic household dairying and farming machinery and implements. The secretary-treasurer of the congress is Mrs. John T. Burns, Lethbridge, Alberta.

"RESTORATION OF EDUCATION"

In reaction against the swirl of criticism nowadays directed against many things modern, there was created in New York several months ago an organization which called itself the Society for the Preservation and Perpetuation of American Institutions. The three arch enemies of its leaders were the woman's suffrage movement, socialism and the Mormon Church. Just recently there has sprung up as a reaction against the attacks heaped upon our present day methods of education a Parents' League for the Restoration of Education. Its home is in Arlington, N. J.; its founder Belle G. Dutcher. According to

a statement made by Mrs. Dutcher: "The league is formed for the sole purpose of restoring the former methods of instruction in all schools. Our children must be able to spell, define, read, write, and cipher as well as their parents do. We ask nothing more, we exact nothing less. What has been done can be done again."

Another statement prepared by the league entitled Why Spelling is Becoming a Lost Art has this to say of a certain tendency noted in modern education: "As a result of investigations from all over the United States, every tenth child is retarded, in some instances children are left back twice. Every tenth child must therefore be accounted feeble-minded. One lecturer calmly asserted that he would say that every seventh was feeble-minded, did he not fear that it would hurt the feelings of the parents. What would be thought of a workman who was retained after he had produced every tenth article a total failure? . . . It is a mistaken idea that children desire to be entertained; they are willing to work."

Another ideal of the league is shown in the following quotation: "We desire teachers to resume and be as formerly mediums of recitation allowing the children to study and recite verbatim, training their memories and acquiring the proper and grammatical quality of expression. Precision of speech is needed, fitting them to leave the grammar school able to speak, read, and write the English language correctly, and ready to enter business if necessary without further schooling 'as it used to be.' The course of study which rendered our parents and ourselves capable of filling any position in life and made the public school the boast of the United States must be restored by the Parents' League."

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

SEPTEMBER CONFERENCES.

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATIONS, Fifth International Congress of the. Boston, Mass., Sept. 24-28.

CHARITIES, National Conference of Catholic. Washington, D. C. Sept. 22-26. Sec'y., Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

CHEMISTRY, Congress on Applied. Washington, D. C., Sept. 6-13. Sec'y., Bernard C. Hesse, M.D., 25 Broad St., New York.

DENTAL ASSOCIATION, 16th Annual Session of the Oral Hygiene Committee of the National. Washington, D. C., Sept. 10-13. Chairman, W. G. Ebersole, National Dental Association, Cleveland, O.

HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION, The American. Detroit, Mich., Sept. 24-27. Chairman arrangements committee, Miss C. A. Aikens, Detroit.

HYGIENE AND DEMOGRAPHY, Fifteenth Congress on. Washington, D. C. Sept. 23-28. Sec'y., Dr. John S. Fulton, Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C.

LABOR LEGISLATION, Association for. Zurich, Switzerland, Sept. 10-12. Sec'y., Stephen Bauer, Basel, Switzerland.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

ENGLAND IN TRANSITION

Even with no prospect of a general election there has been no dearth of live questions this summer in England.

Is Ireland a nation, as the prime minister, recently, on the first visit that a prime minister has ever made to Dublin in his term of office, declares, or two nations, four Ulster counties constituting the second—or the first—as Unionists pretend to think? Are the resources of the United Kingdom or even of the Empire to be strained to keep a wide margin between England's navy and that of Germany in the North Sea, and also between her own and the combined fleets of Italy and Austria in the Mediterranean, or are these resources rather to be released, as the Radicals insist, for social reform at home? Are the dominions beyond sea to shoulder a part of the burden of imperial defense, as Canada seems ready to do, and thereby to gain a voice, as Canada's premier has proposed, in the councils where questions of imperial policy are discussed and determined? Are women to get the vote, in spite of the criminal conspiracy into which the suffragette movement seems to have degenerated?

Such are some of the critical issues, to say nothing of the disestablishment of the church in Wales, the extension of the male suffrage on the "one man one vote" principle, the disfranchisement of the universities, and the "freeing of the land" on single-tax lines, which last has received an undoubted impetus from the success of a Liberal in winning a former labor seat on that issue.

No one of these issues, however, nor perhaps all of them together, so plainly marks the tremendous social transition through which England is passing as does the actual coming into effect of the national insurance act. From any point of view the fifteenth of July of this year must be regarded as marking an epoch in her social evolution. In boldness, originality and comprehensiveness, and in the number of people affected, there has been no legislation in English-speaking countries comparable with this mobilization of the national forces against the principal causes of poverty: sickness and unemployment.

The figure is that of Lloyd-George, the author of the act. Speaking at the end of the week before the law came into operation, he described it as "this great national insurance scheme which touches every household, every industry, every trade and all our interests." He added:

"If there are slips and little stumblings, remember it is the first time that the nation has been mobilized. What for? Not to wage war upon their fellow men, not to march into the territories of people who are flesh of our flesh and blood of our blood, to ravage and destroy, but the nation is mobilized for the purpose of securing health, for securing plenty and for driving away the privation and hunger that have invaded millions of homes. That is the invader we are organizing this army of fourteen millions to meet next Monday."

Referring to attacks upon the act and upon himself, he said:

"They have abused its author in a way, I believe, that no Minister of the Crown has been assailed in my time. My race, my origin—they are all the topics of their vituperation. I am proud of both. There is one quality that my little race has that gives them peculiar offense, especially the dullest among them, and that is the gift of imagination.

It has pulled me through many a fight, and it will pull me through this, because, when insults hurtle through the air, I can always see a vision on the horizon which sustains me. I can see now the humble homes of the people with the dark clouds of anxiety, disease, distress, privation hanging heavily over them. And I can see again, another vision. I can see the Old Age Pension Act, the National Insurance Act, and many another act in their trail descending, like breezes from the hills of my native land, sweeping into the mist-laden valleys, and clearing the gloom away until the rays of God's sun have pierced the narrowest window."

The insurance scheme is contributory. That is, the insured as well as employers and the state contribute to the funds. It is obligatory. That is, every employed person between sixteen and sixty-five who earns from manual labor less than \$800 a year must be insured. As to others, it is voluntary. In several respects it is optional, especially in that the payments may be made through any approved friendly society or trade union or through the post office—the former method being more advantageous. Disregarding exemptions, exceptions and special classes, such as those earning less than sixty-two and a half cents a day, the cost is, for men, eight cents, and, for women, six cents a week, in each case the employer adding six cents. The state pays one-quarter of the costs of benefits and administration—for men, two-ninths. The benefits are: sick pay (\$2.50 for men and \$1.87 for women) during twenty-six weeks, and disablement pay of about half this amount thereafter as long as the sickness or disablement lasts; medical attendance, medicine and minor surgical appliances; sanatorium care in the case of tuberculosis and any similar diseases decided upon by the authorities; maternity benefit of seven dollars and a half for each confinement; and any additional benefits which a surplus may make possible.

The unemployment insurance is distinct and affects at the outset less than two and a half million persons in seven selected trades. Employer and workman each contribute five cents a week and parliament adds an amount equal to one-third of the total contributions of employer and workman. Under eighteen the contributions both of the employe and of his employer are two cents instead of five. The act thus seems to put a premium on the employment of boys and girls under eighteen. On the other hand workmen under seventeen receive no benefit in case of unemployment and those between seventeen and eighteen only one-half the normal out-of-work pay, which is one dollar and seventy-five cents a week for a period not to exceed fifteen weeks. A claimant for unemployment benefit must show that he is capable of work but unable to obtain suitable employment. Here the usefulness of the labor exchanges in administering the act becomes apparent. No man is disqualified, however, by refusing to accept employment where there is a trade dispute, or at lower wages or on conditions less favorable than those which he habitually obtained from previous employment.

At the moment when the insurance act comes into operation interest is fastened upon the controversy between the government and the medical profession. To the outsider it is a very pretty quarrel. For the first time the medical profession as a whole is acting like a trade union and for a first attempt it must be admitted that they go rather far in the direction of syndicalism. There are threats of social ostracism against any blacklegs who accept conditions not approved by the association. Boycott and strike seem the least of their weapons. An independent public medical service may well be the outcome.

THE COMMON WELFARE

LAWRENCE ONCE MORE IN THE FOREGROUND

Three thousand citizens of Lawrence, Mass., by uniting irrespective of creed, nationality or party in a demand for the recall of John J. Breen, the school committeeman who was convicted of planting dynamite during the strike, have raised what they call "a question of pure moral decency."

Rev. E. M. Lake, pastor of the Second Baptist church, referring in a sermon to the petition for the recall of Breen declared that it

gives evidence of an awakened public conscience in the city. More names could have been secured to this petition had it been necessary.

The heading of the petition reads as follows: "Having been found guilty of a grave criminal offense, we believe that John J. Breen, school committeeman of Lawrence, is unqualified to conduct the affairs of our public schools."

The statement of the petition is clear and to the point. Had he been a man of refinement of feeling, he would have resigned at the time of his conviction, when he paid the fine of \$500. But we do not find in a dynamite planter one who is susceptible to refined feeling. There is now just one question before the people of Lawrence to settle and that is—shall we have him continue to give direction in the affairs of the public schools?

To make it clear that the recall petition is not an effort to turn a man out of office because of his political affiliations but a genuine attempt, in the words of the *Lawrence Telegram*, to "remove the stigma that now attaches to the school board of Lawrence," a prominent attorney of the same political faith was urged and consented to become a candidate for the place held by Mr. Breen. Augustin X. Dooley, in his letter to Fred H. Eaton announcing his willingness to run, declares that one reason he entered the lists was to help prove the effectiveness of the new city charter providing for the recall. Mr. Dooley a year ago was a leading advocate of its adoption.

In accordance with the new charter, which provides that the special election

must be held within not less than sixty nor more than seventy days after the recall petition has been certified by the city clerk, the municipal council has selected October 1 for the special election. The charter provides also for a preliminary election three weeks before the other to pick two candidates to oppose the incumbent in office, in this case Breen, in the special election. This first election will take place on September 10.

While Lawrence citizens are making earnest efforts to recall Breen, the grand jury of Suffolk county is trying to find out who, if anybody, was behind him when he planted the dynamite. Several months ago the *Boston Herald* asked:

Isn't the Essex county prosecution ever going to dig a little deeper than Breen in the Lawrence case? Who was behind him, and why? The I. W. W. is fond of attacking the courts as minions of the "masters." Members of the revolutionary organization are not alone in insisting that Breen was but a tool. The case hasn't been closed to the complete credit of the authorities.

The proceedings which promise to clear up the mystery to the satisfaction of all were instituted finally, however, by the Boston authorities in Suffolk county and not by the prosecution in Essex county, the scene of the dynamite plants. Investigation by the Suffolk County Grand Jury was based on allegations that dynamite was purchased in or near Boston and sent to Lawrence for distribution in certain places to lead the public to believe that the explosive was to be used by the strikers to damage mill property and so cast odium upon the workmen. Among those who have appeared before the grand jury are John J. Breen; Louis S. Cox, post-master of Lawrence; George E. Kunhardt of North Andover, treasurer of the Kunhardt mills; Iver L. Sjostrom, of North Andover, vice-president of the United States Worsted Company; Fred C. McDuffie, treasurer of the Everett mills, and Charles Walcott, treasurer of the Atlantic mills.

An effort was made to secure the presence of the treasurers of other mills but they were either on vacations or could not be located. Ernest W. Pitman, a contractor who erected two of the large Lawrence mills, was questioned recently by District Attorney Pelletier regarding the distribution of dynamite in Lawrence. He was served with a summons to appear before the grand jury. Before the date set for his examination he committed suicide. His friends declare that the probable reason for the suicide was losses suffered by the failure last March of a company in which he was interested.

Following these proceedings indictments were handed up by the grand jury to Justice Pratt of the Superior Court specifying Dennis J. Collins, a Cambridge dog fancier and friend of John J. Breen; William M. Wood, president of the American Woolen Company; and a third person as yet (Aug. 31) unnamed as associates of Breen and Pitman in a conspiracy to distribute dynamite in Lawrence. Mr. Wood hastened from New York to surrender himself and furnished \$5,000 bail. John J. Breen was arrested before the grand jury commenced its inquiry.

MODEL SAFETY LAW FOR MANUFACTURE

A skeleton draft of a safety law is recommended by a committee of the Department on Compensation of the National Civic Federation as the result of about a year's work. Efficiency in preventing work accidents and uniformity in state laws are the two objects in view.

The act provides for a board of safety experts to whom would be left the working out of its detailed provisions as well as future changes. It would include within its scope all workshops and factories, the latter being defined as places where articles are manufactured, including work places in the open air and workrooms in mercantile establishments and, as far as applicable, tenement rooms used for manufacturing purposes.

The first seven sections are devoted to fire conditions, including fire resisting construction, fire prevention, fire escape and drill, fire extinguishment, and spec-

ial regulations in industries where the fire hazard is great. Other sections cover regulations in regard to structural strength of manufacturing buildings; the guarding of dangerous places—such as pits, elevated platforms, etc.—by railings; and the provision of secure footing on floors, footways, ladders and in other places; the guarding of prime movers and power transmitters; and the periodical inspection and guarding of elevators and power generators.

Machinery according to the draft should be guarded by devices for stopping power and throwing off belts and pulleys; all safeguards should be based not on specific devices for the individual machine but on the dangers offered by certain "dangerous parts," common to all machinery. Eight such parts are specified in the draft. Further sections cover the placing of machinery in safe places, adequate lighting, the posing of danger signs and instructions, and the providing of special clothing for certain dangerous operations. Wherever practicable the provision of safeguards should be required of the maker of the machine. No safeguard should be removed while a machine is in operation and no machine cleaned while in operation. Women and minors should be subject to special regulations for safety by the board of safety experts.

Factory accidents should be recorded in each establishment, the record kept on file to be exhibited to the factory inspection department on demand. In addition each accident should be reported immediately to the chief factory inspector. To encourage prompt, dependable reporting, it is provided that

No statement contained in such record or report . . . shall be admissible in evidence in any action against the employer arising out of an accident.

The functions of the board of experts are thus defined:

(a) To prescribe the specific means, methods, or practices to carry out the purpose and intent of any provision of this chapter.

(b) To define the application of any provision of this chapter to specific conditions.

(c) To fix and make definite any time, period, space, distance, height, quantity, or quality prescribed indefinitely in any provision of this chapter.

(d) To exclude from the application of any provision of this chapter specific conditions covered by its letter but not by its purpose and intent.

(e) To prescribe, upon conditions, alternative methods of complying with any of the provisions of this chapter so as more effectually to carry out its purpose and intent.

SOCIAL HYGIENE IN THE PACIFIC STATES

Faced by the moral dangers of the coming Panama Exposition of 1915, when young men and women visitors from all over the country in search of pleasure and free from home restraints will be subjected to the temptations of a gay city, the towns of the Pacific coast are embarking on a systematic campaign to spread a knowledge of social hygiene. This campaign, on account of the peculiar conditions offered by the exposition, Will T. Foster, president of Reed College and vice-president of the Social Hygiene Society of Portland, Ore., regards as the "most immediately important social work to be done in the Pacific states."

Portland, Ore., is the pioneer in this movement. Its Social Hygiene Society was formed about a year ago, and has been so effective that it has already attracted the attention of other cities and states. Its secretary, H. H. Moore, has conducted advisory and organization meetings in San Francisco, Seattle, Tacoma and Los Angeles, and several cities on the western coast are now planning to engage secretaries for social hygiene service.

The work of the Portland society has from its beginning been purely educational. No fight has been made against the white slave trade or the segregated district, but these have been attacked indirectly by prophylactic advice to the individual. Through the courtesy of business men, who have met the society more than half way, talks to employes have been given by physicians who contributed their services free. Literature has been distributed in pay envelopes and printed matter on venereal diseases from the Board of Health, whose secretary is president of the society, has been posted in railroad cars and stations, city parks, lumber camps, office buildings, hotels and rooming houses.

For this work of publicity, the society added an advisory department, to which over four hundred individuals have applied personally, most of them for medical advice. Many others have applied by letter. The society has already been instrumental in closing the offices of two quack doctors.

HOURS AND WAGES OF RESTAURANT GIRLS

While the ten-hour law for women was before the Illinois courts, the Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago carried out an investigation of the conditions of women workers in seventy-two restaurants and forty-two hotels in Chicago. In line with other of its decisions the Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of extending factory legislation to protect these occupations.

The investigation of restaurants covered waitresses only, and brought out the following hours and rates of pay for the steady workers:

NUMBER OF RESTAURANTS IN CERTAIN
WAGE AND HOUR GROUPS

WAGES	HOURS									
	6	7	8	9	10	10½	11	12	13	
\$5				1						
\$6	6	3	5		8					
\$6.50	1									
\$7			5	5	18	2	2	3	1	
\$8					6	1		1		
\$8.50					1			1		
\$9					1					

This table brings out, besides violation of the Illinois Ten Hour Law in eleven cases, the complete lack of standards in the trade, the women who work thirteen hours receiving no higher pay than the majority of those in the ten, nine and eight hour groups. One hotel with a nine hour shift paid the smallest wage found, in face of the fact that a considerable number of the other hotels had a day of only 6, 7 or 8 hours with higher pay. Sixteen restaurants had a seven day week. One had every other Sunday on duty. But hours work a day and days work a week do not tell the whole story of hard work, for a large

proportion of these restaurants served meals from 7 a. m. to 8 p. m. This meant that there was an afternoon period of from two to three hours "swing" during which the waitress was supposed to be off duty, with nothing better to do, unless by chance she lived near, than to hang about the streets, shops or moving picture shows. This is not real leisure, nor is it conducive to regular and steady moral habits.

The association's investigator found that other things besides these periods of enforced loafing had a disintegrating effect on waitresses' morals. The most serious complaint made by the waitresses was the physical strain of being constantly on their feet and carrying heavy trays. Scarcely less serious, however, were their statements as to the insolence and temptation to which they were subjected from managers and customers. Different girls took their temptations differently; some were disposed to fight, some to yield, as the following expressions from individuals show:

"In my experience," said one girl, "I see too much of pretty girls accepting invitations. Sometimes they never come back to get the money that is due them."

"The men who come here," said another, "follow me and insult me."

"One man asked me whether I would not prefer to go to a position where I could have time to myself and pretty clothes," was the recorded experience of one but another had gone farther along the road of worldly experience. "If a waitress hasn't got a man," said she, "she couldn't get along on her wages"; and another: "Some of the girls 'bat' around and make money in other ways and I don't blame them. They have to live somehow."

The tip is one common means by which a customer can start an acquaintance with a girl and the abolition of the tip is therefore one of the recommendations of the association. Others are the organization of the workers, with the aim of standardizing working conditions, and the opening of rest rooms by settlements and otherwise for the idle afternoon hours.

HOTEL LABOR

The extensive strike of the hotel workers of New York and the efforts to enlist hotel employees generally in an industrial union lend added interest to the facts as to hotel conditions. Women hotel workers come under four groups: chambermaids, laundresses, kitchen girls and scrubwomen. About half the hotels employed American chambermaids. The vast majority of the other workers were Poles, who, according to the statement of housekeepers and managers, were hired because they were cheap, hard-working and submissive—and also, the investigator adds, easily imposed upon and not inclined to tell what they see going on.

Wages and hours for the different groups are determined by whether the position is a resident one and, to some extent, by the grade of hotel. The following table gives monthly wages where they could be learned:

MONTHLY WAGES

	Without Board and Lodging				With Board and Lodging			
	\$30	\$28	\$25	\$20	\$18	\$17	\$16	\$15 \$14
Chambermaid	2			2	15	8	11	1 3
Laundryworker	1	3		4	1	2		4
Kitchenmaid	1		2	3	2	2	3	4 1
Scrubwoman						1		

Hard work for long hours—overwork to the "limit of endurance"—was an almost universal complaint among the workers. Bad sleeping accommodations and bad food were other complaints. Of the forty-six hotels, only six supplied good food, six others fair, food in others was often the leavings of the guests' tables and not infrequently was unwholesome. It was often served in a "mere storeroom or cellar." As for sleeping quarters, "weak and exhausted women after a hard day's work are put into rooms crowded, ill ventilated and without access to the air." In only three hotels were accommodations good, in twelve fair. In one place a room for two girls contained no furniture but a single bed.

The moral dangers, especially to the

non-English-speaking girl employed in a hotel, appear from the report to be even more harrowing than in the restaurants, or it may be that it was easier to trace the downfall of a resident hotel worker than of a restaurant waitress who, with no questions asked, just drops out of her place. Here is some of the testimony to the moral danger of hotel work offered by housekeepers. "Unless a girl paid no attention to the remarks of traveling men," says one, "she would certainly go wrong." "I know of no occupation a girl can follow where she has the temptations the girl in the hotel has. The majority of the girls who work in these places go wrong sooner or later." "If a girl is straight," said a chambermaid, "there is nothing for her but bitter drudgery—no pleasure at all."

The management in many cases winks at these conditions, and allows them to persist. One woman when asked why she did not complain to the management of a gross insult from a guest replied: "If we don't like the insults we get, they will tell us to get out."

EDITORIAL GRIST

SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN KENTUCKY

HORTENSE FLEXNER

A fairly creditable proportion of the bills introduced into the Kentucky legislature this year were enacted into laws. Among other things, they embrace bills touching the public health, education, prison and industrial reform.

In the matter of public health, probably the most important bill is one creating a tuberculosis commission, consisting of seven persons appointed by the governor, who serve without compensation and who are charged with the duty of conducting an educational campaign on tuberculosis. The bill carried an annual appropriation of \$15,000, and it authorizes the establishment of sanatoria by single counties or by two or more adjoining counties. The question as to whether or not such a sanatorium should

be established is to be decided by popular vote of the county. The commission is given certain supervisory powers over such sanatoria.

The governor has appointed the following persons to serve on the commission: Desha Breckinridge, Lexington; Tevis Camden, Versailles; Dr. H. S. Kellar, Frankfort; Dr. U. V. Williams, Frankfort; Dr. Everett Morris, Sulphur; Dr. R. T. Yoe, Louisville; and Bernard Flexner, Louisville. The governor is ex-officio a member of the commission.

The use of the public drinking cup is forbidden for the first time in the state. Another act regulates the sale of opium, and another forbids the entrance of a person under twenty-one years of age into a saloon, unless accompanied by a parent or guardian.

The Vital Statistic Law of the state has been strengthened by provisions providing for such registrars charged with the duty to make complete returns of births and deaths and report the same to the State Board of Health.

Another bill forbids the "sweating" of prisoners, and prevents the admission as evidence of any statement obtained by such process.

Certain labor reforms are made possible by the passage of an act regulating the employment of women. No woman may be employed at any occupation, except domestic service, for more than ten hours a day or sixty hours a week. The work of the labor inspector is made more efficient by an increase in his force. Two inspectors under the law shall be women.

After a long struggle, the Legislature has again granted school suffrage to women. The Compulsory Education Law of the state has been strengthened, and provision is made for the use of district school houses out of school hours, making it possible to hold vacation classes, club meetings and other civic and educational assemblies in the buildings.

The white slave traffic agitation bore fruit in an act making it a felony for any person to admit to a house of ill fame any female under the age of sixteen years.

SAVING BABIES IN NEW YORK CITY

GARRET SMITH

Executive Secretary Babies' Welfare Association,
New York City

A permanent, all the year around campaign, conducted through a strong central organization, is New York city's solution of the baby saving problem. After a season of experimenting, this principle took concrete form last spring in the Babies' Welfare Association, which acts as a clearing house for approximately 150 agencies working in behalf of infants throughout the greater city.

Results have already justified this method. Though many workers doubted that last year's splendid record in baby saving could be equalled two years in succession, the number of infant deaths in Greater New York so far this year is nearly 700 less than it was at this time in 1911. Last year there were 1,198 fewer deaths of babies under one year of age than in 1910.

Not satisfied with this record, workers pointed out that, while digestive diseases, most prevalent in hot weather, killed 282 out of every 1,000 babies who died, respiratory troubles, peculiar mainly to cold weather, killed 232 out of 1,000. Another reason for the all year around campaign was the loss of momentum due to beginning all over again each season. Therefore, the milk stations were kept open. The Board of Health secured an appropriation for fifty-five stations. By spring there were ninety stations being run by the board and six other organizations.

But the work was no longer confined to right feeding only. It had outgrown mere milk station activities in the old sense and come to embrace every form of infant welfare. The milk station was becoming a center for the education of mothers and for co-operation with every other organization in the infant field. The Babies' Welfare Association, organized in June, was the crystallization of this spirit and it has carried out the most complete plan of co-operation ever effect-

ed in this line of social work in New York city.

The records of such cities as Chicago, San Francisco, St. Paul, Rochester, New Haven, Kansas City, and Hartford show the short-comings of a campaign carried on mainly in the summer. While aggressive hot weather crusades are being conducted in every one of those cities each of them showed during the winter and spring months a decided increase in the number of infant deaths over last year. A comparison of New York city's own boroughs is also instructive. The work has been most completely organized in Manhattan, where the greatest congestion presented the greatest need. Up to August 17 in that borough there had been 523 fewer deaths of babies under one year than last year at the end of the corresponding week. At the same time Brooklyn had only forty-nine fewer deaths, while the Bronx had fifteen more.

"To save babies by saving wasted effort," is the motto of the association. By "wasted effort" is meant the overlapping of activities which has prevailed in the past. Except for the temporary association of last summer the milk station organizations were working independently. There was duplication of work, wasteful competition and a misunderstanding among forces that should work in harmony. The new association has brought them together and secured a working agreement.

Hitherto, free ice tickets meant for needy families with sick children have been distributed through a half dozen agencies. As many different sets of tickets had to be printed. Now, one set of these tickets is sent out by the association to the entire field. By bringing the big relief societies and the milk station agencies together in one organization, an arrangement has been effected whereby free milk for sick babies is granted at once without the delay formerly caused by investigation, the society appealed to paying the cost of milk used while the investigation is being made.

Lack of complete information about hospitals and dispensaries and absence of organized co-operation between them and milk stations, day nurseries and the

like, has led to loss of time in placing baby patients as well as to other serious, and sometimes fatal, inconveniences. The association includes hospitals which receive baby patients and a central bureau has been organized for placing babies in such institutions. In the same way a clearing house has been established for infant outing agencies.

Co-operation without amalgamation is brought about by the association. No organization within it in any way loses its individuality or has its methods of work encroached upon. Nor has any new appealing body entered the field. The central office expenses have been voluntarily provided by several organizations out of funds appropriated for particular branches of the association work. A General Committee is made up of representatives of each organization. From this body an executive committee of eight has been elected to carry on the work with an executive secretary. Sub-committees provide for complete representation of all interests in every line of activity.

SHOWING THE GENTLE- MAN FROM MISSOURI

A COMEDY WITH A MORAL

CONSTANCE D. LEUPP

[THIS LITTLE SKETCH OF A HEARING ON THE LOAN SHARK BILL IS AN APT PICTURE OF SOME OF THE DIFFICULTIES EXPERIENCED BY PHILANTHROPIC LOBBYISTS AT THE NATIONAL CAPITAL. THE BIGGEST WEAPON TO ROUT OUT LOAN SHARKS WHO SECRETLY CHARGE UNCONSCIONABLE RATES OF INTEREST IS TO PASS A LAW WHICH WILL MAKE CLEAN LOANING BUSINESS PRACTICABLE. TWO PER CENT PER MONTH IS THE STANDARD WHICH HAS BEEN DEMONSTRATED AS EFFECTIVE. WHEN THE RATE IS CUT BELOW THAT, LEGITIMATE COMPANIES ARE FORCED OUT OF BUSINESS AND THE WILD CAT COMPANIES THRIVE ON THEIR UNDERGROUND OPERATIONS. AS THE DYER BILL PASSED THE HOUSE AND THE SENATE THE INTEREST RATE WAS REDUCED TO 1 PER CENT. THE HEARING DESCRIBED WAS HELD IN THE EARLY WINTER.—Ed.]

PLACE: *United States House of Representatives.*

TIME: *A District Monday in the 62nd Congress.*

SUBJECT UNDER DISCUSSION: *The Dyer Bill raising the rate of interest for small loans in the district from 6 per cent a year to 2 per cent a month, and requiring a license of \$500 for money lending of this character.*

DRAMATIS PERSONAE: *Eight or ten interested, well-posted Congressmen who know that the higher rate is necessary in order to insure a reasonable profit to law-abiding loan companies, who may then establish business in*

the District and drive out by competition the loan sharks who now infest the national capital and do a thriving illegal business at a rate of from 75 per cent to 325 per cent a year.

Half a dozen gentlemen (one of whom shows that he has not read the bill by referring later to its effect on pawnbrokers, who are exempted) who think the proposed rate is exorbitant and intend to vote for the amendment reducing the rate from 24 per cent to 12 per cent a year.

AUDIENCE: *The whole legislative committee of the Women's Welfare Department of the National Civic Federation, who have been fighting for this bill—originally drafted by the District Commissioners—for five years. They share the ladies' gallery with a handful of sight-seers from out of town. One of the latter, a deaf old lady from Philadelphia, is leaning forward, her hand behind her ear, listening intently. Before the discussion has been going on half an hour she has caught the point completely and is keen for 2 per cent. Her grasp of the subject in such a short time is an interesting commentary on the befogged state of mind of some of the legislators.*

There is a general atmosphere of noise and inattention.

MR. FOWLER OF ILLINOIS: Mr. Speaker, I have the floor and I'll yield to nobody but God and my constituents!

The Speaker wields his gavel and something like order is restored.

MR. FOWLER: Mr. Speaker, I should be ashamed to go back to my district and tell the people of Illinois, even a single man, that I have voted for a bill to license the lending of money at the rate of 24 per cent per annum. And what is more, I do not intend to do it!

With a savage nod of defiance towards the serried rows of millinery in the ladies' gallery, he sits down.

VOICE IN THE GALLERY WHICH DOES NOT REACH THE FLOOR: Well, if all his constituency are like him, I should think he'd be afraid to go home on any terms!

MR. BERGER OF WISCONSIN: Mr. Speaker, so long as one lives in a swamp, one must expect mosquitoes and flies. And so long as we live under the capitalist system we must expect loan sharks and other vampires. Twenty-four per cent a year is a hard thing to legalize, I admit. We cannot legislate the loan shark out of the business for that reason.

He continues evenly to plead for a government loan bank that should charge no in-

terest. Failing that, he advocates the rate of 2 per cent a month, since the present District law is a dead letter as it means only loss to the lender; yet there must be some provision whereby the man on a small salary can borrow when in trouble. Therefore, he explains, the District Committee after due consideration has unanimously reported this bill at 2 per cent a month. He continues:

The labor organizations of the District have asked for it, and all the scientific and charitable societies that have studied the subject are also in favor of the bill. And I am not afraid to go back to Milwaukee after voting for this bill, and my constituency is just as radical as that of the gentleman from Illinois.

There is further discussion backward and forward. Those who speak in defense of the original bill at 2 per cent are:

Representatives DYER of Missouri, PETERS of Massachusetts, SLAYDEN of Texas, KAHN of California, O'SHANNESY of Rhode Island, REDFIELD of New York, LONGWORTH of Ohio.

Those who endorse the amendment changing the rate to 1 per cent are:

Representatives CAMPBELL of Kansas, FOWLER of Illinois, SHARP of Ohio.

Towards the close of the discussion, Representative NORRIS makes this contribution.

MR. NORRIS: It seems to me a remarkable coincidence that those members who favor the 24 per cent rate do it ostensibly in opposition to the so-called loan shark. The gentleman says that if the rate is fixed at 1 per cent a month it will not be effective; if they cannot afford to lend money at 1 per cent per month, there is no way to compel them to, and God knows nobody wants them to. We can get along without the loan sharks!

When the forty minutes allotted to the discussion are over, time is called on the last speaker. Mr. MANN objects that there is not a quorum present. The CHAIR counts and finds that there is not a quorum present, and the yeas and nays are ordered. The CHAIR directs the doorkeeper to close the doors and the sergeant-at-arms to notify absentees.

The CHAIR explains, for there is an obvious confusion in the minds of many, that the yeas are voting for the amendment of 1 per cent, the nays for the original bill of 2 per cent.

The question is taken.

Yeas, 175. Nays, 83. Answer present, 9. Not Voting, 125.

Mr. DYER and Mr. MANN attempt to get the bill recommitted to the District Committee, with further changes raising the rate.

The motion to recommit is lost and the House proceeds to the consideration of the next bill on the calendar, while the backers of the 2 per cent rate pour out of the gallery discussing the possibility of blocking the amendment in the Senate.

Such is the progress of social legislation.

EUROPEAN REGULATION OF EMIGRATION

VICTOR VON BOROSINI

Hull House, Chicago

The immense increase in the "new emigration" has compelled some of the south European countries to revise their emigration laws, and others, like Russia, Austria, and the Scandinavian countries, to consider revision. While no European country, with the exception of Turkey, actually prohibits emigration, they all attempt to check rather than to facilitate it. National, economic, and political considerations lead to emigration restrictions for men still liable to military service, for girls who could be exported for immoral purposes, and for parents who leave dependent minors at home. Spain demands the consent of the husband when a married woman wants to leave the country; a similar provision existed in Russia up to the first of May. Since the American restrictive legislation threatens with deportation physically, morally, and mentally unfit people, the European governments aim to save their citizens the expense of a trip and the mental anguish of being returned. They also look upon the American laws as a welcome check on emigration, the serious moral and economic effects of which are recognized by all countries.

On an average 80 per cent of European emigrants are men, the percentage being highest in southern Europe; these men are for the greater part at their most productive age and they have left the rural communities in such numbers that the wages of agricultural laborers at home have greatly increased. The emigration agencies are closely supervised and this fact has led to a widespread illegal, clandestine emigration in Russia, Hungary, and Italy, which de-

prives emigrants of the protection by their home governments and leads to their exploitation by unscrupulous agents. Russian officials believe that about 80 per cent of all emigrants are smuggled over the border, because the price for a passport is almost prohibitively high, over \$8. The governments reserve to themselves the right to prohibit emigration to certain countries, as Italy did last year to Argentine.

While the emigration laws of France date from 1860-61 and those of Holland from 1860-1865, the latter prohibiting the sale of liquor to the steerage and obliging emigrants to clean their own rooms, England, Germany, Hungary, Spain, and Italy have modern laws. The last three have good provisions, but even here the steerage passenger is often exploited, through lack of proper supervision. From a person traveling in the steerage, and going permanently abroad to earn his living—who is technically an emigrant—Russia, most of the Balkan states, France, Italy, and Hungary demand a regular passport, which is expensive and generally necessitates long waiting; Germany asks her emigrants only for their military papers.

Steamship agents are forbidden to give out information other than about sailings and the price of tickets. Further advice is given emigrants in Italy, Spain, Holland, France, and Germany by governmental bureaus; in England by the Emigrants' Information Office, which is supported by the state and the colonies; in Hungary by the secretary of the interior. Germany, France, and England naturally prefer to direct citizens to their own colonies. Italy maintains confidential agents abroad to inform the home office about the fluctuating labor market. Steamship soliciting for steerage trade is a punishable offense. Steamship companies are responsible for their agents and subagents who must get a license after depositing a considerable sum as security and must be citizens with a clean record. Hungary, Italy, and Spain do not allow public officials, professional people, and saloon-keepers to act as steamship agents. The companies must submit disputes to the courts of the country;

legally recognized claims are paid from the sums deposited as security. In Hungary and Italy the charge for tickets is approved by the authorities to prevent pooling or discrimination. The contract of transportation must be a written one, a copy must be transmitted to the emigration service in France and Italy, to the local authorities in Hungary.

All countries require exact data for statistical purposes. Italy, Spain, Hungary, and Germany stipulate that each ticket must contain the name of the emigrant; his companions and their age, if they are minors; name of agent, company and boat, with its age, speed, tonnage, flag, date of departure and duration of trip; price paid for ticket; weight and number of pieces of luggage. The menus and the quantity of food to which a person is entitled must be printed on the back of the Italian ticket. Switzerland, Hungary and Italy provide for proper medical treatment in illness and in case of death decent burial at sea. Hungary, Switzerland, Holland, and Belgium demand that the head of the family and all the luggage of steerage passengers at the emigrant's expense be insured against damages or accident. France allows her emigrants to sleep on board the night before sailing, England allows them to spend the day after arrival on board, Italy demands that the company house and feed them one day ahead of sailing. Delayed departure, sickness, or death of the head of the family are reasons for asking to have passage money refunded. In case of accident to the ship the company must feed the steerage passengers until the trip is resumed.

The seaworthiness of the boat, for which the captain and the owner are held jointly responsible, is ascertained through a detailed examination, when the boat is first put into service, and later at each sailing before the clearance permit is issued. Spain alone is satisfied with Lloyds or the French *veritas certificat*. The steerage passenger, under ordinary circumstances, is not obliged to perform any services on board; this applies also to deported steerage passengers who must be returned free of cost to their

homes or home countries. In Italy the company can be sued for damages if it can be proved that the latter could have known beforehand that the man would be deported. People, who become indigent after landing are returned by their consuls. Italy pays forty cents a day for each individual; Spain and Hungary return a fixed number free of cost, the latter paying ten dollars for every additional person over 2,000 to the Cunard Line. England gets reduced rates through Thomas Cook. The ethics of burdening the mother country with those who are exhausted and exploited by other countries is debatable.

Italy makes the best provisions for the personal comfort and safety of the steerage. Germany, Spain, England, and Italy demand that fresh water for washing purposes shall be given the steerage. Each country makes stringent rules for the special protection of girls and women traveling alone; no provisions, however, provide a place on deck for their exclusive use. Pregnant women must be placed in wider beds. The complaint book, though it is to be found on all boats, is not easily accessible. A copy of the emigration laws, frequently in many languages, must be placed in a conspicuous place in the steerage. Italy, Hungary, and Spain have special governmental agents mostly physicians on boats leaving and arriving at national ports, for the enforcement of the laws. They are mediators in case of complaints in the steerage and are especially responsible for their sanitary and hygienic well being. On land special boards and officers are entrusted with the protection of emigrants. In Italy and Spain organized labor elects some representatives to these boards. Special commissioners in Genoa, Palermo, and Naples are responsible for the emigrants until they are placed in the hands of the commissioners on the ship. Emigrants' eating and boarding houses must submit their price lists for approval and submit to inspection by day and by night. In disputes the commissioner's settlement of the matter is final.

At these three ports the emigrants are examined by United States medical offi-

cers who rejected in one year over 10,000 people. Greece, whose emigration is growing very fast, enforces strict medical supervision. A person intending to emigrate is allowed, after a preliminary examination by a local physician, to deposit the passage money and is shipped with a health certificate to the port of embarkation where he must submit to a second examination by the head physician. Eye specialists are employed in Italy, Bremen, Hamburg, and Rotterdam. In Bremen emigrants are examined by physicians hired by the American consul and paid by the company; in Rotterdam by the company's and the consul's physician; in Trieste the latter official is allowed much liberty while in Antwerp his interference is not tolerated. Germany obliges the companies to maintain thirteen stations on her eastern border and one near Spandau, to which emigrants from Russia and Austria-Hungary are directed. Here they are examined and quarantined, until the companies are reasonably sure that they may satisfy in every way the immigration officials in the United States. In one year over 11,000 people were refused transportation at these stations and had to return home.

The emigration service is a heavy financial burden for some countries. Italy demands \$1.80 for each steerage ticket, which with fines and money from licenses and permits is turned into a general fund, from which the costs of the service both at home and abroad are defrayed. There is still great variety in emigration legislation, especially as to comforts on the boats. Here the United States could take the initiative toward raising the standard of requirements which is still deplorably low. Since we try constantly and often very successfully to raise the general standard of hygiene and sanitation on land, why should we not do the same for the steerage and make it possible to boycott such lines as do not come up to a minimum of decency? Not only the companies, but also foreign governments are still quite delinquent in their care for steerage passengers especially on the eastern trip.



BURROWING INTO MOTHER EARTH FOR IRON

The funnel-shaped hole on the left shows where the ore is "milled" down in mines worked by the milling process. Down in the right-hand corner completely dwarfed is a man with a wheelbarrow. The center picture shows the terraces on which the steam shovels work in the Mountain Iron Mine. Open pit mining on the Mesabi is represented in the third picture where the shovels are loading a very high grade ore.

IMMIGRANT LIFE IN THE ORE REGION OF NORTHERN MINNESOTA

LeROY HODGES

SPECIAL AGENT AND GEOGRAPHER FORMER UNITED STATES IMMIGRATION COMMISSION;
FORMER COMMISSIONER OF IMMIGRATION THE SOUTHERN COMMERCIAL CONGRESS

North of Duluth there is a region where the falling rains and melting snows on one hill drain northward to the ice wastes of the Arctic Ocean. The waters on a second hill pass down to the Great Lakes, plunge over Niagara, and rush through the St. Lawrence into the gray, storm-tossed Atlantic. Providence has also decreed that the more favored waters of this place shall fall on a third hill and flow southward into the majestic Mississippi, traverse the heart of the Southland, and empty into the blue, sparkling depths of the Gulf of Mexico.

Great wastes of land stretch for miles covered only with the charred, blackened stumps of a once magnificent pine forest. Yawning chasms, in all their ugly nakedness, mark the spots where man has discovered and removed or is now at work removing the treasures of the hills which Nature so carefully stored away.

The babel of more than thirty different alien tongues mingles with the roar of mine blasts and the crash and clank of machinery. Here side by side work Finns, Swedes, Montenegrins, South Italians, English, Irish, Bohemians, Frenchmen, Hollanders, Syrians, Belgians, Croats, Danes, Russians,

Magyars, Bulgarians, Germans, Greeks, Scotchmen, Welshmen, Dalmatians, Norwegians, and Servians.

More than 22,000,000 tons of iron ore are produced here annually, giving employment to about 15,000 men. Nearly 2,000,000 tons a year of the hard hematite ores are taken from steep shafts which reach a thousand feet down into the bowels of the earth, while more than 20,000,000 tons of soft hematite and limonite ores are dug from the surface of the earth with as little difficulty as though they were the common sands of the sea.

Embedded in these rock strewn hills lie the wealth and the power of the American steel industry. Here is the home of thirty great iron mining companies. Man can lay back a few feet of top soil and load, with steam-driven shovels, an almost pure ore into the cars of waiting trains. It is an Eldorado where iron takes the place of gold!

This region is divided geologically into two districts, or ranges as they are popularly called, known respectively as the Vermillion and the Mesabi.¹

¹Spelled also Mesabe and Missabe. Mesabi is the Chippewa Indian name for "giant."



SHACK OF A FINNISH MINER.

The Vermillion, the oldest of the two ranges, was explored and recognized as an iron-bearing district as early as the late forties, but was not developed to any extent until about 1880 when the locating of large deposits of iron ore caused a stampede. The majority of the new settlers came from the iron ranges of Michigan to seek employment. In 1882 the town of Tower, the first permanent mining camp in Minnesota, was established. A mining company was soon organized which has since been merged into a controlling iron-mining and steel-manufacturing interest which now owns and operates all mining properties on the range.

The records of a Roman Catholic church built in 1884 show that in that year the congregation was composed of thirty families of Irish, Germans, Italians, and French-Canadians: 120 souls, forty-five of them single, most of them from the Michigan ranges.

Systematic mining operations in the Mesabi range were begun in 1890, thirty years after the ore was discovered. The most important find was that of an exploration party from Duluth which struck a rich deposit of iron at what is now the Mountain Iron mine.

After the first discoveries of the vast ore wealth of the Mesabi were made, towns and railroads were built and a steady immigration from the Vermillion and the older ranges of Michigan set in. By the fall of 1892 the first shipments of ore went from the Mountain Iron mine.

The production of ore on the whole

range in 1892 amounted to only 4,245 tons. Today the Mesabi, with its annual production of more than 20,000,000 tons of high grade ore, is the greatest iron-producing region in the world.

The same company which owns the Vermillion properties controls and operates about two-thirds of the mines on the Mesabi, employing three-fourths of the men working in the industry. More than thirty other important concerns also own properties on the range. The centers of production are the towns of Hibbing and Virginia, and after them Chisholm, Eveleth, Coleraine, Nashwauk, Bovey, and Biwabik.

About 1900, to the original inhabitants—Finns, Slovenians, Scandinavians, Irish, North Italians, Cornishmen, and native Americans—were added an influx direct from Europe of Bohemians, South Italians, Bulgarians, Servians, Croatians, Montenegrins, and other South and East Europeans who now make up the unskilled element required in the development of the mines. At present the Finns and Slovenians greatly outnumber all other races, and about 77 per cent of the total population of the region is composed of aliens.

Underground mining is employed exclusively on the Vermillion range where some of the shafts have been sunk more than a thousand feet. On the Mesabi are found the great "open pit" mines which have made the region famous. These mines are operated chiefly with steam shovels, but a few employ what is known as the milling process.

Mining in open surface cuts, or under the "open pit" system, consists in simply removing with steam shovels the glacial drift or overburden, composed of clay boulders, sand or low-grade ore, which covers the deposits to a depth of from two to eighty feet at an average of between twenty and forty feet. The ore is then loaded by the same means into standard-gauge cars.

The Mesabi ores are soft, with a texture varying from a fine flue dust to a coarse, granular ore which requires little blasting to enable the steam shovels to remove it from its bed. A few of the mining companies have taken advantage

of this soft character of the ore and have employed the "milling" process.

By this method a shaft is sunk on the edge of the ore body from which a tunnel is run under the ore and connected with a vertical, funnel-shaped hole made from the surface through which the ore is milled down into tram cars at the tunnel opening. The tram cars are then run out to the bottom of the shaft and the ore dumped into skids, or elevators, and raised to a tippie on the surface. From here the ore is loaded into railroad cars for shipment. The milling process thus employs some of the features of both the open pit and underground methods of mining.

When the methods of mining are taken into consideration, the number of accidents, both fatal and non-fatal, have been abnormally high throughout this region, fatal accidents being very nearly as frequent as in bituminous coal mining districts. The Vermillion mines are deep for ore workings, but are free from dangers of gas explosions. The earth formations on this range permit of much freedom in sinking shafts and running cross cuts for there are no very great difficulties to be overcome in preventing caving or strata displacement. On the Mesabi, explosives are used chiefly in the open mines and can not be considered an especially dangerous element in the mining operations. Mine fires and floods are rare, and can be quickly controlled.

During the seasons of the year when lake transportation is open the demand for labor greatly exceeds the supply, and the mining companies make sweeping concessions in order to keep their pay rolls full. Unskilled labor from the South and East of Europe is imported and mine discipline has been made as lax as possible, in order to keep the men satisfied after they are secured. This practice, the absence of both state and federal laws compelling the companies to employ only trained and experienced miners in the responsible and dangerous occupations, the inability of the majority of the operatives to speak English and understand the rules of the



FINNISH WOMEN OF A SUNDAY.

mines and the orders given them, and the recklessness and rank carelessness of a number of them, no doubt account for the appalling annual accident rate.¹

As the lake transportation lines are tied up during the winter, this season is slack in the mines. On account of its open pit system of mining the Mesabi is more seriously affected by winter weather than the Vermillion. The mines on the latter range, all being underground, can be operated even in the most severe weather, the ore being "stock piled" at the surface and held for shipment during the summer. If the demand for ore is active, employment can be secured on the Vermillion range the whole year round, which is not the case on the Mesabi.

Under normal conditions, during the shipping season, ten-hour periods for both day and night shifts are worked on the two ranges. No regular Sunday work is carried on except that of repairing, cleaning, and track laying which is done in a day shift of six to eight hours.

Wages average from \$12.50 per week to \$20 and over. More than 90 per cent of the Poles, Slovenians, and Finns earn under \$15 per week, while only a very few of the native Americans, English, Irish, Germans, Scandinavians, and other races from northern Europe earn under this amount. Wage payments are made monthly in currency by all the more important companies. Gold and silver coins are principally used. There

¹See article by Don D. Leschobier of the Minnesota Bureau of Labor on Accidents and Accident Prevention in the Minnesota Iron Mines, p. 710.



AN ALLEY SCENE IN COLERAINE.

The picture shows the garbage cans and stands required by a local ordinance.

are no company stores, or other institutions, upon which script can be issued.

Compulsory accident insurance is conducted by the principal mining concerns. The usual method is for the companies to deduct from fifty cents to a dollar a month from the wages of each employe. A representative system is that of one of the largest companies on the Mesabi, whose employes are entitled to receive \$25 per month when injured in the performance of their duties for a period of not longer than six months. For the first four days of disability no indemnity is paid. Should the employe be confined for more than four days and less than a month he receives one dollar a day. In case of death, the relief benefit is \$300. In the event that permanent injury results from an accident, he is paid a cash indemnity of \$240. A few of the companies, instead of carrying their own insurance fund turn the money deducted from the wages of their employes over in payment of premiums to a liability company.

In addition to accident insurance the majority of the companies maintain also a compulsory hospital and medical service, for whose support they deduct an additional dollar from the monthly wages of each employe. This money is paid by the companies to a contract doctor who attends all employes in case of accident or sickness, except cases of confinement and venereal diseases, for attending which they may charge extra. Some of these doctors have contracts with several mining companies.

In several instances this system has been taken advantage of by mine superintendents and made a means of personal

revenue. The superintendents contract with a doctor to render medical services at from fifty to seventy-five cents per individual employe per month and themselves retain the balance, which in some instances amounts to several hundred dollars a month. As a result of this petty graft, the personnel of the contract doctors is greatly injured and the efficiency of some of them is questionable.

Another line of petty graft is practiced to some extent by the sub-officials of a number of the companies. A group of Croatian and Servian laborers employed by one of the larger companies complained publicly that they had been forced to pay from \$5 to \$20 each for a job in the laboring occupations to one of the minor officials. Investigation substantiated the charge, and unearthed the additional fact that just prior to this instance a gang of fifteen laborers was laid off by an employment boss of the company, and the members re-employed by the same boss immediately on the payment of \$5 each. On another occasion when a Servian laborer complained in person to the general superintendent of his company that he had been compelled to pay one of the foremen for his job, that official replied: "If you have so much money that you can pay for a job, that is all right, for the foreman has a lot of little children and needs the money."

Labor is unorganized on the ranges, and an "open shop" is maintained by all companies. There is an unimportant local union at Hibbing, on the Mesabi, but it has never been recognized by the operators. The Western Federation of Miners has made several attempts to organize the miners, but all have failed on account of the militant opposition to organization on the part of the larger mining interests, who import immigrants as strike-breakers.

Drunkenness is common among all races, and the efficiency of the Finns and Slovenians especially is visibly impaired by excessive drinking; the Scandinavians, though heavier drinkers, carry their drink better.

Each town in the region has its full

quota of saloons. The only community in which the number is not abnormally large is Coleraine—the “model ore town”—with an estimated population of 2,000 on the western Mesabi range. There are only two saloons in this town, while a mile away, Bovey, the sister town, with a population of about 1,200, has twenty-five saloons. Bovey conditions are typical of the ore region.

In the principal fifteen towns on the two ranges, with a combined population of about 50,000, there are more than 350 saloons, or one saloon for 140 individuals. About 110 of these places are run by Poles, 80 by native Americans, 60 by Finns, 50 by Slovenians, 45 by Scandinavians, 35 by Croatians, about 30 by South Italians, and the remainder by the several other races in the region.

The majority of the saloons are well fitted up, and it is not unusual to find card rooms, dancing halls and lodging quarters run in connection with the establishments. Lodging rooms in connection with saloons are most often found among the Finns. The Montenegrin and South Italian saloons are nearly all low-class places, and many of those of the Slovenians are little better. Those run by Americans are elaborately fixed up and cater to the better classes. When out of work, or on the “off shifts,” the loafing places of the miners are the saloons conducted by members of their respective races.

A number of typhoid fever epidemics have occurred as a direct result of poor sanitary conditions that are fairly general. In Biwabik, on the Mesabi, for instance, a widespread epidemic of typhoid broke out a few years ago which was attributed to common flies carrying the disease from dry closets improperly cared for. An epidemic of the same disease at Hibbing was caused by using the waters of a small stream alike for drinking purposes and for sewage disposal.

Municipal sewage of the towns on the Vermillion range is emptied raw, without passing through septic tanks or other purifying processes, into the Vermillion lakes.



A PUBLIC SCHOOL IN COLERAINE.
Coleraine, on the Mesabi Range, is called the
“model ore town.”

The towns on the Mesabi range dispose of their municipal sewage by emptying it into running streams and lakes. Virginia and Chisholm, for example, employ lakes. The sewage of Chisholm is run through septic tanks before allowed to enter the water, but as the lake is slowly being drained by the mining operations in the vicinity the practice can hardly be considered as conforming to the best principles of sanitation, especially as the lake is in the town itself.

In all communities on both ranges, whether a municipal sewerage exists or not, will be found a number of houses which have only open or dry closets, especially on the mine locations. A few are equipped with cesspools.

Garbage and similar refuse is required to be placed in cans or barrels at each house and is collected by scavenger carts at regular periods, in most places daily. In the camps, refuse of all kinds is generally scattered indiscriminately on the ground, especially where the inhabitants are Montenegrins and South Italians. These camps are also badly congested, unclean and unsanitary.

The most common diseases on the ranges are pulmonic tuberculosis, typhoid and scarlet fevers, diphtheria, trachoma, smallpox, and venereal diseases.

Pulmonary tuberculosis is most prevalent among the Finns and Swedes, being chiefly imported. Scarlet fever, diphtheria, and smallpox are common among all races. Trachoma is brought in largely over the Canadian border and is endemic among the Montenegrins, Servians, Slovenians and Croatians.

The reasons for the universality of



A COMPANY COTTAGE.
Seventeen Magyars live here.



A MONTENEGRIN CAMP.
Home of boarding boss and fourteen men.

syphilis are the large number of unmarried men in the region, who frequent illegal houses of prostitution not under the jurisdiction of the municipal or state health officials. The only medical attention these houses receive is that provided by the proprietors who in some cases make examinations of the inmates at intervals of two, three, and four weeks, and use the fact as an advertisement.

On the Vermillion range, the only two towns of any importance are Ely and Tower, where general housing conditions are excellent. Nearly all immigrants live in their own houses, though a few occupy rented company houses. There are no "camps," as they are called on the Mesabi, because there are but few recent immigrants from the South and East of Europe. The races composing the population, principally Finns and Slovenians, are permanently settled and take an interest in their homes.

The common type of house is a frame dwelling, one or two stories high, containing from four to six rooms. A few boarding and lodging houses owned by the mining company, contain about twenty rooms and are rented to favored employees at the same rate as the smaller cottages, the rent of company houses being \$5 per month, irrespective of whether they contain six or twenty rooms. There is little congestion.

The homes of all races have small gardens and flower beds around them, and the visitor passing through the streets of either Ely or Tower is struck with the general cleanliness. It is hard

to distinguish the difference in the living conditions among the different races on this range for they are all above the average.

In the towns on the Mesabi range the natives, English, Irish, Scotch, and Scandinavians have the most substantial houses. These are chiefly two-story frame buildings, four to eight rooms, with flush closets and piped water on the inside. The Finns and Austrians live in small cottages in the larger towns, while in the outlying settlements they are found in log cabins and tar-paper shacks. In both small and large communities persons of all these races are found in boarding houses.

Around the mine locations is found the mining camp, generally a shack or cottage in which an unusually large number of persons live together, under a boarding boss system. Camps are very common among South Europeans, and among them congestion and filth are pronounced. The standards of the Slavs are higher, of the North European higher still.

Cottages and camps in the mine locations are usually owned by the mining companies and rented for \$6 to \$12 per month for a cottage, \$15 to \$30 for a boarding house. In some communities the mining companies rent the land for fifty cents to one dollar a month and allow their employees to erect shacks of their own. In such cases the right is reserved to move the builder off at any time should the land be needed.

The usual price of board and lodging among the Swedes, English, Scotch, and

Americans is from \$18 to \$20 a month on the American plan; among Finns and Slovenians, \$14 to \$18 and among the few American plan boarding-houses of South Europeans \$16.

The cost of food and lodging under the boarding boss systems varies among the several races; and among the same race in different localities with varying standards of living. In the little town of Gilbert, for instance, the Montenegrins pay \$8 to \$15 per month for food, and \$2 to \$3 for lodging and cooking; while in Nashwauk they pay \$15 to \$18 for food, lodging, and cooking. Among the better classes of immigrants in Eveleth, board on the American plan costs from \$14 to \$16. The Croatians, Italians, Servians, and Syrians, living under boarding boss systems in this town, pay from \$2 to \$4 a month for lodging, washing, and cooking, and \$10 to \$15 for food.

One of the most striking things on the ranges is the excellent school facilities provided in every community. Even the minor settlements where the inhabitants live in small frame dwellings, often provide school buildings which would be a credit to a large city. School attendance is compulsory in Minnesota, and members of all races are found in the class-rooms of the public schools.

The public school system is one of the best in the state, in respect to general facilities and equipment. About 95 per cent of the school taxes is paid by the several mining companies, who are all heavy contributors to all educational movements. There are no parochial schools. The Roman Catholic parishes in nearly every settlement are made up of South Europeans. Smaller Lutheran,

Methodist, and Baptist churches are supported by the North Europeans. All of these churches maintain a number of benefit and sick societies whose monthly fees range from 50 cents to \$1.50. They pay sick benefits of from \$5 to \$10 a week, and death benefits of from \$200 to \$1,000.

The Scandinavians are making the most noticeable progress. They entered the region as unskilled laborers, but are moving up in the scale of occupations and are found chiefly as skilled workmen in the ore mines, or as industrious law-abiding citizens who have established independent businesses.

The Irish, English, Scotch, and French Canadians have worked up from unskilled labor to skilled occupations in the mines. The Russian Hebrews are mostly storekeepers, and are slowly progressing, as are the Finns and the Slovenians on the Vermillion range.

A few of the Finns have gone from the mine colonies into the northern wilderness and cleared small patches of land miles away from the centers of population where they remain practically the whole winter living on provisions hauled out during the fall. They seem to thrive where the hardships are most severe, but their progress in the mines is retarded by their surliness and radicalism.

There has been very little advancement in the scale of occupations on the part of the Bohemians, Bulgarians, Croatians, Greeks, Poles, Servians, Montenegrins, Italians, and Syrians. The Poles are good workmen but not at all ambitious. The Croatians are lazy, indifferent workmen and are among the lowest in the industrial scale.



STREET SCENE IN COLERAINE.

ACCIDENTS AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION IN THE MINNESOTA IRON MINES

DON D. LESCOHIER

MINNESOTA BUREAU OF LABOR

[This article summarizes a special investigation of the accident prevention work of the Oliver Iron Mining Company, the Minnesota subsidiary of the United States Steel Corporation, made by W. F. Houk, labor commissioner of Minnesota, J. P. Gardiner, assistant labor commissioner, and Don D. Lescohier, expert of the Bureau of Labor, the latter's investigation being made at the request of THE SURVEY.]

The article expresses the conclusions of the state officials gained from their own investigations made together and supplemented by the experience of W. H. Harvey, mine inspector for St. Louis county, a man of sterling ability. Mr. Harvey reported that the operations visited were typical of the conditions in the other mines of the company and that the independent companies are rapidly introducing the same safety measures as the Oliver Company. Not all the illustrative accidents cited in this paper occurred in the Oliver Company's mines.]

"These gentlemen are interested in safety," said Edward Windom of the Oliver Iron Mining Company to a machine-shop foreman at Coleraine.

"That is the burning question of the day," was the man's response.

The most amazing thing on the Minnesota iron ranges is the universality and intensity of this conviction. From superintendent down to shift boss every man seems committed to the doctrine that "safety is first" in proper mining methods. "I never saw industrial operations on so large a scale" said J. P. Gardiner, as we were returning to St. Paul, "where the spirit of 'safety first' was so deeply ingrained into the entire force from the president of the corporation down to the pettiest foreman. If we give this company the credit they deserve, people will say that we have been hoodwinked."

And yet it is this spirit that appealed to us as the most significant and important achievement that the Oliver Iron Mining Company has performed in its campaign for safety. Mining is a business where caution is peculiarly necessary. The underground men, scattered through the workings at points so far distant from each other that the mine captain or shift boss cannot keep them under continuous observation, are handling heavy timbers, overhead earth and rock, and explosives. More than one-half of them have been in this country less than five years, and about 20 per

cent less than two years. They are mostly Slavic or South European peoples and not half of them can speak English. Forty-nine of the eighty-five men killed in the mines of Minnesota during the year ending June 30, 1911, were of Teutonic origin. The rest were Slavs and South Europeans. In their home countries the South Europeans are not miners, and they bring to the work no knowledge of those fine points of mining practice that make the miners of the British Isles, France, and Belgium skillful and fitted by past training and experience to cope with those dangers which can be avoided only by their own carefulness and foresight. The importance of "safety first" in the mines of Minnesota can therefore hardly be overestimated.

The open pits in surface mining are even more full of dangers that can be escaped only by vigilance than are underground workings and their foreign laborers are, on the whole, of a still lower grade. Fifty-five (65 per cent.) of last year's fatalities occurred in surface mining and though this is an unusually large proportion, the year is rare when the open pit fatality rate is not in excess of the underground.

The open pit men must work around railroad tracks, beneath steam shovel dippers and banks of earth and rock, and explode tremendous charges of powder. During the last year, twenty-two men were killed by caving ground in the

open pit—fourteen of them in one terrible catastrophe; six by premature explosions while loading gopher holes; two by "missed holes"; ten by train accidents; three by stripping cars dumping back; and twelve by miscellaneous accidents.

"The key to the situation," said Michael Godfrey, general superintendent of the Canisteo district, "is the foreman. I hold my foremen responsible for every accident that occurs among their men. Their ability to prevent accidents is an important consideration for promotion; their inability to prevent accidents is certain to result in discharge. *I've got my foremen now where they come in and apologize for an accident. When the foreman is careful the men have to be.*"

The fact that the mine superintendents and other men in charge are convinced that no precaution is too trivial to take, and that every needless exposure to danger is poor mining practice, is of tremendous significance to Minnesota's mine accident problem. When this conviction has penetrated, as it already has in part, to the steam-shovel and train crews, the drillers and blasters, the miners, the skipmen, and the trammers, the central problem of Minnesota's mine accident prevention will be solved.

W. H. Harvey, mine inspector of St. Louis county, speaking of the problems arising from the personal characteristics of the mine workers, stated that the night schools upon the mining range were being largely attended by miners, and that as their knowledge of English increases, accidents among them decrease. He also believes that the efforts of the mining companies to prevent the sale of adulterated liquors is tending to decrease accidents, since the use of purer liquors does not leave the miners in so stupefied a condition. Accidents from intoxication are in his opinion very rare, since great care is taken to prevent intoxicated men from entering the mines, but accidents from the after effects of intoxication are not uncommon, and are much more frequent where low grade liquors are sold.

In open pit mining one of the most dangerous processes has been the preparation and explosion of "gopher holes"

or horizontal excavations in the bank. These are generally from twelve to twenty feet deep, and are loaded with several kegs of black powder, and then exploded to loosen the earth ready for the steam shovel. To prevent workmen from being smothered by earth or overcome by gas in the holes the safety committee of the company now requires that where feasible they shall be "of such size that it will not be possible for a man to enter them."

Previous to the making of this rule such accidents occurred as that on April 11, 1910, to John Isaacson, a Finnish gopher hole digger at the Virginia mine. He entered a hole too soon after he had exploded a small blast in it, and was suffocated by the powder gases.

Four men have been killed during the past year, three of them in one accident, by the premature explosion of powder in gopher holes. The principal causes for these premature explosions are putting powder into the holes while the ground is still hot after a dynamite "shaking blast"; dropping sparks into the powder; hand shovels or other tools striking stones; or steam shovels, locomotives, or fires igniting the powder. Other premature explosions are caused by the crossing of electric wires when firing "shaking blasts," causing the explosion of powder and dynamite. A typical loading-in accident occurred at the Hull-Rust mine on June 10, 1909, in which George and Martin Startivick, Austrians and brothers, were killed while attempting to load a gopher hole with a hand shovel. A similar accident on May 24, 1911, cost the lives of three gopher hole diggers.

To prevent these accidents the company required¹ that the powder should be placed either in sacks or in loading troughs and thus introduced into the hole. These precautions effectively guard against ignition of powder by sparks, but do not prevent accidents due to gopher hole men loading into hot holes or getting their electric wires crossed, which can be prevented by care alone.

The safety committee's requirements

¹All rules referred to in this paper are taken from a typewritten copy of the General Safety Regulations that are being worked out by the company's general superintendents. The rules will soon be put in printed form.

that a "safe and convenient means of getting black powder into the pits shall be provided" has resulted in the operators devising a very clever and inexpensive device that should commend itself to all large excavators. A wooden trough is provided, divided into two compartments, with a rope running over a pulley at the top and attached to a little box on each side of the trough. When the box on one side goes down to the bottom of the pit, the box on the other side comes to the top. A keg of powder is placed in the box and goes down by force of gravity, at the same time pulling the empty box on the other side to the top. By this method a number of kegs can quickly and safely be taken to the bottom of the pit by a pair of miners and without hard labor.

To make sure that the hole is fired both electric and tape fuses are inserted and the blaster is required to examine the ground after a blast and to notify his foreman if he suspects a misfire, so that the missed hole may be exploded or dug out. Neglect to take this precaution or an error in judgment sometimes has serious results. In January, 1911, Eric Yimbeck was killed by rocks thrown by a missed hole set off by a "shaking blast" fired near it, and a few days later Matt Frakovich was killed by running a hot drill into such a hole.

Steam shovels have cost many lives and serious injuries, and one of the most valuable contributions that the Oliver Iron Mining Company have made to safety engineering is the transformation they have wrought on their steam shovels. Such accidents as occurred at the Hull-Rust mine on February 1, 1906, when Sam Kokko was thrown into the steam shovel gears and fatally injured while helping to re-wrap a repaired hoisting chain on the drum, would have been impossible on a steam shovel guarded as the Oliver shovels are now. The same thing may be said of the death of Steve Radich at the Buffalo and Susquehanna stripping on October 11, 1910, who fell from the running board of a steam shovel and struck his head on a jack screw handle.

The typical location of the pitman under the steam dipper is always dan-

gerous, and the problem of protecting him is further complicated by the deafening noise of the engine, straining chains, and rending earth and rock. The pitmen must be beneath the boom, where it is difficult for the engineer or craneman to see them, and the noise makes sudden warnings difficult. No device can prevent these accidents, and dependence must be placed upon the carefulness of the shovel crew, particularly the engineer and craneman. "On September 26, 1910," says the mine inspector's report, "Louis Neogete, a laborer at the Dale-Uno mine, was laying a tie just in front of the steam shovel preparatory to moving the shovel ahead, when he was struck on the head by the dipper and killed. Neither the engineer nor the craner could see him, as he was directly under the swinging circle, and the victim did not see the dipper descending."

An important reform in the company's excavating practice, which should be copied in the contracting industries generally, is the providing of a man at each shovel or other place where men are working near a bank of earth, to remove with a crowbar all overhanging rocks, dirt, shrubs, etc. Such a measure will prevent most accidents like the one that occurred at the Sellers mine on December 4, 1910, when "Mike" Ellick, an Austrian pitman, was pinned by falling chunks of earth against the jack arm of a steam shovel and crushed to death, or the two like accidents that happened three days later in the Brunt and the Hartley mines when Andrew Neimie and Victor Lokso, Finnish pit workmen, were killed. Six men were killed in this way during the last year.

Fourteen others lost their lives in the worst mine disaster that Minnesota has ever known, and one entirely unpreventable. On March 11, at the Norman mine a crew of men were raising and lining up the track in the approach to the open pit, when an immense quantity of ore from the north side of the pit slid down with such precipitation that the men had not time to make their escape. The pit, at the place where the accident occurred, was 357 feet wide from crest to crest of the ore body, 51 feet wide at the bottom, and 205 feet deep, giving it a



UNDERGROUND MINERS OF MINNESOTA.

properly sloping bank. It had been used as a safe refuge when blasts were fired, but the dip of the ore body was toward the south, and this, with the alternate freezing and thawing of the ground, caused the slide.

Another type of surface accidents occurs in the "test pits," which are dug into ore beds to get samples of the ore, where workmen have lost their lives both by gas poisoning and by falling buckets. No man is now permitted to go into a test pit until he has tested it for gas by lowering a lighted candle, and he cannot remain in the pit without keeping a lighted candle near the bottom of the pit. If gas accumulates the candle will go out and he will be warned to leave the pit. A similar precaution would protect well diggers and workmen in gaseous man-holes.

A recent fatal accident from a bucket falling while being hoisted has forcibly emphasized the need of the safety hooks now used to fasten bucket handles, when

lowering buckets into the pits. All tools must be fastened to the buckets.

In underground mining safety must be a product of safe methods of working, skill, and effective supervision. Principal dependence must be placed on the unfailing carefulness of all underground men. Nevertheless there are many mechanical means of accident prevention. This is brought out by the safety rules of the corporation, and more vividly still by the devices in a typical Minnesota underground mine—the Spruce mine at Eveleth, Minn.

At this mine the timber shaft on the surface is railed and properly "toeboarded" with boards six inches high to prevent men or objects falling down the shaft. The timber shaft beside which the ladder runs is boarded up solidly to prevent miners from crawling across the beams which form the frame-work of the shaft to sublevels ordinarily reached only by going down to the level beneath and climbing back to the sub-level by

another ladder. This effectively prevents such accidents as that on July 18, 1908, to John Onic, an Austrian miner twenty-three years old, employed at the Shenango mine, who was instantly killed by being caught by the counterbalance of the timber cage. A small opening was made to the shaft at this place to get timber through for the sublevel. He attempted to reach the ladders by crawling across the timbers and leaving the shaft by this hole instead of at the entrance of the ladder road twenty feet below. Such accidents, inexcusably careless on the workman's part, will nevertheless occur unless the timber and skip shafts are absolutely inaccessible from the ladder ways.

One of the most important features of the Oliver Company's safety work is the effort to prevent falls, the cause of 10 per cent of all the industrial accidents in Minnesota. Every construction on their properties, indoor and out, surface or underground, from which a workman might fall, is being railed or otherwise protected. But even so, during the past year eight men were killed in shafts and raises. One case was apparently a suicide; of the others, one might have been saved by a toe board, the others by wearing safety ropes around their waists.

The ladder road has been another fruitful source of falls in underground mines. The guarding of ladder roads now begins at the surface. As one approaches a ladder road he is confronted by a closed door, so that he cannot stumble into the ladder road opening. The ladders are also extended about four feet above the floor so that one may get on them without crawling into a hole to do so. All are at least four inches away from the side of the shaft to allow a good hand and foot hold. The landings are normally twelve feet apart, though under exceptional conditions they may run from ten to twenty-five feet. The man-hole from a landing to the ladder below is always directly beneath the ladder above which is placed at an angle across the hole so that it forms an absolute protection against falling more than the length of one ladder. Under these conditions long, deadly falls down ladder roads become impossible, and men

are enabled to rest every twelve feet. The significance of this system may only be appreciated by one who has stood at the foot of a ladder road and heard some agile young miner come down, his hands and feet simply gliding from rung to rung with a sound on the steel rungs resembling the swift, steady rat-a-tat-tat of the wood-pecker pounding a hollow tree.

In order to guard against fires the men are absolutely forbidden to set candles on shaft timbers or any other timbers, no hay or manure is kept underground, unless stored in a fireproof room, and no more powder than is necessary to last a single day. All electric wires are insulated, wherever possible, and fire-extinguishers and fire hose kept where accessible. Telephones afford communication with all parts of the mine and with the surface.

The calcium carbide lamp is now being generally introduced, which will entirely do away with the dangers that have accompanied the use of candles. "There is always danger," says Mr. Harvey, "from hot grease or snuff from the candle falling into caps when handling explosives, or of the men forgetting to put out their candles when leaving the mine at quitting time, and thus causing a fire, as recently happened at the Chisholm mine, though without serious damage. The calcium carbide lamp is a much better and safer light than the candle, and 50 per cent cheaper."

Mr. Harvey's reference to cap explosions calls attention to a serious danger that has at last been successfully grappled with, and in an exceedingly simple manner. At the Spruce mine on October 14, 1910, Emil Pohja, a Finnish miner, in taking a cap from a box dropped a spark from his candle into the box. He was instantly killed. The cap box was so constructed that when opened all the caps were exposed. A new type of cap box is now being made by the powder companies which exposes but one cap at a time.

Besides providing the safer cap boxes the companies are seeking to protect the miners against explosions by specific instructions relative to the handling, storing, and thawing of dynamite, powder

and caps, that are too detailed and technical to discuss here.

The chief underground risks center about the danger of ore or ground falling and the handling and use of explosives, though fatalities occur each year by falls and by crushings under skips and timber cages.

Eleven men were killed underground during the past year by caves of ground. On March 11, 1911, Philip J. Stone, an Englishman, and Joseph Bomash, an Austrian, were boarding up the sides of a room forty-five by fifteen feet, when they heard a timber crack. Before they could escape the room caved in and killed them both. Joseph Binney, the mine captain, was seriously injured in the same accident. On January 4, 1911, Joe Degaspén, was working in a "slice" that had a sloping rock bottom, which allowed the timbers to slide out, and the roof to cave, smothering him. On October 8, 1910, Martin Caesar, was instantly killed by a cave that occurred while he was picking holes in the back and breast of his slice to put up poles to support the back.

Two regulations are of particular importance with respect to these accidents. Where the ground is soft and loose the miners are required to secure the roof of their working place by extending poles horizontally from the cap timbers of their finished set of uprights into holes in the ground. This secures the roof when only a small amount of ore has been removed. In all openings in soft ore mines the timbers are required to be put in place as soon as there is sufficient room, and to be kept up close to the breast in all openings, whether on main or sublevels. The greatest care is also required in trimming the loose dirt from the backs and sides.

Though the timbers supplied by the company are of great strength and carefully inspected, some of them break every year under the tremendous and sudden strains that result from the "slicing and caving" system of mining, and the elimination of cave-in accidents is one of the most difficult problems with which Minnesota mine operators have to cope.

The enforcing of rules regulating the

dangerous work of underground blasting is difficult because the men are so widely scattered that the shift boss cannot keep them under close supervision. Most powder accidents are of one of five general types: premature firing of loaded holes; delayed blasts; "walking into blasts"; explosion of a stock of powder; and dirt falling on men who return too soon after a blast.

Premature explosions generally occur because a fuse has been cut too short or a metal tamping stick used. Each fuse is cut by the miner according to his judgment to fit the particular conditions from a long piece. The men are forbidden to use anything but wood for tamping sticks and are warned not to attempt to force a stock of powder into a hole with a fuse already attached.

Some explosions which we class as premature are not premature in fact. The miner, when lighting several holes, will sometimes delay too long, because one of his fuses does not start well, and be caught by the blast. The company has three rules to facilitate escape in such cases. No man is permitted to light more than five holes at one time; each man is supposed to have a partner to assist him if necessary, and he must keep a light burning some distance away to guide him when hurrying from the room or drift where the blast is burning, so that if the light that he is carrying is blown out, he will not be killed by blindly walking back toward his blast.

The delayed blast and the missed hole cause many more accidents each year than the premature blast. On October 4, 1910, Simon Mustich and his partner were firing three holes. He was to light two, and his partner one. Mustich had some difficulty in lighting his, and both of them appeared to go out. After his partner's hole had exploded, he returned to light his fuse again, when one of his holes exploded. He was fatally injured.

Impatient miners, thinking that the hole is not going to fire, return to find out what is wrong and to light it again, just as a small boy looks into a fire-cracker. Only they do it with heavy charges of powder or dynamite. The result is death

or mutilations worse than death. Here as in all underground work reliance must be placed upon the obedience of the men to instructions, which are, "Don't hurry in seeking an explanation of a misfire. Take plenty of time before you approach a misfire" and "report all misfires to the shift boss or foreman in charge of the work *immediately*, and in no case whatever try to blast such missed hole without acting under the instructions of the shift boss or foreman. When changing shifts also notify opposite shift partners of such missed hole."

In most cases the persons killed or injured by "walking into a blast" are not the workmen doing the blasting, though in some cases these walk into their own blasts when their lights go out. To prevent such accidents the company requires that each opening leading to the place where the blasting is being done must be guarded.

The ore, when mined, is put into cars pushed by hand, taken to a "raise" or chute, and dumped down to the tramming level, where it empties into tram cars and is hauled to the hoisting shafts. In the operation of these tram trains, which are generally drawn by an electric motor, several dangers arise. To avoid collisions a system of green and red lights at junctions, operated by the motormen has been installed. No one except the motormen and brakemen is allowed to ride on these cars. The trains are being equipped with automatic gongs to ring while they are in motion. Drift

timbers are almost uniformly at a safe distance from the cars, and drifts are kept free of all obstructions, such as might cause an accident.

Reference has already been made to the chutes through which the ore is carried from one level to another. A number of men have been killed in chutes, and all chutes into which ore is dumped from the cars by releasing hopper doors, as in the soft ore mines, are therefore protected by a "grizzly" or set of bars horizontally across the top of the chute, low enough not to interfere with the dumping of the cars. The maximum openings must not exceed 280 square inches. All other chutes and raises are protected by fences at least three feet high.

At those mines which use "cages" to hoist and lower men these must be enclosed with plates or wire screen and equipped with safety catches. Hoist ropes, cages, and catches must be inspected daily and all defects immediately remedied; catches are tested once a month. No spliced ropes may be used on man cages, and no man is permitted to get on or off a moving cage. No tools or timbers can be carried on a cage with men, and when hoisting or lowering men, *two competent* men are kept at the hoisting engine so that if one becomes incapacitated the other may take his place. The writer saw a mine accident in Michigan where a similar precaution would have saved four men a fall of eighty feet, with serious injuries.



THE ALABAMA COAL OPERATORS ON HEALTH PROBLEMS

ETHEL ARMES

AUTHOR OF THE STORY OF COAL AND IRON IN ALABAMA

Four years ago, as brigade surgeon of the Alabama state troops, it was my duty during the strike up there [in the Birmingham district] to visit nearly all the camps, and they were "camps" at that time—typical disease spreaders, houses built on the hillside, privies draining into open wells, and residence back of residence.

I am glad to hear that you are "waking up."

Dr. W. H. Oates of Montgomery, the Alabama state inspector of jails and factories, facing what was for him and every speaker present a new audience, made this frank declaration at a meeting of Alabama coal mine officials held last June at a mining camp in the Pratt coal field (Docena) under the auspices of the Alabama Coal Operators' Association. For the first time in the history of this or any state in the Union, men were called together by coal operators for the discussion of sanitary and health problems.

Representatives from the United States Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service, the United States Bureau of Mines, the Alabama State Board of Health and the Jefferson County Medical Society were present, as well as the heads of the representative coal companies of the Birmingham district, the chief state mine inspector, the assistant state mine inspectors, mine superintendents, mine physicians and engineers, mine foremen and fire bosses from five counties around—Jefferson, Walker, Shelby, Bibb, and Tuscaloosa. Altogether there were between 600 and 700 men.

The meeting was called to order in the chapel at Rogers Hall, formerly the barracks of the state convicts, by James L. Davidson, secretary of the Alabama Coal Operators' Association. W. B. Bankhead of the Bankhead Coal Company presided.

"The question of sanitation is the keynote of this meeting today," he said before introducing the first speaker on the subject, Dr. S. C. Hotchkiss of the United States Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service.

Dr. Hotchkiss heartily commended the Alabama Coal Operators' Association for its initiative in inaugurating a systematic campaign for the improvement of sanitary, hygienic, housing and social conditions of the mines and mine villages of the Birmingham district which, broadly speaking, means the mineral region of Alabama. The employment by the association of Morris Knowles as sanitary expert was a step in the right direction, said Dr. Hotchkiss.

He gave a quick, live discussion of the kinds of diseases (soil pollution diseases) which particularly affect the health of miners all over the world. He told of hookworm, typhoid fever, Cochinchina diarrhoea and the dysenteries, and of the conditions which might serve to prevent the spread of these diseases in Alabama. Typhoid and malaria are the dragons-in-chief of the district here. Dr. Hotchkiss concluded:

From the health and safety points of view, it seems to me that the coal mining industry has two important problems. One is the prevention of accidents and disasters; the other the prevention of infectious diseases. These diseases are not harmless; they are real dangers to life and health. If a miner dies from typhoid fever, the loss to the community is as great and greater than if he had been killed in a fall of roof or in an explosion, and the prevention of this disease is easier and more certain than prevention of the falls of slate or explosions.

Managers and miners should work together to reduce these diseases to a minimum. The men should not think that the state or the mine company is trying to work a hardship on them by requesting or insisting that the mine and mine villages be kept in a sanitary condition. The miner and his family are the

ones most directly benefited by sanitary improvements and should take interest in them, and observe the rules issued to bring them about.

Plates were exhibited showing the eggs and embryo hookworm, etc.

The next speaker, a man well known to the audience and to the readers of THE SURVEY for his work on the great Pittsburgh filtration plant, was Morris Knowles, who, with his assistant, Maurice Scharf of Natchez, Miss., has been in the employ of the Alabama Coal Operators' Association for nearly a year. The sum and substance of nearly everything said at this big meeting revolved about the investigation made by the sanitary experts and was related point to point with their suggestions and recommendations. Their commission was a broad and comprehensive one, as illustrated by the formal announcement of the association in November, 1911. This referred to the earlier interest of the organization in first aid and the prevention of tuberculosis, and outlined the social and sanitary survey as follows:

The work embraces housing conditions, the more strictly fundamental sanitary features including drinking water supplies, closets, sewage and garbage disposal, etc. The rather difficult problems of education and recreation will also be given proper consideration.

As a result of concerted effort along these lines, it is hoped that living conditions throughout the state will be such as to entitle Alabama to first rank in matters of this character. This is perhaps the first instance noted in which the operators of any important district have undertaken such a concerted and scientific study of camp life.

In nine months eighty-five mines and fifty-seven camps in all were inspected not once, but in some instances several times. Besides general data as to location, output, life of mine and number of resident people, etc., the following points were taken up in detail:

Water supply, disposal of waste, care of commissary, food and milk supplies, medical organization, sanitary organization, changing house and baths, nature and condition of dwellings, provision for schools and churches, the description and relation of same to the company, and such matters as intemperance, recreation, insurance and pensions.

Vital statistics were gathered and tabu-

lated, and reports and recommendations made solely to the individual companies concerned. While a general report outlining the progress of work was made to the executive board, the information gained at the camps visited is kept on a private confidential file and copies of the same, together with criticisms and suggestions regarding particular camps, are furnished to the owner only and on his direct request. In addition several pamphlets have been issued on the fly and mosquito pests with instructions for exterminating them and on the sanitary privy, isolation and disinfection, safe well supplies, water distribution and methods of purification. Certain fundamental points were included in a report to the association at large, and distributed to all the companies. The following recommendations were based on this report:

That sanitary privies be installed to replace the present unsanitary, open back surface privies. Such a sanitary privy should be provided with a water-tight receptacle, on a tight floor, beneath a seat rendered fly-proof by tightly closing, hinged covers on the back and top. Such privies, in numbers, can be built and equipped for about \$12 each, or old privies can be changed into sanitary ones for about \$5 each. We will be glad to furnish drawings and specifications for such privies to any member of your association upon request.

Even if no improvement is made in the present methods of final disposition of excreta, the improvement of privies as suggested will be a distinct advance. If any of the operators desire to go further, however, one of the following suggestions may be adopted:

(a) Dig a pit at the point outside the camp, fencing it to keep out hogs and empty the cans into it. Since the surface of excreta occasionally by burning kerosene in the pit, lime occasionally, and refill pit, when filled to within about two feet of the surface.

(b) Complete incineration would be the most satisfactory method of final disposal. We have prepared plans for an incinerator, which would cost about \$500 to construct. This would take care not only of excreta, but also of garbage and rubbish. We will be glad to furnish copies with complete information to members of the association on request.

(c) Where a sufficient quantity of running water is available, as from a distributed water supply, or from a dependable spring, and where there is a stream or branch to carry away the effluent, liquid disposal may be used. The cans may be dumped into a septic or liquefying tank, and the effluent oxidized by means

of a filter. Under favorable circumstances, such a plant could be built for \$500 to \$700, and should require no attention except occasional cleaning of the tank.

2. That a system of collecting vital statistics be instituted, to secure the prompt reporting of infectious diseases, and to determine needed improvements and the value of reforms accomplished. Blank forms have been prepared for making such reports and will be furnished members of the association upon request.

3. That a moving-picture machine be secured, and that a series of shows be commenced in the camps, under the auspices of your association. It is believed that such an amusement, appealing to men, women, and children of all races and classes, will tend to make a more contented, and hence a more stable, laboring population. Moreover, by replacing more vicious forms of relaxation, and by competing with saloons and blind tigers, it will indirectly decrease drunkenness and consequent interruptions of operations.

4. That during the coming spring and summer an effort be made, by improved handling of stable manure and garbage, to prevent the breeding of flies; and that draining and oiling of standing water, and collection of empty cans, be actively taken up, to prevent the breeding of mosquitoes, and to prevent a recurrence of the large amount of sickness and inefficiency due to malaria last year. We will be glad to advise regarding such work on request and to inspect the work if undertaken.

In addition to these general problems, certain special problems were also investigated, and in two cases sketches and specifications were prepared for water filters. In accordance with the terms of their engagement the engineers' services were at the disposal of any member of the association free of cost, for study, report and advice.

As to the direct practical results, nothing ever comes the next minute anywhere. Last spring certainly marked the first organized plan to destroy flies and mosquitoes ever undertaken in the Birmingham district, not only in some mining camps but in the city at large.

A number of the coal and iron companies handled screens at their commissary at cost, while dodgers and pamphlets were distributed such as the following which reflects the spirit of the southern management of the Republic Iron and Steel Company:

SCREEN YOUR HOUSE.

Flies and mosquitoes are not only annoying but they are the worst germ distributors known. Cities and counties have spent large

sums of money to destroy them and thus stop their spreading typhoid fever, malaria and other diseases. We want to improve the health conditions in this camp and want you to help us. We will keep the camp as clean as possible with your co-operation. We want you to screen your houses and will sell the screens at our commissaries to you at cost. Give your family this protection and save the baby and the doctor bills.

In his talk at the operators' meeting Mr. Knowles said: "Your association is a leader in this work, but conditions as they exist today are much the same as they are in mining districts elsewhere." His paper on The Relation of the Employee to Sanitary Improvements was addressed chiefly to mine superintendents, foremen, bosses, and physicians, and through them to the great army of employees and their families, to the thousands who live and work in the mineral fields of Alabama. To quote:

The modern motive in this work is not so much to prevent the extinction of race nor to prevent death, as it is to prevent unnecessary waste. There really is a tri-partite interest in industry, whether we wish it or not. We can no longer live unto ourselves alone; what we do, may affect everyone else. People have a right to demand that industry shall not be the cause and disseminator of disease, ignorance, or immortality. Labor is interested because the conditions of industry affect the health, happiness, and efficiency of the workmen, and of the members of his family. Capital is interested because improved conditions mean better labor, greater profit, and better relations between employer and employee. We are all welded together, and no success is possible without that about which I want to speak to you next, co-operation.

Sometimes the operators desire to make improvements, but hesitate for fear of lack of appreciation and misuse. You have no idea how discouraging it is to start something which you know is good, and then to have it badly abused—to see bath tubs used as coal bins, shingles torn off and burned, and cellars used as chicken pens. Abuse, of course, does not excuse negligence, but only makes education the more necessary. Abuse is due not so much to perversion of human nature, as to habits due to long continuation of bad conditions. It may take just as long to change people to the habit of proper use of good conditions. The operator cannot accomplish much unless the people help, and so we want to appeal to every man, woman, and child to co-operate with him by showing their appreciation and trying to understand such improvements as are put into effect.

The main subjects treated in his paper



W. H. OATES, M. D.

State prison inspector who has been vigorous in cleaning up the county jails.

were the introduction of the new idea of sanitation in mining and construction camps comprehending cleanliness and prevention of disease as opposed to the old-fashioned idea of mere shelter; the necessity for sanitation as borne out by classic instances such as the failure of the French at Panama and the horror of the typhoid plague during the Spanish-American war; and the necessity for co-operation.

What can an employe accomplish for his own salvation without the authority, the money, and the encouragement of his employer? On the other hand what can an employer do or his money and his trouble avail if his men and their folks do not stand with him in the conservation of life and health?

Mr. Knowles, urging the idea of co-operation, pressed his recommendations as to water supply, prevention of malaria, fly and mosquito protection, house quarantine, personal hygiene and education. The response came from the ranks of the operators. "Ben" Roden, the young president of the Roden Coal Company, who has inaugurated a mining camp at Marvel, Ala., which does not belie its postmark, said: "If we are to find the

men for an annual output of from 25,000,000 to 30,000,000 tons, we must have good camps and make them attract the labor we desire."

Since the Roden Coal Company has within the past year shown an actual increase of 80 per cent over its coal output of the season preceding, his words caught the audience. "Sanitation in a mining camp," said he, with emphasis, "is the 'ounce of prevention that is worth a pound of cure'." Then he went on:

No one will deny that health is essential to good work. As miners work in pairs to get out coal, and in a small measure for safety, one man's illness means two men not at work. Several men's illness on the same heading, where you have a pitching seam, means a rearrangement of cars and haulage. Typhoid does not come for a day or limit itself to one person. More houses, more working places, more cars, more deadwork, are the concrete results of bad sanitation. A decrease in fixed charges, and prompt service to customers, are more certain, if men can be counted on, for work.

Among the best preventives against sickness are: sanitation; proper care of person; good food; a reasonable amount of work, and some play.

Sanitation, as applied to mining camps, does not imply expensive water, garbage and sewer systems. Wells, properly equipped and located, will do, if water from a pure source cannot be piped within a reasonable distance of the house. Garbage collections in properly constructed retainers and a quarterly cleaning of all refuse from under and around the houses should be made, not by the house holder, but by an individual employed by the company.

Chickens, hogs, all animals in fact, should be kept as far away from the house as possible. Closets of any pattern, which do not allow the ground to become saturated, and so arranged as to prevent flies, should be cleaned at short stated intervals. Most of our mining camps in Alabama have good, natural drainage and the houses are well scattered on the hill sides. A suggestion for keeping the company barn yard clean, and also an aid to lower the cost of living to the miners is—Why not furnish manure free for vegetable gardens? A charge to cover the haulage would prevent the shiftless from applying. Fumigation with formaldehyde, after contagious diseases, is so easily done that no camp doctor, surely, can neglect it. While coverings for rain barrels, not only strains the water as it comes from the roof, but also keeps mosquitoes away from the houses. Surely Alabama mining camps can be freed from mosquitoes, if Long Island, where all the mosquitoes in the country seem to summer, has been so greatly benefited by the work of

one able scientist? Just imagine how busy the whole world would be exterminating flies and mosquitoes if these homeless insects looked like snakes! Yet snakes are nice, tame animals, really quite companionable, when the death rate from snake bites is compared with that from malaria, typhoid and yellow fever, not to mention the possible transmission of pneumonia and tuberculosis. Mosquitoes and flies, unless carried by winds, stay within a few hundred feet of their breeding places. So again, one camp doctor can do much, besides filling his fever and chills patient full of calomel and quinine.

A miner's occupation necessitates and gets personal cleanliness. A bath house is most desirable and certainly would be a great aid. It seems reasonable to suppose that a house wife, plus the small boys and girls who draw and haul the water for father's bath, would welcome a place which would send him home clean and dressed, ready for his meal. These bath houses have proved successful when properly managed.

The standard, as well as the cost of living, has risen rapidly during the last ten years. Stores, which buy wholesome food of good quality, fresh produce, and meats, properly screened and iced, are a necessity. Good brands of canned goods, jellies, pickles, etc., always have a ready sale, but must not be bought in great quantities. The floors, shelving, meat blocks and counters should be cleaned often. The miner earns good wages, wants the best and will pay for it.

Any idea that the miner is an object of charity in all this talk of improved living conditions, must be removed. They are a self-respecting, independent people, perfectly willing to pay for what they get, only they want to see the worth of their money. Initial expense is always encumbered upon the company, but the men always respond liberally to any demand within reason. They want schools and have to pay for them, as the Alabama school money is so small as to pay only a fraction of the teachers' salaries. So that our schools are more the result of the choice of teachers than anything else. Frequently pupils are advanced so rapidly that they do not understand their work. That instant they lose interest; but start them on something they know, and their interest revives. Flower and vegetable plots, cookery and manual training are all desirable, but difficult to have without quite an expenditure of money; but small beginnings can be made in all. Children love pictures; so occasional illustrated lectures on their lesson subject are bound to aid discipline and keep their attendance good. A school library can be started, allowing books to be taken home. Most miners are members of lodges of good standing; so lodge rooms are greatly appreciated.

At Marvel we have found the Saturday night moving picture show a pleasing form of amusement to old and young. It has an average attendance of 300.



BENJAMIN RODEN.
President of the Roden Coal Company of Marvel,
Ala.

A man's family must be satisfied as well as the man; else he keeps moving from camp to camp, usually losing more on the wear and tear on his furniture and the cost of moving than he makes up in months; while to the operator it means from at least three days' to as many weeks' loss of that man's coal output until he is replaced.

And again he drove the point that a first rate mining camp in itself helps to project a coal mine, double the output and to control and maintain a good class of labor. "A large number of employes," he held, "who have been with you for a number of years is a decided asset. They are satisfied, and soon your camp means home." There is the whole thing in a single phrase: "Soon your camp means home."

The speakers called upon informally to take part in the general discussion during both sessions were: Dr. W. H. Oates, state inspector of jails and factories; Dr. H. G. Perry of the State Board of Health; Dr. H. N. Rosser, county health officer of Jefferson County and Dr. R. M. Cunningham, chief surgeon of the Tennessee Coal, Iron and Railroad Company; Marion Whidden; H. M. Wilson, engineer in charge United States Bureau of Mines; Erskine Ramsay, vice-president Pratt Consolidated

Coal Company; and J. B. McIntyre, chief engineer Birmingham Southern Railroad. Chief State Mine Inspector C. H. Nesbitt summarized what most of those present thought of the meeting.

I don't know how it happened, whether we were all feeling extra good or how it was, but every paper read was downright interesting, and everything said was interesting. It certainly was the largest and most successful meeting the operators ever had. In spite of the heat we listened and learned. Then the hall was so well ventilated, electric fans going, windows screened, everything ship-shape, and the band playing. And you ought to have tasted that barbecue they served, the best ever.

The mining camp Docena (Spanish for "twelfth"), where the meeting was held, was formerly Mine No. 12 of the Ten-

nessee Coal, Iron and Railroad Company, where the state convicts worked. It is pleasantly situated among pines on high rolling ground, miles away from dust and smoke. The camp is being gradually transformed into a village which when completed will be a charming place. It is the first mining camp in Alabama to sheer off from the deadly monotony of the uniform house—the stultifying row on row of cabins alike as peas in a pod, refreshing as a quarter section of the Sahara—which has ever been a part and parcel of mining camp plans in the South, even so-called “models,” until Frank Hearne Crockard swung the notion upside down with the Tennessee Company's Docena Camp.

A PRAYER FOR THE BABIES

WRITTEN FOR THE MILK AND BABY HYGIENE ASSOCIATION OF BOSTON



GOD, since Thou hast laid the little children into our arms in utter helplessness, with no protection save our love, we pray that the sweet appeal of their baby hands may not be in vain. Let no innocent life in our city be quenched again in useless pain through our ignorance and sin. May we who are mothers or fathers seek eagerly to join wisdom to our love, lest love itself be deadly when unguided

by knowledge. Bless the doctors and nurses, and all the friends of men, who are giving of their skill and devotion to the care of our children. If there are any who were kissed by love in their own infancy, but who have no child to whom they may give as they have received, grant them such largeness of sympathy that they may rejoice to pay their debt in full to all children who have need of them.

Forgive us, our Father, for the heartlessness of the past. Grant us great tenderness for all babes who suffer, and a growing sense of the divine mystery that is brooding in the soul of every child. *Amen.*

WALTER RAUSCHENBUSCH.

ATLANTIC CITY: A STUDY IN BLACK AND WHITE

MARGARET
L.
BRETT



Don't forget the sculptor,
Kind words I like to hear,
To praise I'm differential—
Criticism—I get it now and
then
But the coins are essential.

Atlantic City viewed by the charity organization worker becomes a study in black and white. On the avenues are the visitors served hand and foot by an army of blithesome Negroes. In the alleys throng Negroes who are taken care of when necessary, which is often, by the resident whites. "In season and out of season"—that is Atlantic City. "In season"—relatives and acquaintances are urged to come to this El Dorado, and come they do in battallions, happy with the vision of picking up like shells from the beach gold that the visitors waste. And then they wake up. "Out of season"—a city of 300,000 all of a sudden in the moisture of a cold wave has dissolved to 100,000, and in two weeks the recently arrived are paying room rent with promises and subsisting on the sea breezes.

We tidied over one youth and girl who came to Atlantic City for their honeymoon, evidently under the impression that the railroad ticket included indefinite shelter and sustenance, for their supplies ran dry in one gay thoughtless week. On Sunday evening they spoke to the minister, who found for them cheap lodgings and assumed the rent. Next night they decided that to return home without funds would be a disgrace. The following day they both got

work and the bride bravely wrote for her trunk. Her position held out for a week; the boy's for three days. The next Sunday night, with hearts bowed down, they humbled their pride, allowed us to telegraph their parents to prepare a welcome, and accepted the railroad fares which ended the honeymoon.

One Philadelphia youth left a good job as a stenographer which he had had for two years, confidently relying on somebody's advice that all you had to do in Atlantic City was to stroll along the boardwalk and decide in which hotel you would rather be an amanuensis. During a short sojourn he accumulated boardwalk feet, nervous prostration and a plentiful lack of clean linen, all of which he took back with him to the "City of Steady Jobs."

Irregularity of employment, the most serious problem of modern life, reaches its climax in Atlantic City. None of her occupations is of the industries. The population is continuously changing with the seasons. The resort in 1880 was a marshy island dotted with cottages. But there was an incomparable beach and a magic climate and through the efforts of railroads and natives the town thrived. Fashion came. Hotels were built and built until the streets are shaded with sign-boards. Shops sprang up along the



DRYING ROOM OF A LAUNDRY.

The summer months keep the energetic women busy over washtubs and ironing-boards.



A FRONT YARD ON THE MARSHES.

Many of these house-boats are so low that it is impossible to stand upright in them.



WHERE THE NEGROES LIVE.

With the large colored population the lack of facilities for combating tuberculosis is serious.

famous boardwalk, while amusements of all sorts were devised for the entertainment of the guests. The boundaries spread so that today the resident population is 46,150 and the average transient population 130,000. Atlantic City exists primarily for the visitor. In his wake came thousands of Negroes and others looking for work of which there seemed to be an inexhaustible supply.

That supposition only aggravates the season and the weather as a cause of irregular employment. At Easter, Christmas, and for the two midsummer months, there is no reason why an honest worker should not be earning his daily wage. In the intervals honesty avails nothing. The slack seasons mean that vast numbers are "laid off" while only the "steady" is kept on. Results—deserted families, unpaid landlords, over-taxed city funds. The Negroes dwell in a state of intermittent prosperity. Always living from hand to mouth and with rents in arrears, they take refuge in the morrow. In winter, they reason with cheerful philosophy that it is the city's duty to care for them.

To those whose occupation is out-of-doors, the weather is the actual employer. Atlantic City, because of its situation, receives the full effect of every passing phase of the elements, and chair-pusher or flower-vender, cement-worker or slate-roofer is buffeted by "nor'easters." The fishermen suffer alike from seasons and climatic conditions, although to a less degree.

Yet in ignorance of these drawbacks hundreds arrive monthly to seek employment. The few fortunate ones drift about from one lodging-house to another until some temporary work is at last found. The many unfortunate finally become stranded and appeal to charity for transportation back home.

When the city first commenced its development, no thought for the housing of the serving class was given. Huddled at the back of the luxurious hostleries, the present living quarters of the poor man are precisely the outcome of what such a planless plan would be. Two-room shacks, worn-out homesteads, ill-constructed houses, all cellarless and few sanitary, situated with no regard for



THE NEW MUNICIPAL HOSPITAL FOR CONTAGIOUS DISEASES.

established thoroughfares or other buildings, their accesses form a labyrinth of alleys, lanes and streets. Within the last few years rows of six-room brick houses are gradually taking the place of the wooden shanties. The rents for these are high and are raised in the summer. Still, the tenant with that understanding in view always, hopes to make up the deficiency by renting rooms with the "privilege of the kitchen" throughout the open seasons.

The worst living conditions are found among the families of the bay fishermen. With few exceptions they abide in house-boats hauled up on the marshy islands of the inlet. For the most part these boats are neither sanitary nor weatherproof. Many are so low that it is impossible to stand upright in them. Others are so narrow that one has to squeeze between the pieces of furniture. The parents and any number of children sleep in one bed, while during the winter ventilation is unknown. In one house-boat, sixteen feet long and four wide, lived a family of six. A bed occupied precisely half of the interior, an oil stove and wooden bench the other half. What dishes and provisions there were were thrown together in a pocket-like cupboard under the fore part of the boat. In order to wash, to cook or to comb

her hair, the woman was obliged to kneel. Should it happen that during the night the father rolled unregardedly, one or two children tumbled over the edge of the bed.

June, July, August and September keep the energetic women of every household busy over wash-tubs and ironing-boards. Their combined labor would form a huge laundry plant which might prove more effective for the clothes of the 250,000 maximum transient population. Any boys in the family from six years of age upward are put to selling papers, caring for the riding ponies on the beach, or modelling heroes in the sand along the boardwalk.

A small body of philanthropic persons maintain such institutions for relief as there are. The county almshouse is neither large enough, nor is it connected with a hospital for chronic cases, a much needed place, as the two hospitals (one supported by annual contributors, and the other municipal) treat acute illnesses only. The organized charities, founded in 1909, does the greater part of the relief work. The last two years it has handled the city appropriation fund. The Salvation Army conducts an industrial home and the Volunteers of America a transient lodging-house for men and women. One day nursery does excel-



THE ONLY DAY NURSERY.

lent work, but is far from sufficient. A branch of the Florence Crittenden Mission does commendable work, of which there is considerable need. The churches co-operate in what way they can, but

as all are supported by voluntary contributions, little material relief is given.

With the large colored population (nearly two-fifths of the whole), the lack of proper facilities for combating tuberculosis is a serious question. Absolutely no provision is made by either city or county. However, the city holds the lowest record for infant mortality in New Jersey.

A settlement house could certainly accomplish much, both in assimilation and education of the newcomer. A city which is host to more public weal conventions than any other in the United States should adopt the motto: "Charity begins at home." New Jersey's distinguished governor has recently urged Atlantic City to cultivate a moral spirit, and laid the corner stone of a Y. M. C. A. building erected for that purpose. A sanitary spirit is necessary too. Opportunity invites somebody to lay the corner stone of an institution founded to study and solve Atlantic City's unique problem of poverty.

MEXICAN IMMIGRANTS IN THE UNITED STATES

SAMUEL BRYAN
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Comparatively few people in the United States have any conception of the extent to which Mexicans are entering this country each year, of their geographical distribution, or of their relative importance in the various industries in which they are employed after their arrival. Nor are the social problems resulting from the influx of Mexicans fully appreciated by many persons who are not acquainted with the situation at first hand. This is primarily because the attention of students of the race problem has been focused upon the more important development of European and eastern Asiatic immigration to the eastern states, and upon Chinese, Japanese, and East Indian immigration to the Pacific coast. Other factors in

diverting attention from Mexican immigration have been the relatively non-competitive character of their employment in certain parts of the country, and the lack of adequate data with regard to their numbers.

Previous to 1900 the influx of Mexicans was comparatively unimportant. It was confined almost exclusively to those portions of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California which are near the boundary line between Mexico and the United States. Since these states were formerly Mexican territory and have always possessed a considerable Mexican population, a limited migration back and forth across the border was a perfectly natural result of the existing blood relationship. During the period from 1880

to 1900 the Mexican-born population of these border states increased from 66,312 to 99,969—a gain of 33,657 in twenty years. This increase was not sufficient to keep pace with the growth of the total population of the states. Since 1900, however, there has been a rapid increase in the volume of Mexican immigration, and also some change in its geographical distribution, with the result that distinct social and economic problems have arisen.

Until 1908 the officials of the Bureau of Immigration who were stationed upon the Mexican border concerned themselves chiefly with the examination of Japanese and Syrians who sought to enter this country by the way of Mexico. Since that time some effort has been made to secure data with regard to immigrants of Mexican birth, but the results obtained are so obviously incomplete as to be of little value.¹ In 1908 it was estimated that from 60,000 to 100,000 Mexicans entered the United States each year.² This estimate, however, should be modified by the well known fact that each year a considerable number of Mexicans return to Mexico. Approximately 50 per cent of those Mexicans who find employment as section hands upon the railroads claim the free transportation back to El Paso which is furnished by the railroad companies to those who have been in their employ six months or a year. Making allowance for this fact, it would be conservative to place the yearly accretion of population by Mexican immigration at from 35,000 to 70,000. It is probable, therefore, that the Mexican-born population of the United States has trebled since the census of 1900 was taken.

This rapid increase within the last decade has resulted from the expansion of industry both in Mexico and in the United States. In this country the industrial development of the Southwest has opened up wider fields of employment for unskilled laborers in transportation, agriculture, mining, and smelting. A similar expansion in northern



REPAIRING TRACKS IN LOS ANGELES.

Mexico has drawn many Mexican laborers from the farms of other sections of the country farther removed from the border, and it is an easy matter to go from the mines and section gangs of northern Mexico to the more remunerative employment to be had in similar industries of the southwestern United States. Thus the movement from the more remote districts of Mexico to the newly developed industries of the North has become largely a stage in a more general movement to the United States. Entrance into this country is not difficult, for employment agencies in normal times have stood ready to advance board, lodging, and transportation to a place where work was to be had, and the immigration officials have usually deemed no Mexican likely to become a public charge so long as this was the case. This was especially true before 1908. Thus many penniless Mexicans who would be rejected at an eastern port have been admitted without question on the Mexican border.

The employment agencies are well organized and supply a large number of immigrants to the various railroad companies operating in the Southwest, and to employers in other industries. The more important agencies are located at El Paso, Texas. One of the larger companies supplied from there no fewer

¹The reports of the commissioner-general of immigration for 1908 and 1909 report 5,682 and 15,591 Mexican immigrants, respectively.

²U. S. Bureau of Labor, Bulletin No. 78, page 466.



A SECTION GANG AT UPLAND, CAL.

than 6,474 Mexican laborers to four railroad companies during the period between January and September, 1907. During eight months falling in the latter half of 1907 and the early part of 1908, six employment agencies operating in El Paso supplied 16,479 Mexicans to the various railroad companies, or an average of 2,060 per month. These supply companies have been in existence from one to five years and report a fairly constant business during that time.

The profits in the business are derived primarily from supplying board to the laborers *en route* to their place of employment, and from the sale of food and merchandise to them while at work. Charges for such services and sales are deducted in favor of the employment agencies by the employers from the first wages earned by the men. In addition an employment fee of \$1.00 per man is ordinarily charged. In cases of desertion before enough money has been earned to offset the debts due the agencies, the loss is borne by the latter. The supply companies use such losses to justify the higher prices charged at the commissary stores, which in some instances are admittedly fixed at from 5 to 10 per cent in excess of the ordinary retail rates.

Transportation to points where laborers are needed is furnished by the railroad companies, and also, as a rule, by other industrial concerns which secure Mexicans in considerable numbers from the employment agencies. The railroad companies agree further to return the men to the Mexican border free of charge after they have worked six months (on

the Santa Fe) or a year (on the Southern Pacific). Since most of the Mexican immigrants expect to return to Mexico, and since they are too improvident to save enough from their earnings to pay for their transportation back to the border, this offer is very attractive to them, and enables the railroad companies to hold their employes of this race at lower wages than are customary in other industries of the same locality. Some Mexicans, however, do desert railroad work when especially attractive employment offers elsewhere, as for example in the harvest fields of Kansas and Oklahoma, or the sugar-beet fields of southern California.

Most of the Mexican immigrants have at one time been employed as railroad laborers. At present they are used chiefly as section hands and as members of construction gangs, but a number are also to be found working as common laborers about the shops and powerhouses. Although a considerable number are employed as helpers, few have risen above unskilled labor in any branch of the railroad service. As section hands on the two more important systems they were paid a uniform wage of \$1 per day from their first employment in 1902 until 1909, except for a period of about one year previous to the financial stringency of 1907, when they were paid \$1.25 per day. In 1909 the wages of all Mexican section hands employed upon the Santa Fe lines were again raised to \$1.25 per day. The significant feature is, however, that as a general rule they have earned less than the members of any other race similarly employed. For example, of 2,455 Mexican section hands from whom data were secured by the Immigration Commission in 1908 and 1909, 2,111, or 85.9 per cent, were earning less than \$1.25 per day, while the majority of the Greeks, Italians, and Japanese earned more than \$1.25 and a considerable number more than \$1.50 per day.

In the arid regions of the border states where they have always been employed and where the majority of them still live, the Mexicans come into little direct competition with other races, and no problems of importance result from their

presence. But within the last decade their area of employment has expanded greatly. They are now used as section hands as far east as Chicago and as far north as Wyoming. Moreover, they are now employed to a considerable extent in the coal mines of Colorado and New Mexico, in the ore mines of Colorado and Arizona, in the smelters of Arizona, in the cement factories of Colorado and California, in the beet-sugar industry of the last mentioned states, and in fruit growing and canning in California. In these localities they have at many points come into direct competition with other races, and their low standards have acted as a check upon the progress of the more assertive of these.

Where they are employed in other industries, the same wage discrimination against them as was noted in the case of railroad employes is generally apparent where the work is done on an hour basis, but no discrimination exists in the matter of rates for piece-work. As piece-workers in the fruit canneries and in the sugar-beet industry the proverbial sluggishness of the Mexicans prevents them from earning as much as the members of other races. In the citrus fruit industry their treatment varies with the locality. In some instances they are paid the same as the "whites"—in others the same as the Japanese, according to the class with which they share the field of employment. The data gathered by the Immigration Commission show that although the earnings of Mexicans employed in the other industries are somewhat higher than those of the Mexican section hands, they are with few exceptions noticeably lower than the earnings of Japanese, Italians, and members of the various Slavic races who are similarly employed. This is true in the case of smelting, ore mining, coal mining, and sugar refining. Specific instances of the use of Mexicans to curb the demands of other races are found in the sugar-beet industry of central California, where they were introduced for the purpose of showing the Japanese laborers that they were not indispensable, and in the same industry in Colorado, where they were used in a similar way against the German-Russians. More-



MEXICANS WITH AN AMERICAN FOREMAN.

over, Mexicans have been employed as strike-breakers in the coal mines of Colorado and New Mexico, and in one instance in the shops of one important railroad system.

Socially and politically the presence of large numbers of Mexicans in this country gives rise to serious problems. The reports of the Immigration Commission show that they lack ambition, are to a very large extent illiterate in their native language, are slow to learn English, and in most cases show no political interest. In some instances, however, they have been organized to serve the purposes of political bosses, as for example in Phoenix, Arizona. Although more of them are married and have their families with them than is the case among the south European immigrants, they are unsettled as a class, move readily from place to place, and do not acquire or lease land to any extent. But their most unfavorable characteristic is their inclination to form colonies and live in a clannish manner. Wherever a considerable group of Mexicans are employed, they live together, if possible, and associate very little with members of other races. In the mining towns and other small industrial communities they live ordinarily in rude adobe huts outside of the town limits. As section hands they of course live as the members of the other races have done, in freight cars fitted with windows and bunks, or in rough shacks along the line of the railroad. In the cities their colonization has become a menace. The unwholesome conditions of the Mexican quarter in El Paso, Tex., have been described with

photographic illustrations in previous articles in *THE SURVEY*.¹ In Los Angeles the housing problem centers largely in the cleaning up or demolition of the Mexican "house courts," which have become the breeding ground of disease and crime, and which have now attracted a considerable population of immigrants of other races. It is estimated that approximately 2,000 Mexicans are living in these "house courts." Some 15,000 persons of this race are residents of Los Angeles and vicinity. Conditions of life among the immigrants of the city, which are moulded to a certain extent by Mexican standards, have been materially improved by the work of the Los Angeles Housing Commission, upon which Johanna Von Wagner has served as an expert social worker. However, the Mexican quarter continues to offer a serious social problem to the community.

As is to be expected under the circumstances, the proportion of criminals and paupers among the Mexicans is noticeably greater than among the other foreign-born or among the natives. In Los Angeles county, California, the Mexicans comprised 11.4 per cent of the total number of persons bound over for felonies in 1907. In 1908 and 1909 the percentages were 12.6 and 13.4 respectively. During the year ending July 1, 1908, the chief of police of Los Angeles estimates that approximately 20,000 police cases were handled, in 2,357 or 11.8 per cent of which Mexicans were the defendants. In Arizona, where the proportion of Mexicans to the total population is greater than in Los Angeles, a correspondingly large proportion of the inmates of the various penal institutions are of this race. In 1908, 24.2 per cent of the prisoners in the jail at Tucson, Ariz., were Mexicans, while in the Pima county jail they comprised 62 per

cent of the inmates. The territorial prison reported in the same year that 61 per cent of those incarcerated were Mexicans. In both Arizona and California the offenses for which they were committed were in the large majority of cases traceable to gambling or excessive drinking. Most of the serious trouble with Mexicans, however, arises from quarrels among themselves which interfere very little with the white population.

In the matter of poor relief, Mexican families were concerned in 11.7 per cent of the cases dealt with by the Associated Charities of Los Angeles in 1908. The proportion has increased since that time, and in 1910 it was estimated that Mexicans comprised fully one-third of those given relief from this source. The county authorities had charge of approximately 3,000 individuals in 1908, of whom about one-third were Mexicans. The proportion of Mexicans among those dependent upon the County Board of Charities has continued about the same, for in the month of November, 1910, which was said to be typical of that year, 30.1 per cent of the applications for aid were made by members of that race.

In conclusion it should be recognized that although the Mexicans have proved to be efficient laborers in certain industries, and have afforded a cheap and elastic labor supply for the southwestern United States, the evils to the community at large which their presence in large numbers almost invariably brings may more than overbalance their desirable qualities. Their low standards of living and of morals, their illiteracy, their utter lack of proper political interest, the retarding effect of their employment upon the wage scale of the more progressive races, and finally their tendency to colonize in urban centers, with evil results, combine to stamp them as a rather undesirable class of residents.

¹Where Overcrowding and the Open Prairie Rub Elbows, by B. Rosling, in *THE SURVEY*, December 11, 1909; Passage to Texas, by Francis H. McLean, in *THE SURVEY*, November 19, 1910.

THE GREATEST SHOW ON EARTH

The newer park service, which aims to serve the all-round recreation needs of the community, and includes social leadership and promotion, has been nowhere more happily exemplified than in the Chicago South Park System of Recreation Centers.

To measure the advance made in a decade or two, imagine the staid and dignified officials of ten or twenty years ago announcing a "one-ring circus" with a list of attractions ranging all the way from "Monkey's Frolic—a Holiday in the Jungle, Including the Famous Simian Fire Patrol," to an "Auto-Aeroplane Contest—the Race of the Century." There were performing horses; Jobul, king of the trained elephants; a champion strong man; a minstrel troupe in latest songs; jugglers; dancers; tumblers and pyramid builders; a "tight rope trickster" alleged to "stand or fall by his claim to originality"; and a clowns' carnival, including such "side-splitting specialties" as a "hobble skirt race," "Reno Renovated," "Mutt and Jeff" (by special arrangement), and a "dance of the jesters." All the partici-

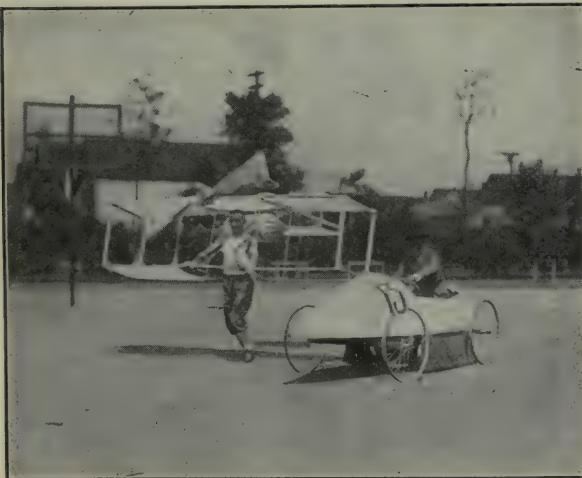


"SOME" CHICKEN.

pants came from the immediate neighborhood.

The grand climax was "the evolution of the race," which involved a primeval race—contested by camel, elephant, bear, lion, giraffe, and horse; a chariot race, a steeplechase race, a land reproduction of a Lipton cup race, and the auto-aeroplane contest.

Such a circus, admission free, was given with success by the young people of Cornell Square community and large posters describing the great occasion, under the auspices of the South Park commissioners, announced it to all the neighbors. To say that the circus was a success is putting it far too mildly. To every boy in the neighborhood of Cornell Square it was certainly "the greatest show on earth."

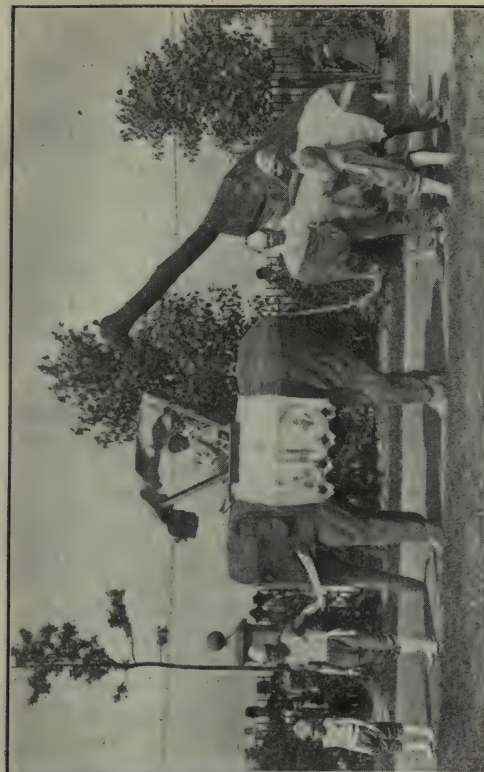


AERO-AUTO RACE.



SOME FEATURES WORTHY OF BARNUM.

A group of the dancers; the happy lion; ready for the chariot race.



THE "GREATEST SHOW ON EARTH" AT CORNELL SQUARE, CHICAGO.

The fire patrol in which a milk can played a prominent part; the "King of the Elephants," followed by the "Most Extraordinary Giraffe in Captivity"; a yacht which supplies its own wind and water; a thoroughbred, if not registered.

RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION

XII

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY—THEIR INTERRELATION AND COMMON AIM

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Common words, such as "community" and "communion," lose much of their significance in being specialized. The institutions which exclusively appropriate their special usage thereby lose the vital meaning and force which their common use carries. On the other hand, this specialized significance of common terms may give an added and higher meaning to the ordinary things of life which they usually designate.

All human interests need nothing so much as to have the ordinary things of life invested with extraordinary importance, common experiences with special interest, the natural relationships with exceptional significance, routine with zest, the most human with the divinest meaning. It is the genius of religion to do just this thing. The state also dignifies and enhances the lesser things of individual life by massing them together into great public interests and by raising them out of mere personal concern up to the plane of public policy and national significance. While both the church and the state do this thing for the common life, yet each of them needs the common life to do it for them.

For, by special and exclusive religious usage, the terms of common life do lose significance. "Righteousness" thus became an abstraction, something unreal, fictitious, apart from personal experience, when it lost the simple sense of "right" with which it is always invested in common use. Its religious value therefore can be kept vital only by keeping it in constant connection with the common use of the term which describes right relations between man and man. And yet the religious emphasis upon the necessity of right relations with God furnishes the standards and the power to realize those between man and man. So, also, the political use of common terms empties them of meaning. For instance, "the

city" in the parlance of the politician, the job-giver and seeker, and the caucus regulars, stands only for what they, one and all, can get out of the body politic for themselves, their faction or their party. It is thus emptied of all those human values, which are even ignored by multitudes of the very people who thereby permit their most personal interests to be bartered away and lost. Political usage needs to have put back into it the common human sense of the city, the town, the county, the village, as a group of human beings, as families of men, women and children, with all their experiences of loss and gain, pain and pleasure, death and life. What is this but religion's "City of God"?

From this point of view we may best approach our inquiry as to what the church and the local community have to do with and for each other. In both the ordinary and special use of these terms, "community" and "communion," there is more of spirit than of form. Each breathes the sharing spirit. Both express, within different spheres or relationships of life, the having-in-common and the sharing-in-common. This idea lies at the one tap-root, from which both of these terms derive their origin. And each of them carries the likeness of their common family lineage into the spheres of religious and political action. In the church's "communion," there was the fact and idea of fellowship long before the term was connected with a sacramental rite, or with the membership of an organization, in which senses the term is almost exclusively used within certain circles. So also in the local "community," as it is regarded by its members, there is still more of the fact and idea of a community of interests than of any organized agency of government or of party.

Back of, and above, all our modern forms and ideas of local government, especially

city government, lies the primitive conception of the "ancient city" in its original use, descriptive of the earliest experiences of the race. The "city" was not any kind of an organization, political or administrative. It was not even a locality, or a collection of streets and houses. It was a federation of tribes or families. Two of them met in the wilderness of their wanderings. Finding more to unite than to divide them, they thus entered into a pact of peace. They built an altar of stones. They dug a little trench about it. They encircled both with a light fire of brush. Then representatives of each tribe or household ran through the fire to show that everything that could divide them was consumed, and they filled the trench with handfuls of earth from native soils to show that every cleavage that could separate them was filled up. At the altar, thus doubly sanctified and safeguarded, they offered a sacrifice to the gods, who were considered members of the tribes. And thus they founded their "city" as a federation of families. Around that altar grew the citadel, about which the aged, the weak and the young with their protectors, gradually came to linger, while the many and the strong moved on to pasture their herds and flocks, but to return now and again when the moon marked the time for reunion.

Here, then, at the heart of the home, the village or city community, as well as the synagogue and the church, had their common origin. For the synagogue was more like a household than like the ancient temple, and the earliest church was the "church in the house," with households for its membership. However necessary the organization of the church and the state may have been, whatever agencies the polity of the one and the politics of the other may take on, it is still necessary to go back to the idea of a federation of families, in order to define what both church and local government are for, and how to make the organization and agencies of each fulfil their purpose. Local government is an extension of house-keeping. The local church should be the source of power, and the very breath of life, for home-building. The officials of each fulfill their highest functions in aiding and supplementing the priesthood

and kingship of the parents. The sacraments of the Passover and Holy Communion could find no symbol more sacred than the family supper, no service more holy than to pervade the household of faith with the family feeling. The city could discover no more dignified title for its governing officials than "aldermen," and the church than "elders," that is "city fathers" and "fathers of the faithful" or "elder brethren." So we may take the homelike church and the family-like community to be both the formative ideals and the constructive forces of religion and politics alike.

The function of the church in the political sphere as in that of the family, the neighborhood and industry, is threefold; to have and give a formative ideal of what the community is to be and do; to initiate, inspire and support movements and agencies for the realization of civic ideals; and to generate and apply the power of a self-sacrificing public spirit, which is the only force adequate to promote social progress.

To reveal the idealism of religion has always been the unique prerogative and distinctive service of the church in human life and society. Art and literature have shared this function, but the church has brought ideals far more directly to bear upon many more people and kinds of people. It has used art and letters more effectively to this end than they have been put to use apart from religion.

It is not true, as is so often asserted, that the church has had an ideal only for the individual, not for society. It has always had a golden age, a millennium, and beyond it a heaven, to hold up as its social ideal for the world. But it has almost always reserved these social ideals for "the last days," and taught them as a part of its "eschatology,"—its teaching about last things; as its "apocalypse,"—its vision of the end. Indeed some schools of its teachings have forbidden any hope of a social ideal, or even of human progress, by putting all hope beyond the earthly end and allowing for a progress only from worse to worse, until the final catastrophe annihilates the present order for the better one which is to take its place.

Spasmodically, now and then, here and

there, through the Christian centuries, leaders and groups, filled with the Pentecostal spirit, have attempted to realize in life or literature the ideal of a Christian community, which began to be achieved at Pentecost. St. John, as the last of the apostles, saw it from afar to be "the New Jerusalem." Augustine, greatest of the fathers, reconstructed it in his "City of God." Sir Thomas More dreamed it in his Utopia. Constantine and the imperial popes attempted it in the Holy Roman Empire. St. Francis of Assisi, child of the earth and sky, reunited nature and spirit, the human and the divine, in the one realm of his love and life. Savonarola gave his life to make over Florence after the pattern of the heavenly city. John Calvin ruled Geneva in the fear of God. Oliver Cromwell established the commonwealth of the Covenanters. John Knox struggled to make Scotland a regenerate land. Our Pilgrim Fathers established commonwealths governed by church members. Joseph Mazzini tried to make old Rome new, as the democratic center for the Association of the Peoples. Thomas Chalmers wrote of the Christian and Civic Economy of Large Towns, and applied it to Glasgow and Edinburgh. Our own Mulford held high our American ideals in his lofty thought on The Nation and The Republic of God. Some of these attempts were more theocratic and theological than civic or democratic.

But only in our own times have our religious social ideals been held close enough to earth to be applicable to the local community. Only just now are we beginning to ask, "What is a town for?" And for an answer we are putting our ideals into town planning and municipal policies. Should not the whole church of a town and city think and say something of the town and city as a whole? Should those who claim to have "the oracles of God" and to interpret the prophecies, have nothing to say or suggest as to the immediate or remoter future of their own town or city? Should they who bear "the burden of the soul" have no part in determining the conditions, and in shaping the public policies and plans which will influence the destiny of souls? If in the life to come

heaven is held up as "the mansions of our father's house," a "place prepared" for each, surely in the life that now is some care should be taken to provide some place for men, women and children, and for the kind of house a "soul" can live in.

The community cannot fail to profit by being faced with a religious ideal of what it ought to be. And a church cannot fail to gain by having and proclaiming an ideal for its community. The mere effort to form its own ideal of what its town should aim to be will enlarge the church's view of its own function and field. Its purpose and policy will be more public and practical, and no less personal. To be looked to for some contribution toward the community ideals and progress, will lead the church to look beyond itself for its *raison d'être*. To be identified with the life of the whole community will deliver it from that institutional self-consciousness which paralyzes spiritual purpose and power. For, with strange and fatal facility, men do forget the purpose of established institutions, and the reason for their existence. They thus lose the value and even the sight of the ends for which they exist in forgetting that all institutions are means.

This institutionalism which substitutes means for ends, and subverts the ends in slavishly serving the means, is the very insanity of history,—political, industrial, educational and ecclesiastical. Thus the state, the municipality and the town lose their hold on the life and the loyalty of the people by becoming partisan machines instead of public service utilities. Thus commercialism overreaches itself in sacrificing the many to the few and prevents a gainful co-operation in order to promote a destructively unrestricted competition. Thus schools and universities, by making knowledge an end instead of a means, and apotheosizing culture for culture's sake, fail in their mission, which is not only "to minister to industrial advancement, but to enable technical advancement to minister to the life of the people." Thus, too, the churches lose not only their power, but their very soul in building themselves up out of the community, instead of the community up out

of themselves. The consciousness of being identified with the greater cause of the whole community and with the Kingdom of God, of which it is a part, magnifies even the greatest institutions, gives power to every least agency, dignifies each humblest duty, and adds zest to every most routine service. Quite as much, then, for the church's own sake, as for the community's sake, should there be a religious ideal of the community life and progress. Worship—worth-ship—is the church's means of expressing and holding high overhead what is worthiest, the divine ideal of human life, individual and collective. Public worship is the flag of the Kingdom. The church which maintains it is the color guard of the community.

To initiate, inspire and support the movements and agencies for realizing these ideals practically and progressively is the second civic and social function of the church. But in and through its own organization, the church is seldom, if ever, to attempt to be the executive even of its own initiative, much less that of the community. The social ideals of the gospel have born their best fruits in society when the churches have given the initiative toward higher conceptions of civic and national life; have supplied towns, cities, state and nation with citizens inspired with these ideals of Christian social relationship and with the willingness to sacrifice to realize them; and have given no suspicion of making any attempt, either formal or virtual, to usurp the functions of government. The churches should be the last to tolerate, much less to claim or secure, special legislation for their own or others' benefit, for they stand for all if for any. Not in their corporate capacity should the churches assume the function of reformatory agencies for the enactment or enforcement of law. For, on the one hand, neither in their constituency nor in their form of organization are they adapted to or effective in such service; and on the other hand, if they were, theirs is the higher function and even the harder work of maintaining the standards and generating the sacrificial spirit that make such strife at law unnecessary, or, if necessary, triumphant.

If, therefore, the churches may not be the executive of social action, even in the effort to realize their own ideals, they may give initiative to every such effort by fulfilling their function of inspiring, educating and unifying the people. Whether other institutions of the community—the homes, the neighborhood centers for culture and social intercourse, and the municipal provisions for social needs—can be made to meet and minister to the wants of the people, the church should inspire and support them in so doing, and not supersede or duplicate them. Where they fail, it is not only justifiable but obligatory for the churches to provide substitutes for them. Thus “institutional” churches and social settlements are the ministering body of the Son of Man, incarnating the spirit of Christ in their ministry to the physical and social, educational and civic, moral and spiritual necessities of our city centers, not only saving souls out of the wreck, but also helping to save the wreck itself. But rarely, if ever, is it necessary or advisable to turn the pulpit into a lectureship on economics and politics, or the Sunday service into a free forum for the discussion of social theories. Far more effective is it for the churches to take the social point of view, and thence faithfully and fearlessly, by word and in deed to extend the application of the righteousness of the prophets, the gospel of Christ, and the ethics of the apostles, from their old work of righting the one man's relation to the one God to the new work of righting the relation of each to all and of all to each. To unify all the forces which make for righteousness and inspire them to realize the highest ideals attainable, is the formative function of the churches in a community. It will have far more of a reformatory effect than all the effort they could make to lead reforms which are always more effectively promoted by other agencies. This function of the church is more formative than reformatory. There can be no reform without the concept of the ideal form. Reformation, therefore, must ever be subsidiary to the creative function of forming the ideal. In the language of Horace Mann, “Where any-

thing is growing, one formatory is worth a thousand reformatories."

The history of the English people began when upon the tomb of a forgotten hero might have been inscribed the words which Charles Kingsley in *Hereward*, wrote over his name, "Here lies the first of the new English, who by the grace of God began to drain the fens." So it is said the imperial supremacy of the English people dates from the time the nation went home from Waterloo to attend to her own housekeeping, to work for her daily bread, to care for her women and children, to build roads, shops, and schools, to cleanse houses and streets, and care for her sick. And the church which will initiate this world-work of the kingdom will begin to write a new and glorious page in the history of the commonwealth of Israel and the covenants of promise.

The final function of the church, the fulfillment of which is most essential to all social and civic organizations, is to generate that public spirit and self-sacrifice which serve the common interests at the cost of personal ease and gain, or of class and institutional aggrandizement. Without this social self-denial no patriotic, philanthropic, or progressive organization of a community can succeed or survive. It is the very soul of the body politic, without which it is dead while it lives. It is the dynamic of progress, without which the community is powerless to make any real advancement toward higher ideals. For the generation of this social power and for putting each citizen in possession of it the community rightfully looks to the church more than to any other agency. The school should inspire the children with this spirit, but the church only can carry on and out the cultivation of self-denial among people of all ages and classes. The sign under which it claims to live and work, and by which it has ever conquered, is the cross. Only by raising up cross-bearers in social and civic self-denial will it win from the state and society its crown. Only by yielding this service as its most fundamental obligation to the community can it expect the popular recognition of its right to be and its room to work.

Imperious in the interest of both

church and community is the religious imposition of the duty and privilege of self-sacrifice in public service upon every conscience and heart. To impart this power of self-denial the church must be mastered by it herself. To give it she must not only have it, but exemplify it. Upon a much farther-sighted view of non-sectarian policy and of interdenominational comity and co-operation, will depend not only the importance of the church in the life of the community, but also the moral and financial support which the church may expect from the people. It is sure to become more of a question whether the churches can survive if they do not sacrifice self-interest in saving the life of the people, than whether the people's social life can be saved without the church. Christ's works are as true of his church as of his disciples, that the church which "will save" its life shall lose it, and the church which is willing to lose its institutional or denominational life for Christ's sake and the people's may "find it."

With the passion of love for the church, consistent with his larger loyalty to the kingdom, William R. Huntington pleaded before the convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church the demand which the organization of the world makes for the co-operative unity of the churches. He said:

Four great questions confront the American people at this solemn hour when they are passing from an old century to a new. These questions are: the sanctity of the family, the training of youth to good citizenship and good character, the purification of the municipal life of our great cities, and the relation of capital and labor. But towering above them all, as a snow mountain towers up over the more conspicuous but less important foot hills that cluster about its base, rises the question of every American citizen who is a believer in the religion of Jesus Christ: How may we correlate and unite and consolidate the religious forces of the republic? Those other questions are in a measure independent of one another, whereas the question of correlation of the religious forces of the republic touches every one of them intimately, vitally.

Our whole attitude toward the unity question depends upon our notion of what the church to which we are attached is really like. One view is that each church is a little working model of what a true church ought to be, kept under a glass case, provided with its own little boiler and its own little dynamo, the admiration of all who look at it, but by

no means and under no circumstances to be connected either by belt or cable with the throbbing, vibrant religious forces of the outer works through broad America, lest they wreck the *petite* mechanism by the violence of their thrill. We sit here debating these petty technicalities, devising the ingenious restraints, and meanwhile out-of-doors the organization of the world goes on.

Wherever the churches are endeavoring to meet the demands of the world's organization they do not find any basis for practical unity in trying to think alike, or worship alike, or be governed alike. As the bond of comity between themselves is the Christian spirit, so the basis of their common service to the community is their co-operative unity. How reasonably practical it is for the churches in any community, large or small, to co-operate for the common good, Washington Gladden long ago set forth in his story of *The Christian League of Connecticut*. The churches in the state of Maine were among the first to form an interdenominational committee to act as a final court in preserving comity and promoting co-operation. That state of rural communities is thus beginning to find relief from the ungodly sectarian rivalry which is dividing the forces of righteousness hopelessly and is overburdening every little village with a multiplicity of paralytic churches. In New York the Federation of Churches and Religious Workers has successfully set the type for the National Federation of Churches which is pressing the cause of co-operative unity. But prior to these newer movements the foreign missionaries of all our churches have found it so necessary and feasible that they should unite their forces in the overshadowing presence of the united forces of evil, that the churches of the home-land are likely to receive the boon of their own unity in return for the chivalrous service bestowed abroad.

A working example and demonstration of the advantage of combining our religious resources may be seen in many rural communities in the consolidation of school districts, which make one strong and effective educational center possible. Why may not several denominational churches, too small for any effective service, unite at least in a common effort to inspire the people of their community

with the highest ideals of social and civic relationship, to educate the citizens in organizing progressive movements and in supplying the self-sacrificing spirit which must always be necessary to realize every hope of progress?

The final test of the capacity and right of the churches to fulfil their high function in the community is not the attitude of the people toward the church, but the willingness and capacity of the church to serve the real interest of all the people. The country, town, or city church which thus serves its community the most will serve itself the best, and, within the bounds of its legitimate function, will be a source and center from which will proceed ideal, initiative, and power to the people.

Democracy, coming to its own in local self-government, especially in cities, challenges our times with no more categorical imperative than the question, "Will the church become the democracy?" It is conceded that, as another has said, "The reformer's conscience earns the right to audit the books of society, must enter politics and conquer the earth. The Holy Land to be redeemed is under the feet of the peasant and the laborer." But speaking as a churchman the writer who makes this concession also admits that democracy

lays on the will the heaviest tax of all. The sincere believer in democracy must have a dogmatic conviction that the principle of individuality shall some time have the widest possible spread. His right to be an individual himself puts him under the highest conceivable obligation to create individuality in others. He is a gentleman in a true democratic sense just in the measure that he has the art of finding himself in an ever-growing number of persons of all sorts and conditions. He must carry the campaign against caste into larger issues. He must face all that is disagreeable and problematic in democracy, concealing nothing, blinking nothing away, and at the same time he must keep his will strong and temperate, so that its edge will never turn. To meet all his social obligations properly, to pay all his political debts joyously, never to throw a glance over his shoulder to the monastery—this is a mighty day's work.

The question whether the church will be the democracy is raising the question whether the democracy will be the church. One of the keenest, satirical critics of conventional ecclesiasticism which current

fiction has produced, makes this startlingly frank and final answer:

Nothing but a church will do. All the other schemes of democracy come to naught for want of that. The lecture platform is no substitute for Sinai. Democracy is a religion or nothing, with its doctrine, its forms, its ritual, its ceremonies, its government as a church—above all, its organized sacrifice of the altar, the sacrifice of self. Democracy must get rid of the natural man, of each for himself, and have a new birth into the spiritual man, the ideal self of each for all. Without religion, how is man, the essentially religious animal, to face the most tremendous of all problems,—social justice?

The social ideals of Christianity have all along the history of their revelation inspired the initiative of many others than men of the spirit. Over the men of 1798 there hung like a mirage in the desolation of their desert, the dimly seen ideals of that kingdom which is "righteousness, peace and joy." Had their initiative been "in the spirit," then "liberty, equality and fraternity" might have been the translation of those ancient terms in Pentecostal tongues to the modern world. Then the revolution might have been the world's second Pentecost, the spirit's social regeneration, the birth of the coming nation in a day. For the social regeneration is the function of the Messianic spirit. But that spirit has never wrought the social

regeneration without having the cross of self-sacrifice to work through, without having as at Pentecost, and at every social revival since, Messianic people to sacrifice themselves to bear away the sin of society and to bring in the "Kingdom of the Father." The cross of social self denial is the Christ-man's burden now as ever—now, in some respects, as never before. For there is an ethical tragedy at hand, such as has not tested Christendom since the Reformation, such as did not test it then at a point of such close contact with the people of the whole world. It remains to be seen where the cross-bearing spirit will find the Messianic people—"the servant of Jehovah" to serve the peoples, the community-serving church, and therefore the church of the community.

[THIS IS THE CONCLUDING ARTICLE IN PROFESSOR TAYLOR'S SERIES ON RELIGION IN SOCIAL ACTION, WHICH HAS BEEN RUNNING PERIODICALLY IN THE SURVEY. PREVIOUS ARTICLES WERE: I. LIFE AND RELIGION, DECEMBER 2; II. THE HUMAN POINT OF VIEW, DECEMBER 16; III. PERSONALITY, A SOCIAL PRODUCT AND FORCE, JANUARY 6; IV. THE CALL AND EQUIPMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE, JANUARY 20; V. CHANGING CONDITIONS OF A WORKING FAITH, FEBRUARY 3; VI. THE RELIGION OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS, MARCH 2; VII. THE FAMILY: FIELD, FUNCTION AND TRIBUTARY AGENCIES, APRIL 6; VIII. SURVIVAL AND REVIVAL OF NEIGHBORSHIP, MAY 4; IX. INDUSTRY AND RELIGION: THEIR COMMON GROUND AND INTERDEPENDENCE, JUNE 1; X. ORGANIZED RELIGION, JULY 6; XI. CITY AND CHURCH REAPPROACHING EACH OTHER, AUGUST 3.]

WILL THERE BE TIME?

BELLE FLIGELMAN

*When man has harnessed lightning to his will,
And spanned the ocean's breadth with bows of steel;
When he has made the universe his mill,
And set the winds to work to drive his wheel;
When he has scaled the skies with ghastly mirth
To rob the stars of their stupendous powers;
When he has probed the bowels of the earth,
And gathered up the breath of all the flowers;
Will he then pause awhile to count the dead
Whom poverty and steel have ground to dust?
Will he then heed the children's cry for bread?
Or hear the mother's wail for what is just?
Will he then square himself with God and man?
Will he repudiate the vice and crime
That have endured since being first began?
God! can he do all this? Will there be time?*

Volume XXVIII, No. 24

Week of Sept. 14, 1912

THE SURVEY

SOCIAL CHARITABLE CIVIC



Photo by Hine.

FATHER NEPTUNE, A TENEMENT HOUSE DEITY, WITH HIS WHITE-WASH TRIDENT.

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105 EAST 22D ST., NEW YORK

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THE PITH OF IT

VOTING more lightly than expected the citizens of Ohio last week expressed their opinions on forty-two proposed amendments to the state constitution. Among the major proposals which were approved were the minimum wage, initiative and referendum, municipal home rule and licenses for traffic in liquor. The woman suffrage amendment was defeated. A fuller review of the vote will appear in a later issue.

ANNOUNCEMENT was made last week that William R. George, founder and for years head of the George Junior Republic at Freeville, N. Y., and lately identified with the work of establishing such institutions elsewhere, will sever his connection with the Freeville Republic.

CHAIRS of eugenics in universities, safeguarded sterilization, compensation to the dependents of convicts and laboratories for mental diseases in the various states were some of the things approved by the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. P. 741.

FAST on the heels of the Southern Sociological Congress, which has been put on a permanent basis by the gift of a Nashville resident, came other conferences and meetings which struck the alarm-bell of southern social awakening. P. 744.

THE constitutionality of the law providing for the sterilization of habitual criminals and tho : convicted of unnatural crimes was upheld by the supreme court of Washington. The court in passing upon the case of Peter Fielen of Seattle, a life prisoner who appealed from a sentence of sterilization, held that since medical authorities agree that the operation is neither dangerous or painful the punishment cannot be deemed cruel or inhuman. This is the first case of its kind to come before the supreme court of the state.

EMILY RAY GREGORY in Social Work in Backward Countries, as the result of personal experience in Constantinople, makes a plea for non-sectarian social service work as distinct from missionary labor in foreign countries. This field she urges offers unusual opportunities for true helpfulness. P. 745.

ERNST J. LEDERLE, commissioner of health, in reply to charges of the New York Milk Committee concerning the quality of milk sold in restaurants, hotels and lunch rooms, has announced that it is his intention to require all hotels and restaurants to have permits by which they will be authorized to sell only milk of grade A or B. In a letter addressed to Stephen G. Williams of the milk committee he says that on account of possible detriment to the consuming public the Health Department could not immediately bar all sales of Grade C milk, the kind of

THE SURVEY

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EDITOR

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A JOURNAL OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILANTHROPY PUBLISHED BY THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

ROBERT W. DEFOREST, PRESIDENT

J. P. MORGAN, TREASURER

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which especial complaint was made. Dr. Joseph J. O'Connell, health officer of the port of New York and a member of the Board of Health which is distinct from the Department of Health, has promised to take up with the other members of the board the reports of the milk committee regarding the quality of milk sold in restaurants and hotels. P. 743.

GIVING children who live in a tropical climate minute lessons about snow and snowballs, while neglecting practical instruction calculated to help them earn a livelihood in a country mainly devoted to agriculture is the gravamen of criticisms of the public schools of Porto Rico made by Meyer Bloomfield of the Boston Vocation Bureau in a special report recently submitted by request to the United States War Department. P. 741.

CHILDREN in the "Buckeye State" owe big debt to the memory of an unlettered German teamster in Cincinnati, Joseph Heberle. Heberle whose first successful public service was to stir up an avalanche of letters demanding a city appropriation for drinking fountains became the editor of the *Child Labor Record* and was largely responsible for the passage of the Ohio Child Labor Law. P. 745.

THE COMMON WELFARE

PROBLEMS OF CRIMINOLOGY

Among the reports submitted at their recent meeting by the various committees of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology those of general interest were on prison labor, the sterilization of certain classes of criminals and compensation to the dependents of convicts. The report on the latter subject advocates such compensation and deplores the fact that in the various states it has been merged with the problems of family desertion, prison labor and prison discipline.

The primary motive of the committee on compensation to the dependents of convicts, says the report,

centers in the condition and want of the *families* of convicts because the state, in the administration of its criminal laws, has deprived them of their means of support, regardless of whether the imprisonment be for desertion and non-support, or for any other crime. And the committee believes that on that primary consideration the fact that the convict behaves himself or not, or the fact that the prison management produces profits or not, has but little bearing. The question involves, directly, general considerations of economy in preventive criminal administration. An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. The convict's wife is a better citizen if the community establishes a substantial bond of sympathy and helpfulness, rather than leaving her dependent upon and subject to a criminal husband. The convict's child must be educated against inherited criminal tendencies, and against the influence of criminal environments. On a broad estimate, it will cost less to support all the needy families of convicts in the state than it does to send a single murderer to the penitentiary.

The subcommittee on prison labor, whose report was written by E. Stagg Whitin, has this to say on the general subject:

The economic progress in prison labor shown in recent legislation is toward more efficient production by the elimination of the profits of the lessee; more economical distribution of the products by the substitution of a preferred market, where the profits of the middleman are eliminated, in place of the unfair competition with the products of free labor in the open market; and finally the cur-

tailment of the slave system by the provision for wages and choice of occupation for the man in penal servitude.

The report of the committee on sterilization brings together an array of cases gathered from various sources, which tend to show the effect of heredity on criminality, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, alcoholism and other forms of unfitness. The report notes unexpected idiosyncracies in some of the cases, and deplores our ignorance of the laws of heredity. On the whole the committee favors sterilization practised with the safeguards provided by laws of the type which failed to pass the Wisconsin legislature last year. It gives a summary of laws now existing in eight states, and recommends the compiling of genealogies of our institutional charges, the establishing of chairs of eugenics in the various universities and the establishing of at least one laboratory for mental diseases in each state.

SCHOOLS, LABOR AND LIFE IN PORTO RICO

The patent fact in Porto Rico is the rapid and enormous wealth of a few, the wretched poverty of the many, and the relatively insignificant return made by large capital to the public welfare.

—Thus writes Meyer Bloomfield of Boston to Secretary of War Stimson in a report just made public on his recent Porto Rican surveys. R. Colton, governor of the island, joined with the present administration in the United States in asking Mr. Bloomfield to study the educational, social and economic problems of Porto Rico. The reason for the study is said to lie in the fact that the administration "is not satisfied with merely doing good work but wants to do its very best for the island people just as soon as possible."

In amplification of the statement quoted at the outset Mr. Bloomfield continues:

Outside of the anti-tuberculosis society, the projected Y. M. C. A. in San Juan, and one or two small industrial training projects, the

rich men of the island show little appreciation of what they owe the island for their prosperity. There is a lamentable absenteeism both in spirit and in body on the part of the highly fortunate. Without any stretch of the imagination, one can see developing class hatred and a menacing unrest, somewhat concealed for the time being by an unparalleled prosperity devoid of unemployment problems, yet on the increase. Two or three of the big employers I talked with sense the state of things I am describing. But nobody I talked with seemed disposed to take preventive measures in an organized way. A few employers have built workmen's homes, donated school sites, and initiated some minute welfare work. They are candid enough to own that these things were done to keep their help, because labor has been for a while a very scarce commodity.

One of the things needed to remedy the situation, thinks Mr. Bloomfield, is good officials. He says:

Until American officials are sent into Porto Rican service as to their life-work, paid better salaries than now obtain, and on secure tenure based on good behavior and efficiency, we shall not get the kind of service the island needs and knows that it is not getting.

Scarcely more than a beginning has been made in the island, says the report, in safeguarding the economic welfare of the children by fitting them to cope with their environment. So far as needed vocational training is concerned, the day and night schools, excellent though the report admits them to be from the academic standpoint, "might as well be in Massachusetts or New York." To quote:

The island schools are helping to make good citizens. It is a grave question whether the present arrangements contribute materially to the making of home-makers, producers, skilled workers, self-reliant, and efficient bread-winners.

And this situation is declared to exist in spite of the apparently unanimous desire for trade and agricultural instruction in both day and night schools. Mr. Bloomfield cites one school in which he heard minute instruction about snow and snowballs—things never seen on the island—and yet nowhere could he find the schools preparing the children to take part in the actual industrial development going on around them. Domestic science in the island is declared "to represent a pious wish rather than an accomplishment."

Believing that agriculture will for a long time be the predominant pursuit of the Porto Ricans, Mr. Bloomfield thinks there is a social as well as an educational demand for this change of emphasis in the school curriculum. Unless capable young Porto Ricans, it is declared, find it not only worth while but intellectually stimulating to stay in a rural environment, the cities will soon find themselves faced with the same problems now afflicting our own northern cities.

The country districts will be left to an unambitious sediment of population, while the city streets teem with parasitic youth unwilling to do honest labor, the island meanwhile importing the food which if it raised would help keep down the cost of living.

In Mr. Bloomfield's opinion "labor troubles are sure to break out before long among the tobacco workers particularly, unless prevented by tactful work of a labor department which has the confidence of both labor and capital." That there is also in his opinion a social gulf is evident from this passage:

A comparatively small number of sugar planters and other very rich men, and a slightly larger number of dependents, retainers, professional advisers and shop-keepers are to be found on the one hand, and a vast number of poor laborers living from hand to mouth on the other hand. An abyss yawns between them. There is no gradation or intermediate group of interests and of people—that is, no middle class, and the fundamental social problem of the island and the fundamental aim of the education there must be to develop that backbone of any population—an elevated and progressive working class, self-supporting, independent, adventurous, and ambitious.

BETTER CONDITIONS FOR POSTAL CLERKS

As finally passed by the Senate and signed by the President, the Post Office Appropriation Bill contained substantially all the amendments passed by the House. The percentage of promotions to the highest grade of clerks and carriers was increased from fifty to seventy-five, and the minimum wage of railway mail clerks and certain groups of laborers was raised. Provisions slightly better than last year's were made for sanitary and safe mail cars.

An amendment which will go into effect in March, 1913, provides for clerks

an eight-hour day worked within ten, with pay for overtime in emergencies. The "anti-gag" clause makes removal without cause or removal for membership in a labor organization impossible. A proviso added to this clause denies postal employes the right to strike and may result in their exclusion from the American Federation of Labor.

The Sunday closing clause has aroused strong opposition. It is largely owing to the influence of religious bodies that the demand which led to its enactment did not take the form of one day off in seven. Some of the opposition comes from church-going farming districts where the people depend on Sunday trips to town for collecting mail after church is finished. The eight-hour day clause contains a six-day provision applicable to special letter deliverers and other clerks still forced to work on Sunday, which many urge could have been made to cover the whole situation.

The changes incorporated in this year's bill for improving the postal workers' condition are due mainly to the agitation of the "insurgent" element among them. *The Harpoon* and the National Federation of Post Office Clerks made labor conditions in the post office an issue before Congress. The organizations more in sympathy with the department took little part in the agitation.

PURE MILK DEMANDED FOR N. Y. RESTAURANTS

Following shortly after the enforcement by the Department of Health of the new system for grading milk for drinking and manufacturing purposes, the New York Milk Committee presented discomfiting statements concerning the milk offered for sale at many hotels, restaurants, lunch rooms and soda water fountains. A great number of these serve daily to thousands of patrons Grade C milk which is intended for cooking and manufacturing purposes only.

The statements of the milk committee, which have been presented in report form to the health department, are based upon laboratory tests of 905 samples of milk taken on consecutive days from 230 different places. From two to four tests

were made of the milk served at each of the hotels, restaurants and soda counters visited. The estimated daily patronage of these places is 230,000. The results of the examinations conducted show that if the supply of milk sold at the places investigated is figured on a percentage rating, according to the recommendations of the National Commission on Milk Standards, thirty-seven of the samples would score 100 per cent, 108 would make 90 per cent, 132 75 per cent and 628 would have a rating of 50 per cent or less. The average rating on the basis of the bacteria for 905 samples taken was found to be 35.2 per cent. The National Commission recommends that no milk be sold for drinking purposes that is below 75 per cent rating, or, in other words, that contains more than 100,000 bacteria to the cubic centimetre when served to the customer.

As the result of its investigation the committee will urge the adoption of more adequate and effective methods of exerting official control over milk served in hotels, restaurants and lunchrooms. The committee is preparing recommendations to be presented to the Department of Health and to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment which, if adopted, will change materially the system now employed in supervising the milk supply.

Dr. Walter Bense, sanitary superintendent of the Department of Health, in interviews declared that the report of the committee is unfair on the ground that its experts analyzed milk poured into ordinary glasses which, because they were not scalded, were responsible for the high bacteria count discovered. He intimated that the milk served on the breakfast table at home would prove to be as impure, if tested, for the same reason. "As a matter of fact," he said, "the report of the milk committee showed a very fair condition. It will take time to bring Grade C milk up in standard for drinking purposes."

Dr. Charles E. North, a bacteriologist and a member of the milk committee, countered by declaring that the samples were taken from the glasses in which they were served because the committee wished to ascertain the number of bacteria the patrons of restaurants were

obliged to take when ordering milk. Dr. Ira S. Wile, editor of the *Medical Review of Reviews*, stated that the samples were taken immediately after the milk was served so that the bacteria on the glasses did not have time to propagate enough to materially raise the count. He further said: "If the glasses were so dirty that they contaminated the milk in a momentary contact with it, we regret to call the attention of the sanitary superintendent of this city to his utter neglect of such unsanitary conditions."

One fault with the present conditions, according to the milk committee, and a defect which made possible the controversy, is the fact that the health department in fixing the qualifications for Grade B and Grade C milk which are for adults to drink and for cooking and manufacturing purposes did not specify clearly the maximum bacteria count.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE SOUTHERN SOCIAL AWAKENING

GRAHAM TAYLOR

The awakening of southern people to their social obligations and opportunities grows apace. Since the adjournment of the Southern Sociological Congress called by Governor Hooper of Tennessee, a resident of Nashville offered \$7,500 a year to meet the administrative expenses of the permanent organization of the congress. A full report of the addresses and discussions which it elicited has been published.¹

The conference of the Education Board also gave unusual emphasis to industrial conditions, agricultural interests, and the problem of child labor. The next in the series of southern public gatherings was the Commercial Congress which dealt directly with factory conditions, wages and hours of labor, working children, and housing. None of these subjects can be discussed in the South without raising the ever overshadowing race problem, which was

frankly and freely thrashed out at every point of contact by southern men. The rural schoolhouse and the country church received their share of attention with other religious issues. A speaker from the North expressed his surprise at the way in which the religious aspects of these commercial, educational, and social interests were continually emphasized. A friend replied, "We who have been south before have grown used to this religious jostling."

It was not surprising, therefore, to have the biblical institute, at which hundreds of ministers from twelve or more southern states convened at the call of the Divinity School of Vanderbilt University, devote a large part of its program, for the first time, to the direct discussion of the social, civic and industrial applications of religion. The women of the churches, notably those of the missionary society of the Methodist church south, have led the men far and away in this direction. Their social settlements, bureaus for receiving and guiding immigrants, agencies for the prevention of vice and the rescue of its victims, protest and propaganda against child labor, give their work the credit of being among the most advanced efforts put forth by the churches in any part of the country to lead or support movements for social progress.

The consistent note of social obligation which ran through all these meetings was not less striking than the absolute honesty with which speakers from the South faced the critical questions relating to the Negro, to ecclesiastical sectarianism, and to the need and opportunity for the united work of the churches for their respective communities. These great assemblies of widely representative people, held in such rapid succession, struck the keynote of a new era of frank dealing, of self-criticism, of genuine, practical, social service.

In Nashville where all these gatherings were held, many of the ideals thus expressed are in process of realization. A center of Negro educational, commercial, and social agencies is being created in a territory lying between the center of the city and Fisk University. A Negro high

¹The Call of the New South. Edited by James E. McCulloch. Nashville Southern Sociological Congress. 1912.

school building is being erected, and the land opposite has been purchased for a Negro park to cover several acres. A Negro Board of Trade building and a library for Negroes are contemplated. Around these institutions it is hoped to attract the growth of the Negro populations now centered at several adjoining localities.

SOCIAL WORK IN BACKWARD COUNTRIES

EMILY RAY GREGORY

Formerly Professor of Biology, American College for Girls, Constantinople

We have had social settlements of various kinds in this country for more than twenty years and have found them of the greatest value in promoting a good understanding between the different elements of the community. No one comes to give alone, no one comes to receive only. The friendly atmosphere leads to an exchange of ideas that is helpful to all who share it; the spirit of brotherly love and a broad human sympathy are roused and developed.

These things are needed in less favored countries as much or even more than here. Then why not start this work in those lands? We send hundreds of missionaries to teach our religion to those of other faiths, and we do many good things in the way of establishing schools and hospitals in connection with the missions, but if there is need of settlements as well as churches here, there is an even greater need of both in other lands. In fact a social settlement where people simply lived their religion and proved their faith by their works would be an excellent form of mission. This would prove to be especially true in Moslem countries, such as Turkey. The success of the hygiene lectures for Turkish women, held in 1909-10 and 1910-11, under the auspices of the American College for Girls, is certainly a proof that social work would be welcomed by hundreds of Turkish women who would not think of attending Christian services or probably even of sending their daughters to Christian schools.

We cannot expect to see the standard of family life raised very much among

the Moslems until we reach the women, and the women are crying for this help. Let me quote a few lines from an article written by Halideh Hanum for *The Nation* soon after the promulgation of the constitution. "The actual cry of the Turkish women to more civilized womanhood, especially to England and America, is this: 'You go and teach the savage, you descend into the slums. Come to this land, where the most terrible want, the want of knowledge, exists. Come and help to disperse the dark clouds of ignorance. . . . Simple, healthy, human teaching, such as Anglo-Saxons are able to give, is what we want. Give us living examples of your great serious women. More than for bread and water, more than any other want, we cry for knowledge and healthy Anglo-Saxon influence.'"

Can we refuse this summons? Surely if we do, we condemn our humanity as narrow and of limited range. Let us go and give of ourselves, freely and fully, and let our deeds rather than words prove that we, too, love the one God and "our neighbor as ourselves."

OHIO'S DEBT TO A "COMMON DUTCHMAN"

J. W. MAGRUDER

General Secretary Federated Charities of Baltimore

The discussion of the minimum wage at the National Conference of Charities and Correction brought to mind an experience the writer had back in the 90's with a lately deceased president of the teamsters' union of Cincinnati, Joseph Heberle. I was then a resident of that city.

Heberle was a German, born in the old country, and accustomed to his beer. He had become aroused, however, against the crookedness and oppression involved in the exactions of saloon-keepers throughout the town, who had installed watering-troughs in front of their saloons and got city water free of charge, but who made it uncomfortable, not to say intolerable, for teamsters to water their horses at these troughs without patronizing the bar.

He registered his protest in no uncertain words and began to agitate for "free public drinking fountains for man and beast," to be erected at convenient points throughout the congested business districts. But, to use his own expression, he was "nothing but a common Dutchman," and nobody paid much, if any, attention to what he said. The indifference only inflamed him the more, and he started out on a personal canvass among clergymen, labor leaders, social workers, and influential men and women, urging them to see in person or write letters to the Board of Public Affairs, and to get their friends to do likewise, demanding a city appropriation for free public drinking fountains.

It was not long before the Board of Public Affairs was flooded with letters and petitions, and it seemed as if suddenly and for some inexplicable reason the entire city of Cincinnati had gone mad on the subject of drinking fountains and would hear to nothing else. I have often wondered whether the board ever found out that only one man was back of all the hubbub, and he "only a common Dutchman."

Heberle had come to my home to enlist me in this fight. We were in the midst of an earnest discussion of the plan of campaign, the persons to be seen, the points to be argued, and all the rest, when into the room there toddled a baby girl. Instantly the man of one idea forgot me, forgot drinking fountains, forgot everything except the child. He crooned over her, fondled her, talked baby talk to her.

"Heberle," I finally interrupted, "why don't you get married?"

I ought to have known better. The man's face fell; he turned upon me almost fiercely, and, with eyes flashing, fairly hissed at me: "I'm nothing but a teamster. I earn only ten dollars a week. The most I can ever hope to earn is eleven dollars. And I'll never ask any woman to share that income with me and undertake the responsibilities of a family."

I awoke to the fact that I was looking into the face of a middle-aged man of

warm domestic nature, who, rather than subject a wife and children to the privation and slow torture of less than a living wage, was subjecting himself to involuntary bachelordom and suffering in his own domestic soul a daily martyrdom.

This explains what was in later years puzzling to some Cincinnatians, to whom Heberle was a fanatic and more or less of a nuisance—his consuming zeal in the child labor movement. Himself unlettered, if not illiterate—I have letters from him, the deciphering of which would do credit to a postoffice expert—almost uncouth, and in every way handicapped; nevertheless he founded, financed, managed and edited the *Child Labor Record*, the first publication of the kind in Cincinnati and Ohio, and one of the first in America. He was at it early and late, weekdays and Sundays, year in and year out, with never a vacation. He literally wore himself out and went down into a premature grave. The tactics which he had successfully followed in the campaign for free public drinking fountains (I forgot to say that the Board of Public Affairs actually appropriated \$2,500 or thereabouts for this purpose, thereby making a beginning at placing the city, so to speak, "on the water wagon"), he pursued with equal success for a Child Labor Law. I believe that the National Child Labor Committee will not accuse me of exaggeration if I say that to this unlettered Dutchman, the driver of an express-wagon and president of the teamsters' union, more than to any or all other persons, is due the credit for having placed the first Child Labor Law on the statute books of Ohio.

When I told a part of this story at the section meeting of the Committee on Standards of Living and Labor at the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and closed by saying that if ever there was a man who deserved a monument to his memory, it was Joseph Heberle, the chairman of the meeting, Owen R. Lovejoy, greatly to my surprise and gratification, announced: "A monument is being erected to his memory. It is a free public drinking fountain."

THE TREND OF THINGS

THE SLAUGHTER OF THE INNOCENTS

ROSE TRUMBULL IN THE INDEPENDENT

"O MOTHER, see the mill lights in the darkness glow!"

"I see but candles for my dead
At foot and head."

"Nay, see how wrought by childish hands, world-fabrics grow!"

"I see my babes, decrepit, bowed—
They weave a shroud."

"Yet see their golden wage: the purse of wealth is deep."

"The tide of barter at its flood
Gives bread for blood!"

"O mother, with thy visions dark, 'dost thou not weep?"

"For slaughtered babes upon such biers
There are no tears."

* * *

Among its August contributors, just at this time when the alliance between crime and the guardians of the peace dominates the news columns of the papers, the *Review*, organ of the National Prisoners' Aid Association, numbers a gunfighter, whose account of the race gangs and the gang activities brings in names with which we have grown familiar. Here is his account of a "side-line" and the regular activities of the "Jack Zelig bunch." "They're the babies what rakes in the coin," says he. "They're on velvet all the time. Take 14th street an' a lot of other streets what's good for Johns, it's only the Zelig gang's girls what can walk them. Their women is only a side-line; nothin' much in that compared wid what they get out of the stuss games. Every once in a while they pay a sort of friendly visit to the backrooms of the Second avenue, 14th street and Lenox avenue cigar stores, interrupt the stuss games long enough to collect all the silver dollars in sight. Besides dat the 'prop' what runs the game is got to hand them a big piece of change to keep off the guerillas. They get theirs comin' both ways."

This gunman's analysis of his relation to the law-making part of the community is "class-conscious" in the extreme.

"What are you trying to hand me?" he asks. "The laws was made for my protection 's well as for other peoples. I don't know about dat. Who made the law? The people in good. For who did dey make dem laws if not for demselves? Huh! Dem laws was never made for the benefit of the likes o' me an' mine. Dat's why, Mr. Man, we got our own laws—see?"

* * *

One of the most significant trends noticeable at the recent Pittsburgh Conference of the American Association of Instructors of the Blind, was the changed ideal manifest among those who are training the country's sightless youths. A decade ago superintendents thought the mission of their schools had been fulfilled if graduates could pass examinations

equally difficult with those passed by seeing students of the same age. Today, the test of economic independence is applied, and unless graduates are able to go out into the world and earn their own livings, it is thought that the schools have not accomplished all that they should.

"There were still echoes," says an editorial in the *Outlook for the Blind* dealing with this Pittsburgh meeting, "from those who (theoretically) believe that a moral and scholastic training is all that is necessary, but even those with the strictly academic point of view agreed that the supreme test of our schools is that we shall fit our pupils to take an honorable position in the world. The only question, after clearing the air of a difference of opinion as to terms, seemed to be how to accomplish the much desired end."

* * *

The *Medical Review of Reviews* believes that no more fitting and practical Titanic memorial could be set up than a hospital ship for deep-sea fishermen, along the lines of the resolution recently introduced into the House by Congressman Gardner.¹ The memorial for the dead at sea, should in the opinion of the editorial writer in the *Review*, also be a monument to an interest in those living on the sea. At the present time, it is a "sad commentary on the interest of our government in the American seamen . . . that our fishermen on the Great Banks receive their medical aid from a French hospital ship supported in part by charity and by a small grant from the French government. If the funds now being collected could be united for the purchase of a hospital ship possibly a presentation to the nation might secure an appropriation from Congress sufficient to maintain it."

* * *

A straight from the shoulder argument for workmen's compensation legislation from the standpoint of the manufacturer, was that of the German-American Button Company of Rochester during the last legislative session. This company telegraphed the leader of the New York senate majority as follows:

"Manufacturers are absolutely dependent on good relationship with their employees. Our employees are in justice entitled to compensation in all accidents. They know this and the people of the state recognize the justice. On behalf of manufacturers and their employees we demand proper constitution amendment permitting accident compensation legislation. We ask for your action in this matter, especially on behalf of manufacturers. Established concerns are quite as solicitous for the future as they are for the immediate present. There is no question about the justice involved in accident compensation. If you people at Albany fail to provide for such legislation you are doing the manufacturers above all others a great injustice. The people are going to get such legislation in time, but if you put it off until

¹See THE SURVEY of June 15, 1912.

hatred and bitterness have developed we manufacturers will suffer in the end."

* * *

Within the last four months the National Association Opposed to Woman's Suffrage, 29 W. 39th St., New York city, has established a national organ, the *Woman's Protest*, which expresses the views and comments on the suffrage movement of those who believe that "women do not yet realize the enormous opportunities that have been given to them in the past forty years, and that they have not yet been able to adapt themselves to new conditions and do all the work which is now within their power. By throwing women into the arena of active politics and the holding of elective offices, with all that it implies, we are confident that neither women themselves nor the state will be benefited, but we earnestly believe that the serious purpose, ability and experience to be found among women in many walks of life should be used for the benefit of the community and that women of judgment and energy should be appointed on such educational, charitable, sanitary and reformatory boards, commissions and committees as the safest methods of utilizing their capacities and interest in the public welfare."

The *Woman's Bulletin* of Los Angeles, published by women who not only believe in the suffrage, but have it, has a different plan of constructive work among women, or one phase of constructive work, from the *Protest*:

"The *Woman's Bulletin*," says the editorial announcement, "is a magazine for the woman citizen. It enters the field in response to a demand. This demand comes directly from the women of California themselves. As voters, sharing now the civic responsibility of choosing their public servants and passing judgment upon measures of government, they realize the necessity not only for some means by which they may be kept impartially informed upon political issues, but, more particularly, the necessity for some medium through which their special needs, problems and interests shall find expression and answer."

* * *

One method of meeting the immigrant problem was presented last winter by Bertha Hirsch Baruch before a club of settlement workers in Los Angeles, and later got wider publicity through an article by Mrs. Baruch in the *West Coast Magazine*.

Mrs. Baruch suggested the forming of a Patriots' League whose objects shall be:

"The education and conservation of all Americans, native or naturalized; and of all prospective Americans who come as immigrants or foreign aliens, to our city of Los Angeles.

"The unification of all educational and social forces by means of co-ordinated and concentrated effort to produce the most valuable product in a democracy—capable, conscientious citizens, and the highest possible order of American patriots."

A "patriot," in contradistinction to the passive aspect of man as a citizen should in Mrs. Baruch's view, be an active propagator of the ideals of American independence (in the relation of the United States to other countries), and liberty and equality of the citizen. By a proper application of its two general principles Mrs. Baruch believes that the league could make "patriots" out of the immigrants who are now "problems."

* * *

THE IRISH OLD-AGE PENSIONER

SEOSAMH MACCATHMHAOIL IN THE IRISH REVIEW

He sits over the glimmering coal
With his ancient face and folded hands:
His eye glasses his quiet soul,
He blinks and nods and understands.
In dew wetted, in tempest blown,
A Lear at last comes to his own.

For fifty years he trenched his field
That he might eat a pauper's bread:
The seasons balked him of their yield,
His children's children wished him dead.
But ransom came to him at length
At the ebb-tide of life and strength.

And so he sits with folded hands
Over the flag of amber fire:
He blinks and nods and understands,
He has his very soul's desire.
In dew wetted, in tempest blown,
A Lear at last comes to his own.

* * *

An indication of the spreading interest in improved housing is shown in the selected list of material on this subject published by the New York School of Philanthropy as a library bulletin. This brief bibliography of fifty-seven titles furnishes a compact, descriptively annotated catalogue of the most important books and periodical articles on the general subject of improved housing. There are in addition references dealing particularly with conditions in England, France, Germany, and the United States. Nearly two-thirds of the titles are those of publications issued in the last five years which makes the bulletin a directory of fresh material which has not become outlawed by lapse of time.

* * *

"It looks as though one of the by-products of these men's movements of recent years was going to be just this elevation of the man who expresses his religion in service instead of raptures to sainthood. Indeed, as one looks over the long list of the leaders of the brotherhoods, it is this latter type of saint or spiritually-minded man who predominates. He is young, energetic, more intent on doing than talking; practical, not emotional; full of the social gospel; desirous of creating not a band of preachers, but of organizers, reformers, and enthusiasts for a clean-up city. This type of man is evidently quite displacing the older type, and is our modern saint. But he is just as spiritual as the dear saints of the prayer meeting, for he is expressing the life of Jesus Christ in his heart."—NEW YORK EVANGELIST.

COMMUNICATIONS

SOCIETY MEETS THE "HUNKIE"

TO THE EDITOR:

A recent experience has suggested what seem large but generally unappreciated possibilities of awakening broader social interests in "society" people.

In a manufacturing town of Ohio last week a little party was organized for visiting one of the steel mills. The young men as well as the young women were bored at the prospect, and the invitation had to be accompanied by a bit of pressure. When, however, one or two "pourings" were witnessed and a few "pigs" were watched through the rolls, the party became a huge success, and its organizer was smothered with thanks. The result of it all was that for several days there was injected into the conversation of the "guests" the discussion of the wages of "Hunkies" and similar "phenomena," usually quite outside the range of interests of these persons.

The noises and the smoke of the mills will from now on stand for a big human problem to these residents of the other part of the city. In their minds also is the memory of so interesting and enjoyable an evening that it suggests the wisdom of other such "parties" informally organized by social workers and others possessing enough social interest to be willing to slip some of it over on their unsuspecting friends.

CHARLES WHITING WILLIAMS.

Oberlin, Ohio.

TEMPERANCE AND SOCIAL REFORM

TO THE EDITOR:

It is my desire to congratulate you upon the editorial in *THE SURVEY* of July 6 because I think it puts a desirable constructive program before social workers and the public generally in a very logical and comprehensive way. Your reference to the questions of drink, congestion of population and mental defect, are particularly gratifying to me, for I believe that our progress as a nation is very much bound up in the satisfactory solution of just these problems.

I am strongly convinced that we cannot make great progress as a people while the thinking apparatus of the members of our body politic is befogged by the use of two and a half billion dollars' worth of intoxicating drink a year, nor while we house such a large part of our population in a way to make the saloon more attractive than the home.

When we add to these factors of destruction that of mental defect, we face a situation that is so serious as to demand the best thought of every social worker and of our best public men and women outside of social work as well. One of our most serious bars

to progress is the inability of many of our citizens to think straight and consequently to act straight, not only at the polls but elsewhere. When large numbers of the voters have their brains injured by drink and another large class is of defective mentality, we face an amount of mental inertia hard to overcome when we are seeking to secure the adoption of reforms. Hence, the necessity for curbing the sale of drink by every legitimate means possible, and of segregating the mentally defective in order to prevent the growth of the dangerous germ plasm responsible for it. That the evils of congestion of population have a direct relation to both these questions seems too evident to call for extended comment. But until we can have straight, clear thinking, undisturbed by drink or mental defect, by the great body of the people, it will continue to be difficult to secure the reforms that are so evidently necessary in our social life.

ROBERT W. HEBBERD.

New York city.

MORE PAY FOR MARINE DOCTORS

TO THE EDITOR:

I have noted with pleasure your article on page 640 of your issue for August 15, 1912, on the subject Higher Pay for Marine Physicians. The article is both true and just, and I appreciate your publishing it.

You will be pleased to know, I am sure, that on August 10 the House of Representatives, and on August 13, the Senate, passed a bill which has hitherto been known as the Mann bill, changing the name of the service to United States Public Health Service, increasing its functions, and somewhat increasing the pay of its officers.

RUPERT BLUE.

[Surgeon General Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service.]

Washington, D. C.

GREENWICH SCHOOL EXPENDITURES

TO THE EDITOR:

I have been troubled several times by what has seemed to me the misleading use of statistics in *THE SURVEY*, but I have made no protest, except in one case which fell in my particular field. I cannot, however, keep silent after reading the statistics which preface Miss Ayres' article in the issue of August 3, since they appear to have as their immediate object inferences which are quite preposterous.

It may be true that the inhabitants of Greenwich do not properly support their schools, but of course the expenditure compared with the wealth does not offer the least proof of the fact, any more than a high infant death rate as compared with the total death rate is any proof that the number of babies dying is relatively high—the opposite may, in truth, be the case.

Unscientific, inaccurate or partisan statements, I am sure, cannot in the long run ac-

comply the purposes THE SURVEY has in mind, and they may alienate the interest and support of intelligent people.

It is because I am so keenly interested in what you are trying to do and feel such warm sympathy with your point of view that I venture to make this criticism.

MARION TALBOT.

Holderness, N. H.

There are three reasons why Miss Talbot's interesting criticism on the article concerning the Greenwich school situation is not convincing.

First, abundant evidence demonstrates that school conditions in Greenwich are bad. In view of this, it is distinctly pertinent to point out that Greenwich is rich.

Second, Miss Talbot has apparently not clearly thought through her analogy between statistics of expenditure and statistics of infant mortality. Rates of infant mortality are computed by comparing the number of deaths of infants with the number of infants. Following the same process of reasoning, it is entirely proper to make deductions concerning expenditures by comparing expenditures with wealth.

Third, Miss Talbot's use of such words as "misleading," "preposterous," "unscientific," "inaccurate," and "partisan" does not impress the reader with the conviction that her criticism is wholly calm and unbiased.

MAY AYRES.

New York city.

SATURDAY HALF HOLIDAY

TO THE EDITOR:

An interesting fact concerning Waltham with reference to THE SURVEY's recent discussion of the Saturday half holiday is that here the problem of a half holiday has been met by using another afternoon, Tuesday. The grocery and provision stores observe this half holiday the year round while the other stores limit the observance to July and August. The great watch company, which is the chief industry of the city, observes the half-holiday on Saturday afternoon, working ten hours other days. This arrangement at least has in its favor the fact that the people of the city's chief industry may do their shopping during their off hours while the store folks still have their holiday.

A. AUGUSTUS HOBSON.

Waltham, Mass.

ABOLITION OF POVERTY

TO THE EDITOR:

THE SURVEY is great. I read it carefully every week. I do all I can to get people to subscribe for it. It is a *reductio ad absurdum* of our vaunted civilization. But it is not fundamental. You say the abolition of slavery came "as an incident of a costly and ghastly civil war and might have come peacefully and constitutionally long before if men had been willing to pay the price". That is an easy judgment. Mr. Lincoln's seemed to be that

the blood of that war was the natural outcome of the bloody scourge of slavery. In that war, the Judge of all the earth was doing right.

And you say that "the abolition of poverty can be accomplished more easily, with less expense, and with no great delay. The means are known. The only doubt is as to whether again men are willing to pay the price." I wonder what you mean to suggest as the price, especially as you speak of the "expense". You mention the seven wonders of the modern world, but do not include the fundamental injustice of property in land. Suppose you had banished every infectious disease, had reduced work to six or four hours, had relieved congestion, had made temperance as to liquor universal, had curbed mental degeneracy, had improved educational methods to the highest degree, had given up everywhere our obsolete penal system (and must we still go on with a penal system, however improved?) suppose all this had been accomplished, what would be the effect on poverty?

When the community has need of 1,000 workers, but finds from this vast improvement in the general morals of workers that it has acquired 10,000 or 50,000 reliable workers, what would be their wage value? The redemption of the industrial world stands, not in moral perfection, but in equal opportunity to the bounties of nature, and the land is the one only storehouse of those bounties. A moral, physical, intellectual saint, barred from the soil, lives, if he live, only by suffering, or rather dies of necessity, from the selfish oppressions of the robbers of natural opportunities. If I did not invincibly believe that God is stronger than man, and that the truth is mighty and will prevail, all the work THE SURVEY and hundreds of other instrumentalities are doing would appear to me only splendid hypocrisies and soulless inanities.

JOHN K. LEWIS

Santa Barbara, Cal.

THE SINGLE STANDARD

TO THE EDITOR:

I note in THE SURVEY of June 22, page 462, your review of the article of Governor Dix, of New York. Your criticism of his acts, you say, in connection with the Letchworth Village—"Feeble minded young women will have continued to bear feeble minded children to spread venereal diseases and depravity." I suggest that "feeble minded young women and feeble minded young men" be written. Scientists and social workers seem frequently to forget that both men and women are parents. That the feeble minded man can and does bring forth children like himself and can and does spread diseases and depravity. To be truly scientific, to take the true stand with regard to the single standard of morality and the result to the country of the reproduction of the unfit by either parent, we must include both sexes when speaking of results.

LAURA B. GARRETT.

New York city.

JOTTINGS

PUBLIC HEALTH AND SOCIAL WORK

The meeting at Washington, D. C., this month of the American Public Health Association will be significant, among other causes, for the first program of the sociological section created recently. The subjects for discussion by this section, with the names of the principal speakers, are as follows:

Report of section committee, John M. Glenn, general director Russell Sage Foundation, chairman; Diagnosis of the Sick City, George Thomas Palmer, M.D., superintendent health department of Springfield, Ill.; Rural Sanitary Surveys in the South, Wickliffe Rose, secretary Rockefeller Sanitary Commission; The Health Department—Social Worker & Co., a Profitable Partnership, Otto P. Geier, M.D., superintendent Department of Charities and Correction, Cincinnati, Ohio; Points of Contact between the Health Officer and the Social Worker, Homer Folks, secretary State Charities Aid Association, New York.

LABOR'S TURN AT WASHINGTON

No less than twenty bills characterized as labor measures have been passed by the House of Representatives at the session just closed, according to the statement of Chairman W. B. Wilson of the Committee on Labor. These are as follows:

1. The eight-hour bill, extending the operation of the eight-hour law to work done for the government as well as work done by the government. "This act alone," Mr. Wilson says, "will reduce the hours of labor of hundreds of thousands of workmen, directly or indirectly employed by or for the government, giving greater opportunity for rest, recreation, and mental development to those who are affected by it."

2. The children's bureau bill.

3. The anti-injunction bill.

4. The contempt bill.

5. The Department of Labor bill.

6. The industrial commission bill.

7. The investigation of the Taylor system.

8. The seamen's bill.

9. The convict labor bill (requiring the sale of convict-made goods in the states in which they are sold).

10. The Bureau of Mines bill, widening the scope of the bureau.

11. The dredge-worker's eight-hour bill.

12. An eight-hour provision in the fortification bill to apply to civilians engaged in the manufacture of ordnance and powder for the government.

13. An eight-hour provision in the post office appropriation bill for post-office clerks and letter carriers.

14. An eight-hour provision in the naval appropriation bill making the eight-hour

workday apply to workmen employed under the current appropriations.

15. A provision in the post office appropriation bill removing from post-office employees the "gag rule," and thus making it possible for them to bring their grievances to Congress.

16. The "phossy jaw" bill.

17. The bill to extend the provisions of the compensation-for-injury act to the employees of the Bureau of Mines.

18. The bill to give official papers of trades unions and fraternal organizations second class mail privileges.

19. A provision in the naval appropriation bill requiring all coal purchased for the use of the navy to be mined on an eight-hour workday.

20. The masters' and mates' bill to reduce the hours of masters and mates, making it impossible to require them to continue on duty for indefinite periods.

One labor bill upon which the House refused to take action because of suddenly developed differences of opinion among those who would have been most affected by its passage was the Workmen's Compensation Act, passed early in the session by the Senate. It is probable that this measure will come up next fall.

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE IN CALIFORNIA

Through the efforts of Maude Nathan, the first vice-president of the National Consumers' League, a new branch of that organization has been established in Santa Barbara, Cal. Mrs. Nathan gave an address on the work of the Consumers' League to the students of the summer session of the State Normal School of Manual Arts and Home Economics, which led them to ask for help in formulating a plan for co-operating with the national league. The following officers were elected: pres., Maude Garvey; vice-pres., Alice M. Craig; treas., Irene Williams; sec., Cordia Umstead.

The officers of the national league hope that after the students have graduated they will carry on work in their home towns. The Los Angeles Consumers' League Committee of the Civic Association has sent an application to the National Consumers' League for affiliation.

NEW STEP IN SEX HYGIENE WORK

Recognizing the frequency of gonorrheal vaginitis among children and believing that it is impossible to treat these cases successfully without a special organization for the purpose, the Mount Sinai Hospital Dispensary of New York city has inaugurated a special class for the treatment of these cases, and has appointed to the department a special physician who is assisted by a graduate nurse. The cases enrolled since the inauguration of this class are so numerous that the dispensary has been compelled to restrict its treatment to children resident in its immediate neighborhood.

KENTUCKY AND CHILDREN

Committees have been chosen and plans laid for holding in Louisville, Ky. in November a Kentucky Child Welfare Conference and Exhibit. Outside help in preparing the program and arranging the exhibit has been sought from the Russell Sage Foundation which sent Florence Lattimore to Louisville last winter and from Dr. Anna Louise Strong, who had charge of the Chicago Children's Exhibit and of the Child Welfare Exhibit held this year at Northampton, Mass. The local committee calls itself a Conference Planning Organization and consists of Mrs. Morris B. Belknap, president, Mrs. Alfred Brandeis, vice president, Charles Allen, treasurer, and Adeline B. Zachert, secretary. The chairmen of general committees are: Place, Mrs. P. H. Callahan; hospitality, Mrs. S. Thruston Ballard; Publicity, D. B. Boode; Programs, Bernard Flexner; Ways and Means, Charles W. Allen. The chairmen of exhibiting committees are: Homes, Mrs. Barbour Minnigerode; Health, Dr. Henry E. Tuley; Philanthropy, Frances Ingram; Recreation, Fred Levy; Settlements and Educational Movements, Mrs. John C. Little; Schools, Supt. E. O. Holland; Entertainments, Pauline Witherspoon; Industrial Conditions, Mrs. R. P. Halleck; Installation, George H. Gray.

A PEOPLE'S "COUNTRY CLUB"

The opening of the Joseph T. Bowen Country Club by the trustees of Hull House was made the occasion for interchanging memories of the man whose name it bears. The scene among the white birch trees, on the rolling bluff overlooking Lake Michigan at Waukegan, forty miles from Chicago, was significant in its simplicity. How much Mr. Bowen thought of the neighbors of Hull House, and they of him, Jane Addams told by touching incidents. His rector showed how identical were Mr. Bowen's religious and social faiths. A citizen friend pointed to this living memorial as so much more expressive of such a vital life than any monument in bronze or marble could be. His physician, Dr. Henry B. Favill, spoke of the service to health and happiness which this country club will render, not only in satisfying, but also in creating the love of nature, and the craving for outdoor life and pleasure.

Seventy-two acres of charmingly varied, wooded land, a farm house surrounded by new dormitory cottages, a barn, which with its yard and pasture provide "sample" horses, cows, chickens and sheep, give a setting of country life for the girls who in groups of sixty will be sheltered here by turns. The spirit of this country house memorial, the gift of Mrs. Bowen, reminds one of Tom L. Johnson's wish that a playground for the children of Cleveland might be the monument over his grave.

"NEGLECTED NEIGHBORS"

By

CHARLES F. and EUGENIA W. WELLER

with an introduction by
THEODORE ROOSEVELT

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THE COMMON WELFARE

FIRST INTERNATIONAL EUGENICS CONGRESS

Starting with the thesis stated by its president, that our present selection of the unfit is a "grave and growing danger to the future of the human race" and that the science of eugenics must find a way out of this danger, the First International Congress on Eugenics, which gathered together in London delegates from all over the world, brought out the fact that the science is at the present time not ready to offer the solution of this problem. Though Peter Kropotkin was considered by most extreme when he said that eugenics is not a science, but the "ideas, generalities and desires" of a few people, the congress proved to be rather an "exchange of views and mutual instruction" than a scientific body equipped to work out a platform of concerted action, with the ultimate object of proposing legislation.

The incomplete information with which the eugenist has to work was emphasized by A. F. Tredgold who explained how scanty is our knowledge of either family histories or the relation of transmissible disease to race degeneration. The discussion of such topics as the restriction of marriage of certain criminal classes, proposed by an American delegate and opposed by another delegate from this country, tended to bear out the statement of A. J. Balfour that there are less exact ideas, and more divergence of opinion today in regard to heredity than in the eighties of the last century. S. G. Smith of the University of Minnesota, who opposed the restriction of marriage, asserted vigorously that he would rather be the son of a healthy burglar than of a consumptive bishop. Believing that environment is vastly more important than heredity Sir John MacDonald, a leading English authority on judicial statistics, showed substantial agreement with Professor Smith when he maintained that in the majority of cases the habitual criminal is not born but made. In Professor Smith's opinion most babies

are well-born. What they need is to be well-reared, and with a wider knowledge of hygiene, a better distribution of wealth—or, in the expression of Edward T. Devine, a "fair and decent opportunity"—and a higher sense of responsibility on the part of parents, the problem of physical heredity at any rate, would in his opinion vanish.

Practical contributions to the study of race changes made by changed conditions, were given by Adams Woods, Soren Hansen and Vernon Kellogg of Leland Stanford University. The latter dealt with the effect of militarism on the race, by a comparative study of the physical characteristics of the children born in France during and soon after the Napoleonic wars.

EUGENICS AND SOCIAL WELFARE

On the ground that "efficient government contemplates not only the immediate happiness of the people, but also considers the citizens of the future, and therefore is concerned for the improvement of the race," the New York State Board of Charities a year ago established a Bureau of Analysis and Investigation, with special reference to eugenics.

The approaching completion of Letchworth Village, with its increased capacity for caring for the feeble-minded and the contention of experts that all mental degenerates should be segregated and not the fraction (one-seventh) which are now under control, have raised a peculiar interest in the work of this bureau. Its field and purposes have been outlined as follows¹:

To gather information regarding inmates of and proper subjects for admission to the state institutions for defectives, that the managers of such institutions may have data helpful in the care and training of inmates, and that immediate attention may be given to families or individuals not under public care, whose conditions and environment make them a menace to the morals and future welfare of the state.

¹*Eugenics and Social Welfare*, No. 1, a bulletin issued by the Department of State and Allen Poor of the State Board of Charities.

To investigate the relation between the various forms of defectiveness and the problem of pauperism, and collect data bearing upon epilepsy, mental defect, and other forms of degeneracy, and suggest measures whereby they may be controlled.

To aid and stimulate local authorities in the performance of their duties in relation to defective dependents, and the families to which such defectives belong.

To study the causes of defectiveness with relation to inheritance and environment, to determine in which families defectiveness is hereditary and in what localities such families are most numerous.

To compile an accurate census of the feeble-minded and of the epileptics, and maintain a permanent record of defective families in the state of New York.

To present the statistics of pauperism and other facts to the public from time to time, to show the need of further legislation and of additional institutional provision for the dependent, defective and delinquent classes.

"The study of mental defect requires the compilation of full information concerning family history," says the bulletin, "and social investigators will be of assistance if they include in all case records the maternal as well as the paternal family names. The bureau will be pleased to receive data regarding defective families, and other facts from institutions and social agencies interested in the application of the principles of eugenics for the welfare of the future population of the state."

The bureau declares that through it information relative to eugenics will be available to those interested.

A UNIQUE WAYMARK OF NEGRO PROGRESS

Chicago was interested and surprised by the proceedings of the Negro Business Men's League, the thirteenth annual convention of which was recently held there. The original "motif" of this league seems largely to have been to impart to younger men the secret of success which the older men had wrested from their hard experience. Organized in Boston twelve years ago, its founder and president, Booker T. Washington, reported local organizations in thirty-two states and ten state federations in the South. Among the affiliated offshoots of the league are the National Negro Press Association, the National Negro Bar Association, the National

Negro Funeral Directors' Association and the National Negro Bankers' Association. The latter reports a membership of twenty-five of the sixty-one Negro banks now doing business throughout the country, and has plans for establishing a strong central reserve bank in which the banks belonging to the association will be required to deposit a reserve fund for mutual support in emergency.

Co-operative buying is proving to be a success among some of the local leagues of farmers. Negro towns with no white inhabitants were represented, one of which, Boley, Okla., has a population of 4,000 with water works, an electric light plant, four cotton gins, five churches and a Masonic temple.

The program of the convention was enlivened by very human, concrete personal experiences. "My experience" or "my success" headed many a title which ended in farming, truck gardening, stock breeding; in dealing in railway ties, real estate or cotton; in brick making, building, or employment agencies. The details of conducting an antiseptic barber shop and of "making boot-blackening pay" were not regarded as being out of place in the program.

In his president's address, Mr. Washington said:

At the present time there are more than 270,000,000 acres of unused and unoccupied land in the South and West. In fact one-half of the land in the South and two-thirds of the lands in the West is still unused. Now is the time for us to become the owners and users of our share before it is too late. From ownership of the soil comes independence, self-support, happiness, and real manhood rights. Land that can be gotten at \$10 an acre now, a few years hence cannot be gotten for two and three times as much.

There are places in the South for 5,000 additional dry goods stores, and there are colored people enough to support them. In the South the Negro merchant is not dependent on the trade of his own race alone.

Not only the colored man trades at the colored man's dry goods store, but the best white people are not afraid to patronize a first-class Negro store. The same thing is true of other business enterprises owned and controlled by colored people.

There are openings in the South for at least 8,000 additional grocery stores, for 3,500 drug stores. There are openings in the South for 2,000 shoe stores, 1,500 millinery stores,

and there are communities in the South where 2,000 Negro banks can be operated and supported. Further than this, there are places in the South where at least twenty-five self-governing, self-supporting, self-directing towns or cities may be established, where the colored people can have their own mayor, their own board of aldermen, their own self-government from every point of view. In the last analysis, local self-government is the most precious kind of government.

All that I am here advocating and emphasizing does not mean the limitation or circumscribing of our race mentally, morally, civilly, or in other directions, but it does mean real growth and real independence in all these directions.

The Negro Year Book published at Tuskegee by Professor Munro N. Work furnishes an annual chronicle of the achievements and prospects of the Negro race.

The Chicago local league won praise by publicly disavowing and discrediting an attempt to exploit the occasion of the national meeting by a street carnival which purloined enough of the league's title to confuse the public. The league protested, after failing to have the permit withheld, against such "an inappropriate way of entertaining a gathering of the most distinguished and influential men and women of our race," and "against turning the public streets over to private individuals, giving them the right to barter and sell the use of the streets and public highways for any price they are able to obtain and to any enterprise that is willing and able to pay."

"CITY SENSIBLE" IS SYRACUSE STANDARD

"The 'City Sensible' is the Syracuse standard of excellence," writes a citizen of Syracuse, N. Y., which less than a year ago submitted itself to a voluntary social survey. "By that standard the various betterment agencies of the city are measuring their work and the community's needs. Good housing, good health, good care of dependent persons, the conservation of childhood, physically capable and adequately paid laborers, a city well planned, an efficient municipal government and churches organized to reach all the people are recognized as sensible things. Convinced of this and

with sincere enthusiasm the people of Syracuse have been endeavoring to learn, measure and meet the needs of their city."

On January 1, 1911, the total debt of the four hospitals was approximately \$400,000. In two campaigns of two weeks each, scarcely a year apart, that debt was cancelled. A hospital council was then formed consisting of members from the boards of directors of each institution. For several months experts on hospital management have been in the employ of this council, and when their work is completed Syracuse expects to have her hospitals under scientific management and working in close harmony. This marks an important step in advance—the four great hospitals have lost their petty jealousies in an enthusiasm to give maximum service at minimum cost.

The second notable advance has been the formation of a Central Council of Betterment Agencies, as it is popularly called. Properly speaking, it is a Central Council of the Associated Charities. Syracuse is a rapidly growing town of approximately 150,000 inhabitants. For a number of years it had an Associated Charities which was thought to be less alive to its opportunities than it should have been. The thirty-five charities and the ninety churches in the city have worked almost independently of each other. Naturally pauperism has increased, though to what extent cannot be determined. Furthermore, appeals for funds have become so numerous that the public has been crying for relief. To bring order out of chaos has been no simple task, but the Associated Charities now announces that all but two or three of the charities and more than half of the churches have joined hands in the central council. The mayor has named as ex officio delegates to this body, the commissioner of charities, the health officer, the chief of police, the president of the Board of Education and the director of the tuberculosis clinic. The result is that the Associated Charities now thoroughly represents the social work of the city. Catholic, Protestant and Jew are united in a Syracuse forward movement for social betterment.

Realizing that a city's greatest asset is an efficient municipal government, the Syracuse society went further and engaged the New York Bureau of Municipal Research to conduct a survey of the departments of education, health, charities and the methods of municipal finance.

THE LOAN SHARK IN A PHOTO-PLAY

To show the harm worked by loan sharks, the effect on borrowers of the fear of discharge, and the humanitarian work of employees' co-operative savings and loan associations, the Edison Company and the Division of Remedial Loans of the Russell Sage Foundation joined forces to produce a new educational moving-picture. This film, which is to be released on October 5, dramatizes the experience of a clerk who is forced, owing to the illness of his child, to borrow money from a loan shark.

The loan company, for three months' use of \$25, despite its alluring advertisement offering money at low rates, exacts a mortgage on the clerk's furniture and six bi-weekly installments of \$7.50 or a total of \$45. The borrower is unable to keep up the payments. He is discharged

when a woman collector goes to his place of work and loudly demands the overdue payments.

After days of disheartening search he gets another job, only to be again confronted by the woman collector who leaves her card on the employer's desk. This time, however, he is not dismissed. The new employer helps him to get a loan from the co-operative savings and loan association organized by the employees of the company. This furnishes him the money to repay the loan company.

Following the advice of his employer he also appeals to the district attorney. Accompanied by the prosecuting officer of the county he gets home just in time to save his furniture which the sheriff, at the request of the loan agent, is about to seize. The district attorney compels an accounting and the restoration of the usurious interest.

The next scene takes place several months later. The child is now well. Relief from financial troubles has brightened the home, and through his membership in the co-operative savings and loan association the clerk has been able to lay by a tidy sum against the proverbial rainy day.



THE JAWS THAT BITE

Two scenes in the new moving-picture film dramatizing the practices of loan sharks. The picture at the left shows the agent of the loan company retaining part of the principal loaned, this operating of course to increase the rate of interest. The other shows the loan company's "bawler-out," demanding payment in front of fellow employees and employer.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF OHIO

FREDERIC C. HOWE.

On September 3, Ohio adopted by vote of the people of the state what is virtually a new state constitution. Thirty-three of the forty-one proposed amendments to the existing constitution were approved. Each amendment required a separate vote upon it. The convention followed this novel method of constitutional revision in place of drafting an entirely new instrument as has heretofore been customary.

Of the forty-one separate amendments proposed all were approved by the people with the exception of those providing for woman suffrage, abolition of capital punishment, the admission of women to office, for voting machines, the control of outdoor advertising, the limitation of the use of the injunction in labor disputes, the provision for the issuance of \$50,000,000 in bonds for the building of roads and the elimination of the word "white" from the constitution.

Were it not for the overshadowing importance of Presidential politics, the big significance of the Ohio constitution would have received widespread attention. For Ohio is an eastern state. It has been ruled by reactionary interests for years. It has many large cities. Political reform has long been confused by the liquor question. The state has never shown radical tendencies. Yet Ohio has adopted what is probably the most thoroughly and fundamentally democratic framework of government in America, if not in the world.

Of the amendments approved, more than one half are radical, some are revolutionary in their significance. The first amendment states that in civil cases the legislature may provide for verdicts by not less than three-fourths of the jury. The amendment providing for the abolition of the death penalty and the substitution of life imprisonment was lost. Another amendment provided that the

amount of damages recoverable in civil actions in personal injury cases should not be limited in amounts by law as is the custom in many states.

Probably the most important amendment adopted was that providing for the initiative and referendum. Against this amendment privileged interests used all their power and agencies of publicity. The amendment provides that the constitution can be amended by petition, the proposed change being offered by 10 per cent of the electors and submitted to the electors at the next election. Provision was made for the enactment of laws by the same method, although the details are different from those of any previous initiative and referendum amendment. This section provides that measures may be initiated by 3 per cent of the electors, who file their petitions with the secretary of state who then transmits the proposed measure to the general assembly. If the general assembly enacts the bill it becomes a law. If, however, the assembly fails to pass the bill or passes it in an amended form, the proposed measure can be submitted to the electors in its original or amended form if 3 additional per cent of the electors petition for it. Referendums on laws passed by the legislature are made possible on petition of 6 per cent of the electors. The chief argument against the initiative and referendum was that it was being promoted by the single taxers of the state and the legislature limited the resolution by saying that it should not be used to classify property for taxation or for the levy of any single tax on land or land values. It was further provided that each of one-half the counties must furnish a percentage of the petitioners. In order to insure proper publicity and an opportunity for the full discussion of proposed measures it was provided that copies of proposed measures with arguments for and against them should be prepared and sent to all the electors in the state.

Advanced amendments were enacted in the interest of labor. The legislature was authorized to provide direct mechanics' liens against the property of the

owner; to regulate the hours of labor, establish a minimum wage and provide for the comfort, health, safety and general welfare of all employees. Such decisions as that of the New York Court of Appeals were made impossible by authorizing laws to provide compensation to workmen for death, injury or disease. The state was authorized to establish state insurance funds for the protection of industrial workers. Eight hours was made a day's work on all public work, whether done by contract or by the state directly. The abuses of contract prison labor were made impossible by requiring that prisoners should not be contracted out or made to work under the contract system. The element of private profit was eliminated in prison labor, and provision was made for the employment of prisoners in the production of things needed by the state. Conservation of natural resources was provided for by authorizing laws to encourage and promote forestry, to protect streams and lakes, and to regulate the use of water power. The introduction of the Torrens' land title system was made possible, by means of which land titles can be registered under public supervision.

Substantial judicial reform was secured by giving an intermediate court of appeals final authority in most cases. The most radical departure relates to the interference of the courts with legislation, for the Supreme Court cannot hold a statute unconstitutional if more than one of the judges dissent, although a judgment of the court below holding a statute unconstitutional may be affirmed by a majority of the Supreme Court. Judgments of the trial court can be reversed only with the concurrence of all the judges of the Court of Appeals on the weight of the evidence and by a majority of such judges upon other questions.

The amendment authorizing the legislature to pass laws providing for the conduct of cases in contempt proceedings, and providing that no order of injunction could issue in any labor controversy except to preserve physical property from injury or destruction, and that all persons charged with con-

tempt shall upon demand be granted a jury trial as in criminal cases, was defeated.

The direct primary was made mandatory for all offices. School districts were authorized to determine for themselves the size and organization of local boards of education. The double liability of bank stockholders was provided for as was the regulation of corporations.

The merit or civil service system was made obligatory on state, county and city offices, and the legislature was required to provide laws for competitive examinations.

The liquor question has been the most troublesome question in Ohio politics for years. The previous constitution prohibited licensing. The state could not recognize the traffic. An amendment was adopted authorizing the legislature to enact license laws with such restrictions and regulations as might be provided. The amendment contains many limitations on such licenses. It provides that they can not be issued to aliens or persons not of good moral character; that they shall not be granted to persons pecuniarily interested in other locations; that any licensee once convicted shall have his license revoked; that there shall not be more than one saloon to every 500 people; that municipalities may further limit the number of saloons and that nothing in the license amendment shall be construed to modify existing prohibitory laws.

Public service corporations bitterly attacked the municipal home rule amendment. It grants to cities almost complete autonomy in their local affairs. Under it cities are given power to determine their own form of government which can be proposed by a commission of free-holders and otherwise. They can adopt the commission plan of government, the federal plan or any other system. The widest power of municipal ownership was given. Cities can acquire, construct, own and operate any public utility. They are authorized to issue special bonds against the property itself, provided that the mortgage is a lien only on the property and revenues of the utility. The

power of excess condemnation was given to cities, and the power to issue bonds therefor.

In general, the constitution takes advanced ground on industrial and labor questions, on the arbitrary powers of the court, on judicial reform, and in providing for the fullest and freest expression of political democracy, through municipal home rule, the direct primary and the initiative and referendum. Through the latter instrument the question of woman suffrage can be resubmitted at each election as can the recall of public officials or any other important question. Ohio may fairly be taken as a cross-section of the average American state to the west of the Alleghenies, at least. And the reforms there adopted are likely to become part of the fundamental law of every non-Atlantic seaboard state within a relatively short period of time.

DAVID BLAUSTEIN

EDWARD T. DEVINE

David Blaustein was one of those guileless, sincere and original souls who inspire affection and confidence. He worked disinterestedly for the good of others. He worked without sparing himself, without counting the cost, perhaps without even reasonable discretion. Through the simplicity of his nature, his single-mindedness and his self-sacrificing, unflagging labor, he came to an understanding of many things which are hidden even from more learned and shrewder men. He brought sympathy and an open mind to the social problem and he was rewarded in the only way that pioneers can be rewarded—by the first glimpse of things which ordinary men would never discover, by the kind of possession which comes from the power to see and to comprehend.

It is no unusual thing for a resourceless immigrant boy to acquire a university education and achieve a professional career. It is not unusual for a Jewish Rabbi to become a welcome speaker in Christian churches and on the platform of all kinds of philanthropic and educational institutions. What is distinctive in Dr. Blaustein's career is

the extent to which he became a persuasive and eloquent interpreter of the best in our American civilization to many successive great groups of newcomers whose language, traditions and experiences were different from ours; and at the same time an interpreter to the native born, equally eloquent and persuasive, of the best in the traditions and experiences, the religion, literature and ideals, which these diverse peoples brought with them. On the one hand he could inspire immigrant children quickly with an ardent desire to salute the American flag, and bring them to an understanding of what that implies. Not quite so quickly but none the less successfully in very many instances he could bring prejudiced American citizens to a better understanding of the motives and impulses, the virtues and capacities, the charm and the humanity of the strangers.

Not all his plans were successful; but his place in our esteem and admiration is none the less assured for that. He was an experimenter and explorer. We may well wish that he had been endowed with the physical strength, health and long life and favorable conditions necessary to carry his plans into effect; but besides all our appreciation of the substantial things which he actually did, we who knew him best will treasure his memory even more for what he wished to do, for his faith in human nature, for his buoyant eagerness and indomitable cheerfulness, for the unembittered spirit in which he met discouragement, and the readiness with which he began again, taking into account the difficulties which his experiment had disclosed.

Who of us would be judged by his achievement? Who would not be judged rather by his aims, by his vision, by his devotion? David Blaustein had high aims, large vision and absolute devotion. Literally millions of transplanted Europeans have cause to bring a pebble of gratitude, of appreciation, to the great pile which our thoughts build for his monument. Let us whose fathers came a few years earlier bring our stones also, thus at least confessing one faith in that common humanity to which he pledged and gave the full measure of his life.

HEALTH

SOCIAL WORK IN NEUROLOGICAL INSTITUTIONS¹

JOSEPH COLLINS

MEMBER MEDICAL BOARD NEUROLOGICAL INSTITUTE, NEW YORK CITY

Recently an Englishman of nimble wit wrote a book entitled *What's Wrong with the World*. The answer that he gave was not entirely satisfactory, nor did all his readers admit there is anything wrong with the planet we inhabit, nor with its institutions. But many are sure there is something wrong with that branch of medicine commonly spoken of as neurology. Demanding as it does of its successful votary that he shall have a comprehensive knowledge of the body both in health and in disease and a profound insight of the soul which animates man and woman, that "he shall dream and not make dreams his master, that he shall think and not make thoughts his aim," the neurologist is singularly without influence, socially, politically, economically, or pedagogically, in the community.

Novitiates see us prostituting our talents to praiseworthy but ignoble ends, namely the cure of disease rather than its prevention, and after brief sojourn with us they go to fields that seem to them more promising.

If we are to give earnest of our existence and of our endowment we must enter the field of preventive medicine, and the high road leading to it is called "Psychological Avenue."

Dealing as we do almost exclusively with disease that has its origin in ignorance or sin, either we must endeavor ourselves "to give light to them that sit in darkness and in the shadow of death" or we must ally ourselves with those who will do it under our direction.

The majority of nervous ailments are social in their origin and social in their implication. It is incumbent upon us, the people, to devise methods for the efficient administration of the social elements in each case. It is not consistent to treat the well human being as a social individual, and the ill human being as a detached individual. The individual who solicits and accepts aid without in turn proffering a *quid pro quo* becomes by so doing in need of more rather than less social consideration. The obligation to think of him and treat him as a social unit becomes greater rather than less. The obligation to maintain him in his full social relations is increased rather than diminished.

The advent of a patient in a public hospital or dispensary should not be the occasion of dislocation or severance of the ordinary social

relations. On the other hand society in establishing and maintaining such hospital and dispensary should reserve the right to determine whether the individual who solicits and accepts aid is more or less fit to participate in social activities after his contact with the institution than he was before.

The patient's consciousness of the social benefits conferred upon by him by the hospital or dispensary should be maintained at the right degree of intensity. It is the duty of the institution to regard and treat the patient as one who has been received in trust from society. When society provides for the thorough and scientific administration of the social life of the patient in his relation to the institution no institution can reject the incorporation of this work of social inspection and oversight into its general scheme of administration. When society recognizes that it has this right, and when institutions recognize that such a department of administration must be established within it as an integral part of its make-up, we believe that funds will be given as freely for this purpose as for any other purpose for which hospitals and dispensaries are established.

The work of supervising the spirit and the manner of approach of the patient to the institution to solicit its benefits, the relation sustained by him while these benefits are being received, and his relations to society subsequent to contact with the hospital are not benevolent or personal services. Even though they were, it would be so only secondarily because the observance of social duties and the acceptance of social rights and privileges uniformly bring into existence the highest form of social benefits.

Some of the administrative measures that grow naturally out of these principles may be stated as follows:

1. The sick person who goes to a public hospital or dispensary should be so handled that this shall not prove to be the first step toward loss of independence. There should be an actual inspection, from a social standpoint, of the attitude of each patient toward the payment of fees, in order that it shall not be easier for him to assume a more dependent attitude toward the institution than it is toward the physician consulted privately. This relation of the patient to the institution should be under inspection during the entire time of his connection with it.

2. In attempting to estimate the benefits conferred upon the individual who has sought

¹An address given by Dr. Collins before the American Neurological Association at Boston, June 1, 1912.

and obtained the hospital or dispensary's aid, we must endeavor to determine how far the individual has been readjusted to life in terms of occupation. This necessitates consideration of

a. *Former Occupation.*—Inquiry should be made as to the fitness of the occupation to engage the full power of the individual; its value to the individual, tending merely to support his existence or also his personal betterment; its value to society, whether economic or human; its success therefore in utilizing and maintaining the social efficiency of the individual from the standpoint of health and body, mind and spirit.

b. *Desire and Ability to be Occupied.*—Occupation may be pursued because of the satisfaction that flows from being at work. While the individual may be detached from permanent useful occupation, it is not necessary that the satisfaction which comes from being occupied should be withheld from him. Such satisfaction may be secured in a measure during the period of a patient's attendance in a dispensary or residence in a hospital by means of some simple manual work. The satisfaction that rises from being occupied is anticipatory, present, or reminiscent. The patient's anticipation of the inner satisfaction to be derived from occupation is not always equal to his present or retrospective satisfaction. It is for the institution rather than for the patient to determine whether failure on the part of the patient to anticipate satisfaction shall become the occasion of failure to obtain present and reminiscent satisfaction from having been profitably occupied during the leisure that illness has enforced.¹

c. *Preparation for Future Occupation.*—The result of being well occupied in simple and social work should be to create a new and fresh mental experience. To lead a sedentary life in a social group occupied largely with reading or conversation creates a mental experience which is not necessarily social in its implications. The social situation in a hospital is not a normal one. The majority of the persons there are sick. The contact between these social elements should be in some term other than mere personal acquaintance. The health-

iest relations that can be established are those foundationed in useful occupation, so that the most beneficial social relations are those of occupied rather than idle persons.

3. The new social situation arising from the recognition of the residential status of the patient contains opportunities for social instruction that should be fully utilized. It is vitally important to know what effect the costly process of curing disease is going to have on the future social relations of the individual. Science and common sense both agree that the individual must be defined in terms of his ability to put forth effort in economical ways toward well-chosen aims. A sound sociology, on a sound psychological basis, will insist upon studying an individual suffering from disease and resident in a hospital not only in terms of his native energy but of his natural or acquired tendencies in expending them. When this observation is carried on in connection with actual occupation—a situation is created which is favorable for educational purposes and which should be utilized through persuasion, argument or actual demonstration.

a. *Return to Previous Occupation.*—Inquiry about illness or ability to resume some form of occupation which is still within the range of the individual's capacity should not terminate before it has been determined whether or not the way is open for the resumption of his previous occupation. Whenever the burden of restoring the individual to his status as an employed person can be thrown upon society at large it should, of course, be done. When society cannot help it devolves upon the social service department to make the restoration as complete as possible.

b. *Mental Readjustment.*—When the individual is ready to resume his occupation physically but is not yet ready in thought, the privilege and opportunity to secure a readjustment of his ideas is so immediate and critical that to postpone it is to take the risk of losing it altogether and of defeating the purpose of the individual's residence in the institution.

c. *A New Occupation Demanded.*—This readjustment of ideas must frequently take the form of some kind of new occupation, a difficult task. It is frequently the case that the difficulties which have brought the individual to the hospital have arisen from his former occupation. It may have been one to which he was poorly adapted yet he may not have the power to overcome the inertia which lay beneath his original choice of vocation. The occupation may have chosen him and he may have had no desire or inclination for it. The *aboulia* which stood in the way of his finding a more congenial occupation before he was ill will not shackle him even more securely.

d. *Limited Capacities of Individual.*—This task is sometimes even more difficult for it may include providing some special form of occupation which is adapted to the limited capacities of an individual suffering from an illness which has permanently depleted his ability. The social spirit which recognizes the

¹Society in the exercise of its rights of scrutiny of patients who seek and obtain aid from hospitals should determine the desire and ability of such patients to be occupied in connection with a concrete situation. The terms in which the inspection is carried on, and in which the results are stated will be abstract unless the conditions are such as provide for actually engaging the patient in some well adjusted occupation. There is little value in a statement of former desire and ability to be occupied, and much less value in a mere verbal definition of present desire and ability.

Residential occupation is an administrative measure which recognizes the rights of society to scrutinize the patient's attitude toward occupation in such a way as to discharge the assumed duties seriously, and with recognition of the right of the person to be fully understood. It also recognizes the right of the individual to make a self-definition which will show that he can do more than he has ever done. It also removes the temptation to give an obscure definition, either through over- or underestimate, and free from complications which might arise from purely subjective statements.

privilege of meeting the conditions is the same as that which impels the scientist to increased effort as well as to the practical application of new knowledge as rapidly as it is acquired.

The term "social service" is not strictly applicable to this part of the hospital administration. It not only fails to cover the ground, but it contains implications that are misleading. The term suggests that there is something in the department vitally different from that which is covered by other departments of the institution. As a matter of fact the work of this department is closely co-ordinated to that of the other departments. Its aim is to facilitate, to participate in and to extend the work of the other departments. The best designation that suggests itself after an attempt to use the term "social service" and such variations of it as "social research" or "social investigation" is the term that closely associates actual work of the department with the sciences which underlie the work of the other departments; namely psychology.

It may be that psychology is not so far advanced as a science as some of the other sciences which contribute to the successful work of the neurologist. It is, however, about as far advanced as a science as is physiology, and is in its present stage largely because physiology is no further advanced. The practical implications of psychology as a science may be few in number, but they are not for that reason less useful than the practical implications of the other related sciences.

No doubt a great deal depends on the sort of psychology that is being made the basis of the practical efforts of this department of administration. A psychology adapted for this purpose should first of all be conative. It should begin its study of cases and organize its treatment of them with an estimate of the amount and quality of energy or power to perform work resident in the organism. It should be functional in that it should take into account the readiness of the organism to perform the work that its resident energy equips it for doing. It should be social in that it should take into account the unification of the native power and functional capacity in a personality with the ability to be related in efficient ways to the life and activities of other persons. It should be educational in that it takes into account the possibility of maintaining and improving the total efficiency of the person by scientific methods.

There is much confusion in the minds of laymen about the meaning of the term psychology, but this will have to be carried along for the present and explained as well as possible. It is much less likely to call for explanation in the minds of those who are aware of the meaning of the term when it is applied to the work of such a department than is the term "social service." To maintain a department of psychology to assist in the definition of certain cases; to study these from a standpoint which is not occupied by any other observer in the neurological group and

to take active interest in the social and educational treatment of the cases, is a legitimate form of activity for an institution whose spirit is at the same time scientific and ethical.

To maintain a department of social service whose activities would be accurately characterized by that title may be desirable for such an institution, but it is not an obvious necessity.

The call for social service in hospitals is not an outcome of an increased desire to be philanthropic or benevolent toward the sick and poor. It is not an attempt to make the hospital carry any of the burden of philanthropic effort now largely in the hands of independent organizations. Society at large has at its command resources of time and energy and ability sufficient to establish and conduct all the purely benevolent work needed in the community. To relieve society of the conduct of its benevolences as independent institutions is to relieve it of some of the obligation to remedy the conditions out of which the need of philanthropies arises.

The call for social service really comes out of an increased interest in the better administration of the routine processes of diagnosis and therapy in the hospital. There was a time when the care of the sick in hospitals and dispensaries was itself regarded as a philanthropy. Many of those who gave themselves to the creation of these institutions from high altruistic motives did not conceive of the deeper social significance of their work. It was not apparent to them that these institutions were going to be taken out of their hands into the higher work of society in the prevention as well as the curing of disease. The hospital is no longer an institution descending from above upon society to remedy the harms done by society's mistakes or delinquencies, and really extra-social in its nature; it is a part of the machinery established by society to be used in diminishing the results of inherited ills, of accidental harms, and for the propagation of correct ideals about health and efficiency. In other words it is intra-social in its nature, and should be so in its administration. This point of view is not broader than that with which we regard other similar institutions in the democratic state. Its main merit is that it is as broad as it should be, and that it recognizes just those features of a truly social institution which appear whenever they become the object of consideration by earnest and energetic minds.

It is plain that any discussion of social service in hospitals properly begins with a recognition of the fact that the administration of hospitals is a part of the administration of the whole social order. To speak of it as the "social administration" of the hospital is not quite correct, since it implies that there is a part of the administration that is not social in meaning and method. It is best to use "social service" if at all, in the broadest possible sense, implying that there is a social standpoint from which to view hospital administration, which gives a new emphasis to

certain long standing problems, and suggests new methods of dealing with them. Or it would be better still to abandon the use of the term for the higher point of view that all hospital administration is social in implications and social in method, and to differentiate a part of the administration of the hospital under a heading which would recognize the scientific principles and methods employed. To clearly differentiate such a department of administration, with a basis of sufficient solidity to correlate it with the other departments, and then to call it a social service department is to retreat in nomenclature from the position established in fact.¹

The Neurological Institute of New York City, while retaining for the present the term "social service," is carrying on under that term broad work and one that corresponds closely to the general propositions laid down in this discussion. The department is in charge of Frederick W. Ellis whose principal training and experience has been in psychology and its practical applications to pedagogical and sociological problems.² Associated with him is a woman who has co-operated in psychological investigations, and who has been a successful teacher in special classes for exceptional children in the public schools and is a good investigator and director of the home life and home training of these children. Some of the visiting is done as volunteer work; much more is done through close co-operation with established relief agencies. A point is made of the fact that any case that

The term "social service" is the only possibly misleading element in the situation. It has served a good purpose in the course of development of a new point of view and a new method of approach to an important problem in hospital administration. It has gathered up and made more effective those features of the situation that appeal to true feeling, well-ordered emotion, and ripened sentiment. But it is so loaded down with these implications that it may be that the time has come when the term should be reserved for work outside the province of hospital administration, but in immediate proximity to it. The curative measures taken with the patient and the scientific approach to him in terms of his personal and social status, rather than in terms of his disease, is different from the reception of him again into the full movement of persons and groups in society at large. If society should build up an administrative department for receiving those who are handicapped temporarily or permanently, which should be juxtaposed to the department of administration within the hospital which takes cognizance of the fitness of the patient for such reception, the term "social service" would still be of use in designating the function and origin of such a department. It is possible that recognition of the close juxtaposition of these bureaus or administrative offices might go so far as to house the social service bureau in the building devoted to hospital administration where access to it would be most convenient and immediate. Objection might be raised to this, that it brings outside social agencies into too close material touch with the major administrative work of the hospital. That is a matter which will be worked out best in experimental efforts to find out whether the difficulties that naturally arise in extending any system of administration can be met by careful selection of the persons whose duty it will be to minimize these difficulties, or by some purely institutional device, such as requiring the social service bureau to be separately housed.

I am deeply indebted to Mr. Ellis for his co-operation and aid in the preparation of this address.

is too special to be covered by the investigators supplied through these agencies is important enough to engage the attention of the head of the department or one of his assistants working under his direction.

Other workers in the department are selected because of their ability to carry on certain investigations that are being conducted. The most significant of these, from the administrative point of view, is the investigation now being made into the relation of occupation work in the hospital to the treatment of nervous diseases and to the securing, for those who are handicapped by any form of nervousness, of employment that will help them in overcoming their illness or in bearing its hardships with greater fortitude. This investigation is being carried on by the occupation teacher who gives part of her time to teaching and part to working with an assistant on the records of the results obtained. Their inquiry covers the history of patients who have been for some time out of the hospital. A daily census is kept of the number, age, sex, race, faith, civic condition and previous occupation of the patient resident in the hospital, and the results of the inquiry made by the occupation teacher are used to determine the work each patient shall do, if any. The work given is selected with a view to its future as well as its present value, and with regard to its being followed for diversion, treatment, or gainful employment. This decision is not usually made without the advice of the physician in charge of the case, but in practice it is found that most physicians find the providing of occupation for their patients so helpful in the administration of cases that they are willing to leave a great deal to the discretion of the occupation teacher, advising only where necessary against any occupation or against certain kinds that are unsuitable. The director of the department is in attendance every afternoon during the clinic hours, and is frequently called on to assist in the definition of mental or dispositional states that are neither neurological or psychiatric in the strict sense. Cases that call for relief, for the provision of special foods, medicines, or apparatus, for employment, or for personal adjustment in family life or otherwise, are referred to him by any physician who feels that his study or treatment of a case will be helped in this way.

Most physicians realize that the administrations of medicines rarely encompass the cure of disease. The nervous invalid who would get restored must get in the good graces of Hygeia and Minerva, goddesses with a *noli me tangere* air once they have been outraged. The right kind of social service worker has great influence at Heliopolis, especially if he or she once offended Re and then successfully placated him. Such social service workers need be neither nurse nor psychologist. Modesty and understanding are the only qualifications necessary if they love their fellowmen. They need neither to preach nor to exhort. They supplement the work of the physician by carrying through that which he

initiates, outlines, and directs until such time as he feels it safe and satisfactory to leave it entirely to his lay assistant.

The fundamental task of the social service work of a hospital, therefore, is to see that the work of the physician, done with a scientific brevity which equals its scientific skill, is supplemented in a personal way, and, in accordance with modern medical, hygienic and psychological ideas, to see that this be done in even a more systematic and specialized way than it usually is when left to the individual effort of the physician.

Frequently the statement of the physician to the patient needs a more extended interpretation in simple terms than time permits. The first effect of the physician's verdict is often a state of depression or alarm which precludes any effort for the time being on the part of the patient. To many the whole fact of ill health, consultation with physicians, undertaking of the altogether new task of recovery, or adjustment to a more limited scope of living is highly bewildering. To initiate, direct, instruct, and persuade the persons struggling with these tasks is a work in itself of no small proportions. If done successfully it assures the work not only of the physicians, but of the institution whose purposes they seek to accomplish. At the foundation of many serious nervous states lies fear. Its grip on the emotional and intellectual life of the patient is often so tight that he cannot unaided shake it off. While it possesses him, all curative work of the physician is either annulled or greatly hampered. The demand of the physician that he rid himself of fear, his assurance that it is needless and harmful are often the beginning of a new life for such a patient. But the work of the physician in many cases needs the support of those who can patiently reiterate it, and wisely and skillfully point the way to the sources of courage, and impress on the sufferer the nobility and worth of fortitude. Here is to be found one of the most obvious fields of work for a department of social service.

It is a mistake, however, to assume that this is or should be the considerable part of the so-called social service work in a neurological hospital. On the contrary the work is educational in a much more comprehensive sense.

The clinical material selected for special study or investigation in the social service department of the Neurological Institute is most interesting from the standpoint of the psychological, pedagogical and sociological investigator. Out of the great variety of cases that come under this form of scrutiny a number of groups are formed for special study. Among these are:

1. Children who are backward, deficient, or incorrigible; also children whose development has been partially arrested through disease affecting the brain.
2. The more interesting and worthy group of children who are able to maintain their rating according to the intellectual

standards of the school, but who have various psychic disturbances usually emotional.

3. Children who display speech defects or who are backward in reading.
4. A group of young women, resident at the detention home of the New York Probation Association, who are delinquent in their social relations from the domestic, industrial and sexual standpoint.
5. A group of cases of men and women, not mentally disturbed and not subject to periodical episodic disturbances, who are subject to such a degree of physical and mental debility, that they alternate between work of superior excellence and a condition of inefficiency.

The work of this department is not principally one of investigation. The list of investigations under way is offered as an illustration of the unusual opportunity for study offered through the selective work of this department in its active relations to the clinic. The cases chosen for this form of social service are not primarily material for investigation. They are individuals who have a permanent right to be understood and a special need to be studied that they may be better understood. Investigation for this department means simply that these individual cases are to be studied by an adequate method, and that the individual will not be studied alone by himself. The fact that as individuals or as groups they are made the subject of systematic inquiry arrives "after the event," the great event being that the individual is being helped according to his permanent needs, and according to his clearly defined qualities as an individual.

There is no possibility of anything pretentious or sentimental about a department carried on in this way. It has a dignity which arises from its being carried on in the spirit and by the methods of the other departments, with which it exists on a parity that could not obtain if it were a device merely for social relief. Its serious purpose makes it easy to eliminate the trivial and the unworthy from the total list of applicants for its benefits. Insofar as it succeeds, either in its investigations or psychotherapeutic measures, it will not only help but contribute to the great object of all hospital administration—a better knowledge of the cause of illness and a better regard for the conditions that support health in body, mind and character.

PREPARATION FOR SOCIAL SERVICE WORKERS

MARY A. MACKENZIE
Superintendent Victorian Order of Nurses
for Canada

Social service problems confront us every day and many are trying to decide what is the best preparation for social service workers. Some time ago in *THE SURVEY* Sara Parsons made some suggestions, and we were pleased to notice that they were made with some hesitancy.¹

¹ *THE SURVEY* for April 20, page 132.

There are very few phases of social service where a training in nursing is not needed. So closely is nursing linked with the curative and preventive agencies which deal with body, heart and mind that it is impossible to separate them. And when the last has been said on the question, it will be found that the trained nurse will be acknowledged the ideal social service worker; and the best preparation, a full trained nurse's course—no skimping of any kind—followed by a special course in district nursing, in which should always be included a training in social service principles. Then, we would have a worker ready for every problem.

The college-graduate, who is grounded in psychology, political economy, and so on, and trained to think in a connected way, will be much better fitted to profit by the instruction in hospital and district than the undisciplined mind.

Miss Parson's suggestions, it seems to me, are fraught with very great danger. The age is passed when we should tolerate, in the name of nursing, anything but the real article. We have had demonstrations, in almost every country, of the great mistake of having for any class of sick people half-trained nurses. And if there are any patients who should, under no circumstances, be left in the care of the incompetent, the partially trained, the dilettante nurse, surely it is those men and women who require the care of the social service worker.

How long will the trained nurses be content to stand by and let everyone who feels like it start some scheme in which participants are required to have only a smattering of nursing? There is no possible justification for the way our profession is being tampered with, and every trained nurse, from North to South and East to West, should let her voice ring out, with no undecided sound, against any suggestion to turn out any more half-trained women. It will only add more confusion and retard the time when every sick one will have the very best, most skilled care possible, no matter who or where he is.

Should social service workers have training as nurses? Then, by all means, let us insist on their taking the full trained nurse's course.

A CHALLENGE TO PUBLIC OPINION

"The knowledge that the results attained in twenty years of warfare against tuberculosis are not commensurate with the forces expended has not reached the public mind as yet, and the main purpose of this article is to help to that end, and at the same time, to attract attention to the reason for such meagre results from so much well-intentioned activity."

This statement appears in an article in the *May Journal of the Outdoor Life*, the organ of the National Tuberculosis Association, in which Dr. John F. Urie of Hull House, Chicago, challenges public attention to the rate of progress being made toward tuber-

culosis prevention and cure. A summary of the article, made by Dr. Urie, follows:

The public has been told much in regard to tuberculosis in the past twenty years or more. In that time a great educational movement has been developed—one aimed at awakening mankind to the huge menace of the disease and to the methods of averting it. A world-wide movement, it has become. In that time, the specific cause of the disease has been discovered and a promising method of treatment produced. The warfare in this period has been intense—warfare conducted by organized and fairly well-equipped forces in every large community, and laws upon laws have been enacted to give power to these forces. And through these influences and through wholly unreliable statistics that have been recklessly published broadcast, public opinion has been moulded into a belief that wonderful advance has been made. But those close in touch with the mass of huddled humanity in our large cities know that it is otherwise, and out of New York city comes the opinion that the disease seems on the increase there.

Surely many things are wrong in our management of the crusade against tuberculosis, and not the least of them is the complacent optimism with which the subject is presented to a public eager to know the truth. "Do not spit, and keep your head out of doors and the problem is solved." This is the situation as the person of average intelligence is made to see it to-day. But as neither the advice for out-of-door life nor the efforts to prevent spitting have accomplished anything of moment in twenty years, is it not time to advocate a change in program for shaping public opinion on the subject? And if so, in what way may a change be wrought?

A recent study of nearly one hundred instances of family contagion among the poor of a small section of Chicago demonstrated beyond question the importance of *contact infection* as a factor in the spread of tuberculosis and demonstrated it with many heart-breaking examples. In considering the organization of society, the analogy of the family to the community is apparent—the first is but the second on a small scale. Contact considered as the one strong influence in transmission in the family, must be accepted as an equally important cause in the community. And contact, given its proper place as a causative agent, fixes the method of prevention, for it is evident that to prevent contact infection it is only necessary to prevent contact.

There is only one sure way of preventing contact between the uninfected and the infected in communities as well as in families, and that is by segregation of the infected—legalized, compulsory segregation—and to teach that doctrine is not an easy task. Think what it means to persuade a public, to whom the very word brings terror, of the need and value of segregation. The impressions of generations must be wiped out and in their

place trust and hope implanted. Is this work for another quarter of a century? It is a mountainous undertaking, but if the work thus far done in the general effort against tuberculosis is used as a preparation, perhaps it may be accomplished in less time.

Fortunately it is not difficult to make segregation of the tuberculous attractive. And, as part of the successful treatment of those segregated, it is necessary that it *should* be attractive. Real out-of-door life is well established as the basis of effective treatment, and it is not difficult to picture attractively an out-of-door existence in properly planned and selected environment even though those leading that life are limited to a restricted area.

With every community maintaining its own segregation park or parks and maintaining them on a basis of efficiency, the balance sheet of the tuberculosis problem at the end of another twenty years would show a very different footing from that which a close examination reveals to-day.

There is no doubt that most of those who are working in the thick of it among the poor believe that a radical departure from the present methods is imperative. Two great needs are prominent in their work—the need of authority of law to provide for and enforce segregation and the need of means adequate to the requirements. In this last connection, it may be said that neither the public nor most of those dealing with the problem as a public welfare movement have any conception of its magnitude. They have not learned even to think in sufficiently large figures.

LAWS REGULATING MARRIAGE

The following summary and comment on state laws regulating marriage is from the last annual report of the National League for the Protection of the Family:

INSANITY, LUNACY, AND WANT OF UNDERSTANDING OR WILL TO CONSENT.—Thirty-four states or jurisdictions make restrictions under some one of these terms: Arkansas, New York, North Carolina, and Oregon,—Oregon using the last of the three terms given above. The other states are: California, Delaware, District of Columbia, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

THE IMBECILE AND FEEBLE-MINDED.—Eight states specify the imbecile or feeble-minded as follows: Connecticut, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, Ohio, and Washington.

IDIOTIC.—Fifteen states and the District of Columbia specify the idiotic as follows: District of Columbia, Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi (providing divorce in such cases), Nebraska, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Utah, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

INCAPABLE OF CONSENT.—Four states put a restriction in this form: Arkansas, New York, North Carolina, and Oregon.

EPILEPSY.—Nine states specify epilepsy. They are Connecticut, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, Ohio, Utah, and Washington.

DRUNKENNESS is named in the statutes of only two states as a bar to marriage. Ohio specifies habitual drunkenness and Washington the common drunkard.

VENEREAL AND OTHER CONTAGIOUS DISEASES are a bar to marriage in four states. Indiana names only a transmissible disease and Michigan, by an act of 1899, and Utah and Washington, by acts of 1909, specify venereal diseases as a bar to marriage.

THE INDIGENT.—One state, Indiana, regulates with considerable care the marriage of the indigent.

As the suggestion is frequently made that the marriage of those afflicted with venereal disease should be legally regulated, inquiry has been made into the working of the law on the subject in Michigan,—the only state that has had the law long enough to fairly test it. The testimony of leading men interested in checking these diseases is that the law has no practical value. It is easy to see why such a law must be to a great extent a failure and that our hope must rest on the influence of education, in various ways, and on the direct action of the parties to be married, their parents, pastors, and physicians. The evils are of a grave character, both on account of their wide prevalence and their most serious effects on the parties immediately concerned and their descendants. But their legal prevention is difficult.

JOTTINGS

PRE-NATAL NURSING IN BOSTON

In order to formulate standards and methods of pre-natal nursing work in Boston, a committee has been appointed consisting of Dr. R. L. Du Normandie, Mrs. William Powell Putnam, Dr. C. P. Ruggles, Mrs. E. A. Codman and Michael Davis, Jr. The committee insists on early, intelligent, and continued medical supervision and believes that well-systematized work should include social as well as medical care. Uniform records for all agencies doing pre-natal work is recommended and as suggestions for social and medical records, regular card index forms have been agreed upon. It is hoped that eventually the various agencies now doing pre-natal work in Boston will agree upon certain boundary lines or districts in order that there shall be but one pre-natal nurse in each section.

INFANT DAMNATION

To the health officer, it appears that the most important phase of child welfare work is that of prevention of unnecessary sickness and death among infants. . . . It need only be pointed out that there are approximately 225,000 avoidable deaths among children under two years of age in the United States every year.—BULLETIN CHICAGO DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.

CIVICS

TRAGEDIES OF VILLAGE SLUMS

KATHERINE PIATT BOTTORFF

Scattered all over our country are small towns and villages that to the casual observer seem to be the embodiment of peace and plenty. The vine-covered porches and streets where elms and maples arch across the way look restful and quiet to the traveler, hurrying from city to city. The man of business, weary of his ceaseless struggle for a fortune, thinks, wistfully, that if he could only end his days in the quiet of one of these lovely villages, he might forget the rush and hurry of the city, and have time to be a better man. He fancies himself in a pleasant home, with honest neighbors, and nothing to do but to watch the procession of sweet country days pass by to fill a changing year. But alas! how little he realizes that down those broad streets, and under those green trees are found conditions that are harder to deal with than the problems of the city slums.

Let me show you the homes of the poor in one beautiful Indiana town. Let me lead you from cabin to hovel and show you the close relation existing between physical and moral degradation; let me point out how much the environment means to a family of children, who reflect, inevitably, in conduct and character, every phase of the descent in social and moral scale. I want you to cry "Enough! These conditions must be remedied by legislation, and it must be immediate and thorough."

Just where our main street becomes a country road, a little red cabin of two rooms stands back in an open lot. The ground around the house is a village dump, and is littered with tin cans and broken crockery. No attempt is ever made to cultivate it, although the renters that live here have needed, sorely, the potatoes and cabbages that might have been raised. There is no water supply except from a hole in the ground near the front door, where perhaps in ordinary weather two buckets of water may be secured in a day. When it rains the hole overflows with muddy seepage, and in the long hot summers it is baked and hard. A poor

washerwoman with a family of thirteen, ten children and three adults, lives here. She gives two days work every week to pay the rent for this apology for a home, and cheerfully tries to feed and clothe all of this flock with the money earned on the other five days.

At one time the oldest daughter lay in the front room with an illegitimate baby on her arm. Out in the lean-to shed the oldest boy was hiding from the marshal because he had stolen a suit of clothes from a village merchant, and the majesty of the law had been set in motion. During the heat of summer after a dry spring this poor woman would call all of her children to help her carry water for the next day's washing from a spring half a mile away. I can see this little procession now as they plodded along the dusty road, carrying their precious load, which would enable their mother to earn fifty cents the next day. One child stumbles, and gasps with dismay as a part of her bucketful splashes out. Another is crying softly, because she is so tired, and even the two year old baby, clinging with one hand to her mother's skirt, carries a tiny bucket made of a tomato can. And perhaps at this moment, the owner of the house was sitting on her vine covered veranda, swaying back and forth in her chair in the coolness, chatting with some neighbor about the unsatisfactory work that home laundresses do.

How could this mother keep her ten children clean? How could she be expected even to know their moral tendencies? In fact she did not, for she has wept bitterly over four illegitimate children that have come to her daughters. Personal cleanliness is more closely connected with moral uprightness than the superficial critic would think, and before we condemn these girls for their lapses in morals, we must try to fill the empty water pail.

A little further up the street is a four-room house set flat on the ground in a lot that is overflowed annually by a small river branch which dries up in summer. It is

owned by a man who boasts that he has a clear title to one hundred pieces of property in two adjoining counties. There is no water supply here when the branch is dry except one rain spout and a series of barrels, each lower than the other, to catch the overflow from its neighbor. Dogs, babies and chickens drink from the one nearest the ground. This family carries water for cooking from a well on the premises of a Negro family near by, but it is a rare thing for a bucket of water to be secured without a battle. All of the little Olcotts accompany the one deputized to draw the water, and all of the little Swans come out to repel the invaders. Sometimes the air is filled with profanity, sometimes they hurl tin cans and rocks at one another, but every bucket of water used by the Olcott family represents one step lower in the ladder of decency, down which those children are descending. Time and again has the town marshal interfered in these fights, and once arrested an Olcott boy for cutting a small girl of the other family with a piece of tin. The child was sent to Plainfield, and is still there, but the conditions of the two families have not been remedied.

Morals do not thrive in such surroundings—neither does physical health. When such a disease as tuberculosis occurs in a home of this sort, it is inevitably contracted by other members of the family. These poor little thin houses, flat on the ground, with walls reeking with dampness, leaking roofs, rotting sills, and the foul moisture from dish water and slops thrown around the door, are breeding places for those bacilli that thrive in filth. An epidemic disease such as scarlet fever or diphtheria is terrible in such a home. There can be no such thing as isolation of the patient. Every child in the family is liable to be a victim, showing symptoms one by one, till the family suffers severely from a protracted quarantine. More than this, disinfection cannot be thorough in a home of rags and tatters, torn wall paper and broken furniture. When the children go back to school, each becomes an agent for the further dissemination of disease.

Still, I would rather my children would sit beside a child with the scales from scarlet fever only half washed out of his clothing, than to listen to the tales that these slum children tell. Poor little untaught waifs! Who can blame them if they try to win friends and companions in school by telling

the tragic happenings of their daily lives. The drunken fight, the vile dance held in some vacant house, the time "pa" was arrested, the cold day when we were put out of our house for not paying the rent, the time the baby came—these are the tales your child and mine hear from their little classmates in the public school.

These village slums do not present the problem of the ill-nourished city poor. These neighbors of mine all have enough to eat. The problem is one of neglect and abandonment. The necessities for decency are not provided and they are too poor to supply them.

Last summer a baby was born in a hovel in one of our side streets; a dear, blue-eyed little fellow of whom any mother might be proud. This mother lay upon a mattress so filthy that the dirt came off in flakes, and vermin crawled under the pillow and in the seams. There was no closet, and the three other children did not, and really could not, use the commonest decency in their toilet. Flies swarmed over the food, the baby, the mother, the soiled clothes, the filth in the yard, and back again to food and baby. When the baby was two days old, this mother began carrying water from the spring three squares away, two bucketsful at a time, for cooking and washing. Do you blame her for not using any more water than was absolutely necessary?

I have heard persons say that there is no excuse for the very poor being so dirty, but I tell you, there is. Suppose you had not a single sheet in your house and not a towel, except ragged gray things made out of flour sacks. Suppose your children's underwear was made of wornout knit goods that someone had thrown away and that their stockings had been refooted until they had lost all semblance of stockings. Suppose that there was not a nightgown in the collection of clothing and that for warmth the children slept in their clothes, four in a bed. When you wake at dawn you must hurry to the spring for a bucket of water for breakfast and toilet purposes—then another bucket must be procured before the dishes can be washed. More water must be carried to get dinner and wash dinner dishes, and still more brought for supper. If any washing is done, that water too must be carried from the spring or neighbor's well. How long would one of these critics of the poor endure this servitude

to selfish landlords, who, to save a few dollars build these poor cabins without cisterns or outbuildings, and then rent them for 200 per cent more than decent houses bring.

When I think of a water bucket it obscures my vision. I want to hold it up so closely before the eye of the public that nothing can be seen but this perpetually empty vessel. I want hearts to ache with pity for the poor who see their little children converted into criminals just through lack of the common decencies of life. Sad as it is to see a child die it is sadder to see one live in such homes as these.

When my washerwoman's son was sent home from Plainfield dying with tuberculosis, the little town roused itself out of its self-complacency and murmured that the state should have provided care and medicines for the boy, instead of sending him home for his widowed mother to nurse. The child had been sent to Plainfield for some trivial offense—before the day of the juvenile court (he found a pocketbook with a little money in it, and didn't try to find the owner, but spent twenty cents of the money before the pocketbook was missed). His mother had a younger boy and when she went away from home she tied the little one to the table and left him in the room with Ferdie, who was dying of tuberculosis. The last week of Ferd's life the mother worked away from home every day. The baby would follow her to the door and say "Ferdie will take care of me, mamma—don't cry." Then he would climb up in Ferd's arms and sit quietly listening to strange stories that the dying boy would whisper to him. The last day he came to the door when his mother returned from work, and said "Ferdie's asleep—mamma—but he saw angels with white wings in the room all afternoon, and talked to them—he told them he was so tired, mamma—and so am I." It was only a few months before this baby too was found lulled asleep forever by the angels with white wings. Truly, the child of the slums is blest when he dies. These conditions of disease, vice, immorality and crime could be swept away. If our legislature would give us a housing law that would cover every piece of rental property used for habitations, from the big tenement house swarming with human beings down to the one-roomed cabin in the country town, their knell would be sounded.

A NEW YORK SOCIAL CENTER

CLINTON S. CHILD

Secretary New York Social Center Committee

New York has taken another step toward the socialization of her public schools. There is now a social center in operation at Public School 63 on Fourth street just east of First avenue on the Lower East Side. This center was started by the New York Social Center Committee with the consent of the Board of Education as an experiment for working out the problem of the social center organization and activities. The beginning was made last May when a committee of people in the neighborhood was formed to give an open-air dance to those who were members of the recreation center at the school, and people living close by.

Early last spring Dr. Maxwell, city superintendent of schools, wrote a letter to the Social Center Committee, quoting an authorization sent to him by the Committee on Special Schools which stated that "the Committee on Special Schools at its meeting . . . had under consideration your communication . . . in reference to developing at Public School 63, Manhattan, an extension of the recreation center work which will be designed to appeal especially to the family group, to working young men and women, and to the men of the neighborhood . . . and it was ordered that you be informed that the idea in general was approved." The Social Center Committee thereupon chose a secretary and began the work of making a social center at this school. The committee is composed of business men and persons interested in social work in New York, and was formed under the auspices of the People's Institute. Joseph M. Price is chairman, and V. Everit Macy the treasurer.

A neighborhood civic club of adults had already been started at this school¹ and this club undertook to form a committee of management and organize the first open-air dance of the summer. A Friday Evening Dancing Club was organized, which anyone could join. Dues of five cents per week were decided upon as a means of covering the expense for music and incidentals. At the first dance there were about 550 persons, many of whom were adults. The affair was such a success that a dance for every Friday evening was assured. A real neighborhood spirit pervaded and everyone pronounced the evening "the best ever."

The numbers increased so that at one of the succeeding dances 800 people came. This was too many to accommodate in the courtyard and the limit had to be set at 550. Incidentally, the neighbors on the floor committee learned that one of the sure ways to stimulate improper dancing is to crowd the dance floor; and vice versa, that the first rule in controlling a public dance is to restrict the number on the floor to such an

¹THE SURVEY, March 23, 1912, p. 1963.

extent that each couple can always be seen and easily followed, and will have plenty of room for turning. The dances have become an established institution. A second dance night has been set aside for adults and the Friday evening dance was practically turned over to the young people.

Clubs have been meeting in the building all summer also; boys' clubs, girls' clubs, young men's clubs and young women's clubs; in some cases mixed clubs of both young men and women were formed.

The spirit of the social center has been admirably maintained by an orchestra which came in to rehearse one night a week. This orchestra is composed both of boys and girls and men and women of the neighborhood. Their wish is to furnish music for charitable and philanthropic purposes and incidentally to get the joy to be derived from music. They play free of charge for hospitals, schools, public meetings and other efforts for social well-being.

A singing society has also joined the center. Another musical society of boys and girls in the neighborhood is coming in and there are several dramatic clubs "itching" to develop and display their talent.

But better than all is the fact that adults in the vicinity feel the responsibility and spirit of the center and are anxious to make it a success. The men want to form a civic club and study the political and social situation. The women are anxious to organize and do something for the boys and girls of the neighborhood, many of whom are brought into the juvenile court. This and much more they will be helped to accomplish. The center is to become the property and expression of the neighborhood which "the people thereabouts" are to develop and set forth. It will appeal to mothers and fathers, sons and daughters.

The work being planned for the winter contemplates the formation of committees of people living in the neighborhood of the school, which shall push the development of the center in the various lines indicated. A mass meeting will be held the latter part of September at which the question as to what they wish to do with the schoolhouse will be put to the people and discussion requested. The committees to be formed are on finance, dramatics, moving pictures, music, dancing, debating, public meetings, clubs, festivals, outings, social welfare of the neighborhood, gymnastics and lectures. Activities in all these lines will be conducted. The finance committee is necessary to handle funds raised through entertainments or otherwise for the benefit of the center. There has already been a demand from many adults that such committees be formed.

The Social Center Committee hopes that in another year the city will see its way clear to take over the work. In the meantime the work grows fast and its requirements are such that the present construction of the school buildings cannot meet them. New

York should follow the example of Texas which has built fine schoolhouses resigned for social center purposes.

A PLEA FOR MUNICIPAL REFERENCE LIBRARIES

EDITH R. HALL

A short time ago a press bulletin sent out by the New York Bureau of Municipal Research called attention to a speech by Mayor Hunt of Cincinnati, describing the system of building inspection by firemen inaugurated this year in his city. The plan is in effect that firemen, who for the greater part of the time in our present system are idle, can be effectively utilized as building inspectors, and can by intelligent continuous inspection prevent fire losses by eliminating causes of fire. The system was inaugurated in Cincinnati last April and will probably be sooner or later adopted by every progressive city in the United States.

An interesting feature of the situation appears in letters which the bulletin evoked from fire chiefs in other cities. The secretary of the Fire Department in Minneapolis, for instance, writes that to Minneapolis and not to Cincinnati is due the credit of originating the inspection-by-firemen service. The fire chief of St. Louis also reports the system as having been in vogue there "for years." Incidentally, both these letters give interesting details of the working of the system as practiced in the two cities. But these bits of information of the customs and doings of other cities come by chance from voluntary letters of interested professional men. There is no machinery in most cities for systematically collecting complete information of current experience of other cities.

The incident is an argument for the establishment in New York and in all large cities of a municipal reference library. Unquestionably, if such fire inspection has, in so simple and practicable a manner, acted as a potent means of fire prevention in a few cities, it would do the same in others, and New York, with its dangerous high buildings, crowded lofts, and the wanton carelessness of high pressure business greed, should not above all other cities neglect the smallest tried improvement in preventive measures.

But how at present can New York or Chicago or Philadelphia officials, crowded with the pressure of daily routine duties and affairs, acquire a knowledge of the new expedients devised and tried in other cities? Or, having by special correspondence and inquiry learned the best tried out systems of today, keep abreast of the improvements devised and put in use tomorrow or next year?

The fire problem is only one of a hundred that have to be met and managed day by day—how know the most adequate sort of street sign; the least wasteful water supply system; the best method of city accounting; methods more successful than ours for housing our poor, flushing our streets, destroying

our garbage, dealing with our drunkards and delinquents?

A municipal library of the sort needed would make available for easy reference and study the data, reports and statistics of every city of importance in the world, as well as periodicals concerned with economic and civic problems and authoritative reference books on accounting, engineering, penology, etc. The proper management of such a library would not only have these documents at hand but would assort, collate, and analyze the information—would prepare it for quick and intelligent use by those who cannot be omniscient, and whose appointed duty is action and not research. We can make our public men doubly efficient by putting the proper tools and knowledge within their reach. Baltimore, Milwaukee, Kansas City, St. Louis have seen and met this opportunity and obligation. Can New York—or your city or your state—any longer afford to lag behind them?

THE PAGEANT OF ST. JOHNSBURY

ROSCOE C. EDLUND

In August nearly 10,000 persons witnessed the pageant that celebrated the one hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of St. Johnsbury, Vt. It was in St. Johnsbury that Thaddeus Fairbanks in 1830 invented the platform scale, thereby furnishing the town with its chief industry and at the same time giving accurate standards of weight to trade and commerce the world over. As the pageant of Thetford, Vt., last year was the presentation in dramatic form of the history of a typical agricultural community so the pageant of St. Johnsbury, which was under the direction of William Chauncey Langdon, presented the history of a typical industrial community.

The pageant grounds were on a hill close by the town, and on the links of the Old Pine Golf Club. Immediately in front of the grandstand is a level greensward twenty yards across, from which the hill slopes up to a grove of maples and hemlocks where, sentinel-like, stands the Old Pine. On the right thick woods afforded protection from the slanting rays of the afternoon sun, while on the left the roofs and steeples of St. Johnsbury, rising among the trees in the valley and outlined against the further hills impressed the spectator with the reality of the drama as it unfolded before his eyes.

Introduced and accompanied by the strident brass of the orchestra there appears on the hillside coming down from the Old Pine the Power of the Wilderness. He is followed by the Spirits of the Mountain-Tops clad in dark green draperies and purple veils, and of the Forests clothed in browns and greens and bearing branches of pine and maple. From below come the Spirits of the Valleys and the Rivers, the Rivers draped in shimmering blue with gleams of white, the Valleys clad in light green with garlands and filaments of meadow flowers.

With a clear trumpet call from the orchestra, reinforced by the strings, there enters majestically the Spirit of Civilization. In a dramatic dance she struggles with the Power of the Wilderness to win over the Nature Spirits. He retains his influence over the Mountain-Tops and the Forests while the Rivers and the Valleys follow joyously the Spirit of Civilization.

Thus the setting is given. The episodes portray the victory of rangers over Indians, the founding of the town by Dr. Jonathan Arnold, the life of the pioneer community, the establishment of the first church, the invention of the scales, the coming of the railroad, the building of the county court house, the summoning of troops for the defense of the Union, the prosperity following the strife of war, and the coming in of foreigners as trade develops and industries grow.

The pageant is not only of the past; it is of the present and the future. Men erect great scales on the hillside just as they are assembled in the shops of the town; children, led by a beautiful figure, Imagination, dance and play, make acquaintance with birds and flowers, and learn as Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls to carry on organized activities; members of the Commercial Club and the Woman's Club discuss community needs and plans for social and civic betterment.

Most impressive of all is the finale. St. John de Crevecoeur, for whom the town was named, using the words of Revelation, describes to the children the New Jerusalem holding forth the ideal of a city "all of true knights and ladies." Suddenly far down the valley near the town, as far as the eye can see, appears a medieval procession of knights on horseback and in full armor with brilliant red tunics embroidered with white eight-pointed crosses. The knights carry the standards of nearby towns, while at their head rides the Knight of St. Johnsbury, to whom all the people of the pageant sing their glad acclaim. At the top of the hill, under the Old Pine, appears America clad in pure white and accompanied by Vermont and neighboring states. The Knight of St. Johnsbury raises his standard in salute, and all the pageant with full orchestra accompaniment sing the Star Spangled Banner. The knight kneels in homage to America who raises him and gives him her flag to bear. Marshalled by St. John de Crevecoeur, the entire pageant, singing, now marches up the hill in review past America, the states, and the Knight of St. Johnsbury, passing from view over the top of the hill under the Old Pine. The last to go are the knights singing the song to America.

All the parts were played by St. Johnsbury people, and they played in earnest, for to them the story was intensely vital. All classes of the community worked together, old and young, leading citizens and humble laborers; Catholics and Protestants, all united and inspired by the vision of a new and a better St. Johnsbury. Citizens subscribed the funds and made up orchestra, chorus and cast.

The St. John's pageant united all classes and creeds in thought of the common welfare. It was truly a community expression of the significance as well as the ideals of the life of the town. It offered real education and fresh inspiration both to those who played and those who watched, and it pointed out the problems in which all are interested and gave a vivid conception of their historical origin and their meaning.

JOTTINGS

BUDGET EXHIBIT FOR CINCINNATI

Following the example of New York Cincinnati plans to have a municipal budget exhibit during the first two weeks in October. It is to be held under the direction of the Bureau of Municipal Research. Several thousand dollars have already been pledged to defray the expense, and the largest available vacant floor space in the business section has been secured for the exposition. Dr. L. D. Upson of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research is organizing and directing the enterprise.

City departments, the university, the public schools, the county, the public library, and several civic associations working in co-operation with the city, will be invited to take part. Charts and models will show for what the public are being used.

Cross sections of streets will be presented to show the effect of bad street foundations. Infant milk stations in actual operation, leaking water faucets with a statement of the annual cost of water waste to the taxpayers and condemned weights and measures are other features planned. So far as possible, models of proposed public improvements with statements of purposes, costs, and possible alternatives, will be placed on view to the end of securing intelligent public understanding and discussion of the projects.

Noontime meetings will be held at which outside officials will be invited to discuss municipal improvements in their own cities. Departmental heads will be asked to explain the budgetary increases requested for the ensuing year.

TOWN PLANNING ACTS IN CANADA

The Halifax Civic Improvement League with the aid of citizens, other associations, and the press succeeded in securing the enactment by the provincial legislature of Nova Scotia of a town planning law based upon the British act and of a law providing for the planting and care of shade trees on the city streets. The street tree act was modelled upon the New Jersey law which has become well known.

The town planning act is very similar to one passed at almost the same time by the Legislative Assembly of New Brunswick. Both provide for town planning schemes with

the general object of making suitable provision for traffic, proper sanitary conditions, amenity and convenience in connection with the laying out of streets and the use of land and of any neighboring land for building or other purposes.

The city or town council with the approval, in the case of New Brunswick, of the lieutenant-governor-in-council, can prepare a town planning scheme with reference to any land within or in the neighborhood of the area over which it has municipal control.

The town planning scheme may be prepared with respect to any land which is in the course of development or is likely to be used for building purposes and the decision of the council of any city or town or municipality as to whether the land is likely to be used for building purposes or not, shall be final.

The expression "land likely to be used for building purposes" includes any land likely to be used to provide open spaces, roads, streets, parks, pleasure or recreation grounds. Land that is already built upon or land that is not likely to be used for building purposes may be included in any town planning scheme and the council of the city, town or municipality may provide for the demolition or alteration of any buildings so far as may be necessary for carrying the scheme into effect.

The acts in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia also provide for town planning schemes where the land included is in the area of more than one local authority. In Nova Scotia co-operation between the municipalities and local real estate and building companies is made possible. The councils of the various cities and towns in Nova Scotia and the provincial government in New Brunswick may make rules regulating generally the procedure to be adopted with respect to applications for authority to prepare or adopt a town planning scheme, with regard to the submission of plans and estimates, the publication of notices and the procedure before and after the approval of the scheme.

A DIRECTORY OF CITY WELFARE

A guide to the aids and opportunities for promoting city welfare has been published by the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. In a pamphlet of seventy-five pages Edward L. Burchard lists the public sources of aid for civic advance; the exhibitions of child welfare, city planning, housing, health, safety appliances and industry; lecturers who are available for service in the Middle West; motion films and slides which may be utilized for welfare propaganda; the more important civic associations in various cities; and a short selected list of books on civics.

The pamphlet gives in brief compass the material available and its nature, where to apply for it, and to whom to turn for special information on a wide range of topics relating to city welfare.



Ore-washing plant, Coleraine, Minn.

INDUSTRY

SAFETY IN A CONCENTRATION PLANT¹

DON D. LESCOHIER

MINNESOTA BUREAU OF LABOR

One hundred and twelve miles northwest of Duluth stands the city of Grand Rapids, Minn. Nine miles east of Grand Rapids is Coleraine, a little city founded in 1905, and one and a half miles from Coleraine, surrounded by the wilderness, stands one of the largest industrial plants in Minnesota, the ore-washing or concentrating plant of the Oliver Iron Mining Company, which handled nearly 3,000,000 tons of crude ore and produced nearly 2,000,000 tons of merchantable ore in the navigation season of 1911. The purpose of this plant is to concentrate a great deal of iron ore found in that section which in its native state contains too much sand to be merchantable. This is done by agitating the crude

ore on moving tables and allowing running water to pass over it and through it.

The building is 240 feet long, 134 feet wide and 125 feet high, and the ore is brought into it by 70 ton, standard gauge engines, each drawing 6 steel cars of 40 tons capacity, at a height of 100 feet above the ground. Four such trains can come into the building at the same time, and so strongly is it constructed that this weight of more than 1,000 tons moving through the building at a height of 100 feet does not jar the structure.

The ore is dumped from the cars into bins from which it passes into the five "units," or sieves, each with an annual capacity of 400,000 tons of concentrates, and thence on to the rock picking belts and "shaker tables."

The most striking safety devices in this

¹In the September 7 issue of THE SURVEY, Mr. Lescohier set forth the accident prevention problem of the iron ore mines of Minnesota.



A portion of the concentrating plant of the Oliver Iron Mining Co., showing platforms with hand-rails and toe-boards over table room. Pulleys and belts are completely fenced off and little stairs and platforms lead down from the main platforms giving oilers and machinists safe access to all transmission apparatus.



Steel ladder in the Trout Lake Power Plant rising to top of boilers, with hand-rails around top of boiler setting.

"museum of safety devices" are the platforms constructed to get from point to point in the plant, and the railings and toe boards which make them safe. More than 6 miles of $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch pipe is used in railings; more than 2 miles² of 8 inch timbers, 2 inches thick, for toe-boards, and many thousands of 2 inch plank for platform floorings.

Every section of the building shows absolutely perfect construction in this respect and the stairways are not only railed and toe-boarded but have the backs of the treads covered to prevent objects falling through to the floors below. The same principles are applied on the out-of-door appurtenances of the plant as well as the in-door, and the viaduct over which the trains run when bringing ore into the plant, the water tank, and the shipping bin platforms are all protected in the same manner. In short every place from which a man might fall is protected by a railing, every place through which a man might fall is protected by a grating, and every place from which any object might fall is protected by a toe-board.

Two particular types of railing guards were especially ingenious. A railroad track runs along close to a row of steel columns, and if a man were standing behind one of these columns he might easily step out upon the track and be run over, especially if the plant was running so that it was difficult to hear

the train. To prevent such accidents the company has run a piece of iron pipe obliquely from that edge of each column which is nearest to the track to the railing running along the opposite side of the columns. In this way the men are prevented from getting into the corners.

The other device prevents men from striking their heads on the underside of floors while ascending winding stairs. It is a similar angling bar which compels them to pass to the center of the stairs and from underneath the floor.

The power plant at Trout Lake, which furnishes the power that runs the concentrating plant, illustrates another important use of railings and toe-boards—and a use that is of much significance to manufacturing and power using industries generally. Workmen in all sorts of establishments must frequently go to the tops of the boilers and the common practice is to use movable ladders for this purpose. Many accidents naturally occur for there is hardly an industrial appliance more treacherous than the ladder—particularly the flimsy or poorly constructed ladder. In the Trout Lake boiler house, and the other boiler houses of the company as well, there is a solid steel stairs leading to the top of the boiler setting and a railing around the top. Toe-boards are also being installed though they had not been placed in the Trout Lake plant at the time of our visit.

The same principles of protection are used on all overhead constructions of every character, including overhead platforms, runways or walks in all buildings, stockpile, rockpile and coal trestles and bridges and viaducts. Wherever possible, access to such overhead platforms, walks or trestles, whether indoor or outdoors, is by stairways, and these stairways are uniformly protected by steel railings and toe-boards. A cleverly devised stairway in the shops of the Duluth, Missabe and Northern Railway (an allied corporation under the same safety officers) shows how completely this principle of avoiding ladders is sought to be realized. At a certain point where it was necessary to have access to a line shaft, the limitations of space prevented the construction of an ordinary stairway, and a winding stair rising perpendicularly was constructed by the workmen in the shop.

Three rules relative to overhead constructions cannot be too highly commended to

¹32,300 feet.
²12,400 feet.

employers in general. "Under no circumstances must loose boards be allowed to remain overhead in buildings, on trestles, on stagings or in shaft houses." "All broken boards or planks on stairways, platforms, trestles, floors or walks must be immediately replaced." "Wherever a foot walk, wagon road or railroad passes under a trestle or bridge, the trestle or bridge must be boarded up tight so that nothing can fall through, and if necessary, wings must be provided to prevent material falling off the trestle or bridge."

The protection of the machinery in the power houses, concentrating plant, machine shops, pumping stations and railroad shops of the company, is fully on a par with their protection of overhead constructions. In spite of close, even eager, inspection we were able to make but six suggestions for improvement in the entire course of our investigation and three of those pertained to matters which the company had already taken up and for which they were preparing guards.

It is neither necessary nor possible to describe all these devices in detail, but before calling attention to a few special ones of particular interest, it is worth while to consider the company's general rules of safety with regard to mechanical operations. All gears must be covered with solid steel covers, securely fastened. These must either be easily removable or equipped with doors to give access for repairs or cleaning. All belts and other parts which it is not necessary to cover with opaque guards must be protected with a wide mesh screen, made of a heavy wire, reinforced by $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch angle iron. All belts running near or through the floor are guarded to a height of at least 5 feet above the floor, and all belts running horizontally are guarded on their under side. All collars on line shafts must be of solid steel and set screws cannot project beyond the collars. Hollow set screws are used in most cases and all others are covered. "All emery wheels must be of the safety type, fitted with safety collars, and guarded by steel hoods. For special work in shops, where necessity requires, a slow speed emery wheel may be installed and guards dispensed with, but it is understood that safety collars shall be used on all emery wheels." "All wood jointers must be equipped with cylindrical heads." "Both wheels of all band saws must be guarded." "All water gauge glasses seven



Headframe at No. 4 shaft, Genoa, Oliver Iron Mining Co., showing stairway giving access to landing platform and head sheave.

feet or less from the floor must be properly protected." "All stationary engines must be guarded all around, preferably with a pipe railing, protecting the engine, rod, fly wheel and belt." "All fly wheel pits and drum pits must be guarded and fitted with toe-boards." "Fuse blocks on switchboards carrying over 250 volts should be enclosed and danger sign placed on all switchboards." "All turn sheaves and idler sheaves, 7 feet or less from the ground, must be guarded." All saws and other operating parts must be protected as fully as possible, and high speed engines equipped with automatic stops wherever possible.

A special feature on all the machines in the Hibbing shops is a self-locking belt shifter which was invented in the shop. The action of a spring on the clutch throws a lug into notches on a quadrant and prevents the shifter from being moved without definite purpose on the part of the operator. The shifter is handy for the workman, prevents the belt from unexpected shifting from one pulley to another, and is near at hand in an emergency.

Saw guarding has been given a great deal



Photograph of an Oliver Mining Co. machine shop in 1909, before the beginning of the safety campaign, showing unguarded belts, a loose rope hanging near a moving shaft, and a general absence of safety devices at the "danger points."

of attention and it would be difficult to surpass some of the results that have been attained. The general principle followed in devising guards is to entirely cover every moving part except the portion of the saw actually in use, and cover that, if possible, when not being used. Band saw wheels are entirely covered and the blade of the saw except where exposed for cutting.

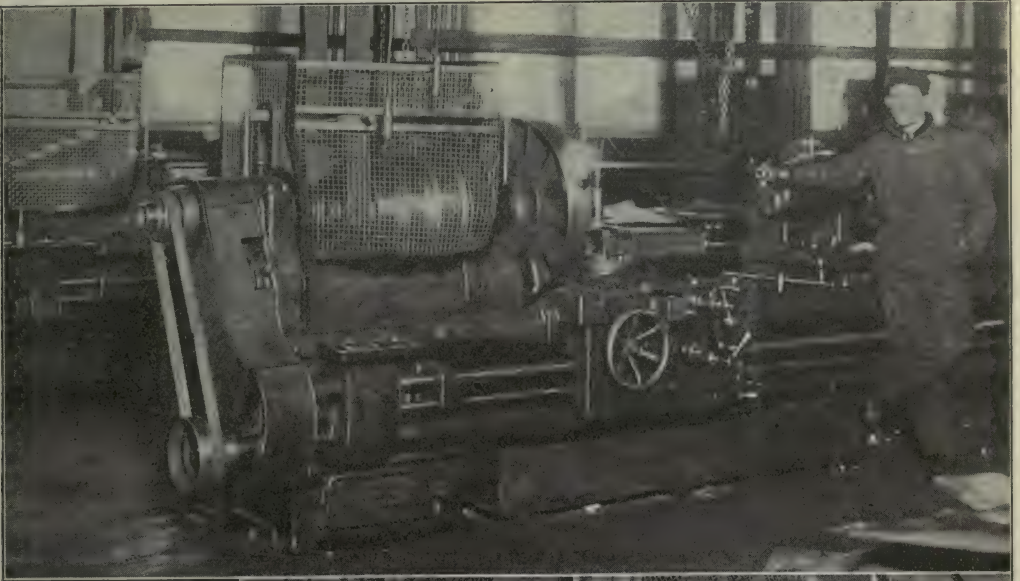
The company's emery wheel guards are the best we have ever seen. A safety wheel, with a safety collar, is enclosed in a case made of $\frac{1}{4}$ inch steel, reinforced by a bar of steel on the inside 1 inch thick and 4 inches wide, while a plate glass eye shield is attached to the front of the guard protect the operator's eyes.

One more matter relative to the safeguards of this company deserves the attention of manufacturers. It is their methods of guarding the machinery in their power plants. They build wire mesh fences between the workman and all moving parts, providing safe means of access for oilers to the various parts of

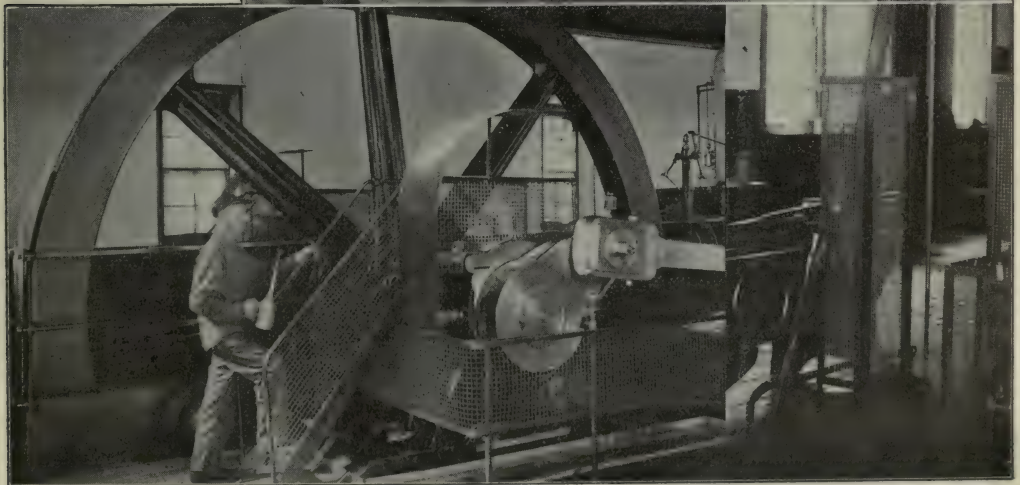
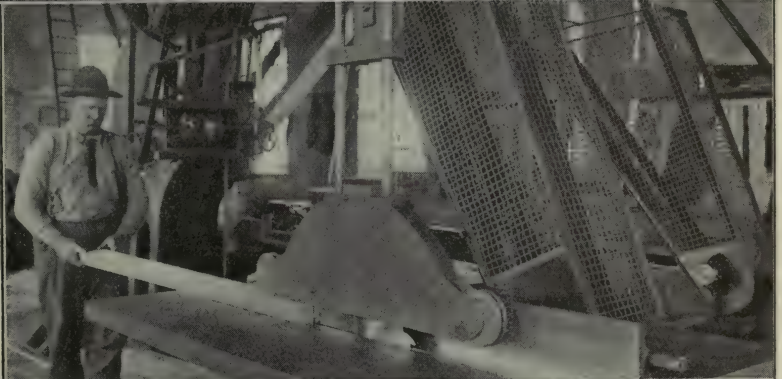
the machinery. This cannot be too highly commended, and the low, scanty railing so common about fly wheels should be condemned not only as unsafe but as a criminal delusion, giving a sense of safety where there is none.

Safety signs are placed at all danger points and when men are temporarily working overhead in the shops, warnings "Lookout! Men Overhead" are placed directly beneath them to prevent workmen from being injured by falling materials. Much attention is also given to keeping all tools, such as cold chisels, cold sets, fullers, hammers, sledges, etc., properly dressed, and the use of hammers or other tools with "mushroomed heads" is absolutely forbidden. Care was taken by our party to see whether or not this rule was enforced and the tools in the various shops were found in a very satisfactory condition. It is apparently not impossible for employers who conscientiously endeavor to do so to enforce such safety rules.

Another important safety measure, the pro-



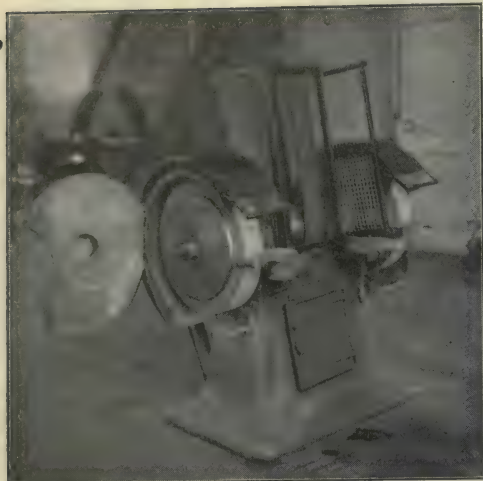
Top — Machine Shop, Oliver Iron Mining Co., at present day. In contrast to picture on opposite side, note mesh screen guard over cone pulleys, with the belt shifter projecting through the screen, thus preventing machinist from shifting belt with his hands; note also the solid steel covers over change gears at left end of machine.



Middle—Carpenter Shop; note guard around belt pulleys and safety appliances over rip saw.

Lower Left—Central Compressor Plant; note safety guards in front of flywheel; also oiling platform.

How belts are guarded at Hibbing headquarters, O. I. Mining Co.



Tool grinders in the Canisteo shop. The picture shows the guards open.

viding of sufficient light, has also been given effective attention. Whitewashed walls and large windows by day, and arc lights by night make it possible for workmen in all parts of the shops to have plenty of light. The writer has been in manufacturing establishments where men were required to work with hammers and other tools in places so dark that it was impossible to see the nails they were driving, and at emery wheels in basements where the only light was given by flickering gas lights so insufficient that the workmen frequently had to feel for their materials. Under such circumstances accidents are inevitable and there ought to be little difficulty in locating the blame for them.

22 YEARS AS MILL SURGEON

John F. Culp, of Harrisburg, recently retired as surgeon of the Pennsylvania Steel Company after twenty-two years' experience. Some of his conclusions and observations were embodied in an article in the *Medical Record* which is now available in reprint form. In a general way, the policy of the company has been to deal directly with the injured employes or their families without the intervention of attorneys or other third parties. Summing up his experiences in 20,000 recorded cases, Dr. Culp says:

"During the twenty-two years that the writer has been the surgeon of this corporation there have been twenty thousand recorded cases of accidents. When we consider the hazardous nature of the work and the large number of workmen, this number of accidents, many of which were trivial, is rather under than over the average. From these twenty

thousand accidents only eight suits for damages against the company have resulted, six for personal injuries and two brought by widows on account of the death of their husbands. These cases resulted, not because the company stood on its legal rights, but because the dependents had visions of large damages to be recovered, and in some instances could not be persuaded to compromise even by their counsel. That this company permits itself to be sued only where all other efforts fail is shown by the results of the cases. Of these eight cases, five were tried in the county courts, and in each case a non-suit was given the company. One of the cases was settled out of court, one withdrawn, and one, brought by a foolish, irresponsible boy, is still pending. This is a record probably unequalled by any other large corporation in this country, and shows what can be accomplished by a policy of fair treatment such as has already been outlined. These results have been achieved without the aid of either a claim agent or a legal department, and while the surgeon is always at liberty to consult a legal adviser, such a recourse has been comparatively seldom necessary. While definite figures are not available, it is safe to say that not more than five thousand dollars have been spent for legal services in connection with these twenty thousand accidents that have occurred during the past twenty-two years. The money went where it did the most good; that is, to the injured and their families.

"Absence of litigation, however desirable, is not the only good to be derived from the carrying out of such a policy. The employer says in effect to the employee: 'I recognize the fact that you are helping me to create wealth, and if adversity comes to you in the shape of an accident it is only fair that some of this wealth that your hands helped me to create should be yours. I will care for you and yours.' The law may not compel this, but whether it does or not it is right and just. Such a spirit of fair and generous dealing cannot but have a far-reaching and lasting effect on the employee. It makes him a better and more loyal workman and is conducive to pleasanter and more harmonious relations between him and his employer. The value of such harmonious relations between master and servant is difficult to estimate in dollars and cents, and in these days of industrial unrest, when capital is preparing to capitulate to labor on the best terms obtainable, the corporation that can stand forth with such a record over a long period of years must perforce have a great advantage.

"While this policy of treatment to the injured workmen and their dependents, as above outlined, is more nearly ideal than any other method, yet it is not without its shortcomings. Its advantages are: That it deals with each case individually, and, while there are certain fundamental principles observed, each case is decided on its merits. It makes the indi-

vidual needs paramount, loyalty and length of service, while considered, being secondary. It makes the attending surgeon, who comes at once into intimate personal relations with the injured, the general agent of the corporation. It eliminates the claim agent and the paid attorney, or, rather, it makes of the attending physician all these and a family counselor as well.

"The disadvantages are: Loyalty and long service cannot amount to so much in time of accident as the industrial necessities. The man who has been frugal and saving gets less in proportion than the man who has been improvident and careless in his living. The needs of the latter are greater because he has saved little or nothing, and it would seem, therefore, that the saving, frugal man was in a measure taxed to help out his unfortunate but less deserving brother. The second disadvantage of this policy consists in making the surgeon not only the healer of the wounds, physical and mental, but also the claim agent and legal counsel as well. It makes so much depend on the tact and temperament of the surgeon. Medical schools can and do teach medicine and surgery, but rare tact born of humane feelings can only be gotten in the great school of life, and if the physician does not have the proper temperament to begin with it can never be acquired.

"In conclusion, the writer not only hopes but predicts that the principles of humanity and justice which have been applied in the treatment accorded to its employees by this one Pennsylvania corporation will be incorporated into a law which will do much to lighten the burden of the industrial workers in time of accidents."

MEN VS. BINDING TWINE

ISABEL C. BARROWS

When an institution has been subjected to the fiery test of deserved criticism and emerges purified, it should have credit for that fact. The state prison of Kansas seems to have come forth from the ashes, like the fabled Phoenix, with renewed youth, judging from the seventeenth biennial report. It is not common to have such reports consider "the man" in the penitentiary; as a rule he is but a cog in the machinery, and no more. Here the convict is made to appear of more importance than the binding twine! The managers say: "It is not a question of how cheaply, but how well, a penitentiary can be managed. The first consideration should be to restore those confined in the institution to moral health and make them as far as possible self-supporting and self-respecting members of society." There is nothing new in this excellent doctrine, but Kansas seems only now to be adopting it. For many years she has had a parole law, and the results at last are satisfactory. The standard set before the men released under this law is high. Following are the rules:

1. The prisoner shall proceed at once to his place of employment and report to his employer.

2. Upon reporting to his employer he shall immediately make out a written report and send it by mail to the warden, announcing his arrival at his destination, and this written report must be indorsed by his employer.

3. He must not change employment, nor leave employment, unless by order of or upon permission from the warden first obtained in writing.

4. He must make a written report to the warden on the first day of each month for the month previous. If the prisoner has been idle during the month he must state the reason. He must also give any other information that will throw light upon his conduct and success during the month. These monthly reports must be indorsed by his employer.

5. He must attend church at least once each Sunday.

6. He must spend his evenings at home.

7. He must abstain from the use of intoxicating liquor in any form. He must avoid all evil association and improper places of amusement, including pool halls and other places not frequented by the best citizens.

8. He must respect and obey the laws cheerfully, and conduct himself as a good citizen, keeping his conduct at all times consistent with that of the best and most respected citizens of his community. He will live with or near his mother or wife and devote his time and earnings to her support as needed.

9. In the event of sickness or the loss of his position through any misfortune whatever, he must immediately report the fact in writing to the warden, or have this report made for him.

10. A violation of any of the above rules forfeits the parole contract on the part of the party paroled and renders him liable to be returned at once to the penitentiary to serve out the maximum sentence.

The warden, J. K. Coddington, had been acting in that capacity a year only, but he seems to have left no stone unturned that would better the health and morals of the men. Cleanliness has been introduced in places where it was sadly needed, and the care of the insane and the tuberculous has been improved. There are many of both classes, one in every five in the prison population having tuberculosis, and one in every fifteen being insane. Outdoor exercise has been introduced for half an hour daily for those who work in shops and factories, and two hours on Saturday afternoon for those who work in the great coal mine which belongs to the prison.

All restraint is removed, and during the thirty minutes they are allowed to do as they please, being required only to behave like gentlemen. They play baseball, pitch horseshoes, play basket-ball, and take such other exercise as suits their needs. The men visit among themselves, the officers mingle with them, often umpiring their games, and enjoy with the prisoners the half-hour's respite from discipline and work. At the close of the period the men are formed in their divisions, and, in charge of an officer, march in silence to their work.

The results of this simple expedient, which one would think ordinary common sense would have installed long ago, are thus described:

The results of a year's trial have been very gratifying. Not to exceed a half dozen infractions of the rules have occurred on the playgrounds, and almost universally the violations were by the youngest boys in the prison, and were of minor importance. These violators were deprived of the privileges of the yard for a long period of time. The men have almost universally increased in weight as well as chest expansion. They are clearer-eyed, walk with an elastic step, and the improvement in discipline has been marked. The usual prison vices have decreased fully 70 per cent, the tuberculosis tent has been torn down, and no new cases have been added during the past six months. Every department of the institution reports that the men have an increased capacity and a desire to do the work assigned them. The increase in the amount of work done, as well as the better quality, is perhaps the most noticeable result of the recreation period.

In addition to the open-air exercises given week days, Sunday morning at eight thirty, when the weather permits, the Bible classes, with 260 members, meet in the prison grove for thirty minutes' study of the lesson, the attendance at this service being voluntary. At the close of the Bible study all of the prisoners occupy the benches in the prison grove for a thirty minutes' chapel service. The men are then given an hour and a quarter of freedom in the inside prison yard. This helps them to endure the eighteen hours of lock-up from Sunday noon to six o'clock Monday morning.

I believe that the relaxation from the discipline, the liberty to talk and laugh and run, and let the natural man assert himself, is as beneficial to the prisoner's mental and nervous being as are the exercises to his physical requirements.

This prison has an interesting fund, started by a prisoner, Jerry Choteau,—who was so afraid that his own little girl might some time be in want that his sympathies extended to other little girls. The plan is to aid prisoners' families, and it is well organized within the prison. The chaplain, the warden's wife, and three prisoners are the officers. The fund has been nearly all given by the convicts themselves, and small sums are sent to the mothers, wives, and children of prisoners.

In material things,—mining coal, making twine, etc,—the prison seems to be doing well, but, after all, what is the outlook? When, by some happy chance, a good warden is selected he makes a bright spot in its history, and his star is then eclipsed.

It is no wonder that the warden says he is confronted with the difficulty of "the short and uncertain tenure of the warden's office." He has been trying, as best he could, to conduct the penitentiary "on the business principles that are used by the best managed corporations in the state."

Is it not surprising that Kansas, and many other states, should be so short-sighted as not to see that that sort of business management is impossible so long as politics has anything

to do with the tenure of office of a warden? Nothing so surprises Europeans as the insecurity of this office. Without the continuity that allows experience, progress in prison reform is out of the question. Kansas may be congratulated that today there are clean beds and walls, wholesome food, and various other things in the state prison—but who can prophesy what will be the next biennial report? The people of Kansas have this matter in their own hands.

THE HEALTH OF LAUNDRY WOMEN

MARY BROWN SUMNER

Volume XII of the federal report on women and child workers,¹ which is devoted to laundry workers, tells little that is conclusive or satisfying in the face of such a serious demand for information as the laundry workers' strike in New York last winter provoked. Its principal contribution is Dr. Rosa Liebig's study of the health of 539 laundry workers. This is based solely on the women's own statements, and the individual records which fill two-thirds of the volume tend to show only that in the case of many of the one hundred and thirty-five workers who complained of ill health from laundry work home conditions or previous work might be held partly responsible for their condition, and that, in the case of the four hundred and four who made no complaints, as one of them puts it, they were "stronger to begin with," that is, better equipped physically when they went into the work. Dr. Liebig's tables are based on these statements supplemented by no medical examination. They show a larger proportion of machine ironers, many of whom use the foot lever, complaining of ill health than of any other single operation; hand ironers follow, then mangle girls. Swollen or painful legs is the most common complaint; pains, rheumatic or muscular, sometimes from standing, sometimes from dampness, is the next, with about as frequent complaints of pelvic or uterine trouble. Abdominal troubles, nausea and headache, and lung troubles are other complaints and there are three cases reported of accidents to the hands from burns or crushing in the mangle.

The investigation of general laundry conditions covered establishments in four cities: New York, Chicago, Rockford, Ill., and Philadelphia. Three hundred and fifteen laundries employing 6,417 persons, 80 per cent of them women, were visited. These were of all types and it is not stated how many were hand laundries, how many old-fashioned imperfectly equipped wholesalers, and how many steam bundle and flat work laundries with their very complete mechanical equipment. This federal report would, however, it would seem, have been the occasion for a thorough study of the different working con-

¹Report on Condition of Woman and Child Wage-Earners in the United States. Nineteen volumes, Volume XII. Employment of women in laundries, work supervised by Charles H. Verrill; the report on health by Dr. Rosa Liebig.

ditions offered by these different groups. In Chicago alone was any study of hours or wages reported. The Chicago tables are based on wage and hour scales given by employers in nine laundries. These show a normal day of ten hours; hours on individual days ranging from eight to twelve and a half. Wages in these laundries is given as ranging from \$5.50 to \$13.00 a week, the latter wage being paid for such work as starching or overseeing.

The best feature of the report is an excellent account of the machine process and equipment in a model steam laundry.

LABOR IN MARYLAND CANNERIES

Bulletin ninety-six of the federal Department of Commerce and Labor contains a study of the working hours, earnings, and duration of employment of women in selected industries in California and Maryland, by Marie L. Obenauer. In the latter state the study of women is supplemented by a study of children in the same industries. In this Mary Compton collaborated with Miss Obenauer.

Ninety-one establishments in six groups of industries, employing 12,435 women, were studied, almost 3,000 women being interviewed. The most thorough study was given canneries, since the great variation in conditions in different factories made it impossible to generalize from a few. More than half of the establishments studied belonged to this industry, and employed more than half of the total number of women.

"The most impressive thing," says the report, "about the Maryland canneries visited was the large number of children at work, a great many of them, apparently, under twelve years of age, some of them unquestionably, and often admittedly, under eleven. The children appearing in the tables of the report in no way represent the proportion found in the canneries, as only such were scheduled as were helping mother or sister during the period covered by this investigation, viz: May 1, 1910, to April 30, 1911. The companies invariably denied employing these children, contending that they came as helpers to their mothers or sisters; nevertheless about one-fourth of the workers in the canneries visited were children under fourteen."

City canneries in Maryland showed an average season of about six months, and an average weekly work schedule of about 45.7 hours; country canneries showed a season of only eight weeks and a 50 hour average. In striking contrast with the average hours is the not infrequent long day with the occasional long week of work, a characteristic feature of the industry. Fifteen and one-half to seventeen and one-half hours are not infrequent and in some cases employees work night and day in different canneries. One canner gave the following explanation of these hours to the investigator. "These women," said he, "are different from others.

They can work fifteen or twenty hours a day and it won't hurt them. They'd be opposed to any restriction in working hours, for they are greedy and want to make all they can."

The report adds: "This view that 'these people are different,' that conditions ordinarily regarded as menacing do not hurt them, is as common in occurrence as it is singular in theory."

The earnings of these grasping workers putting in long hours average \$4.61 a week for time workers in the city, and \$6.06 in the country. For piece workers with two child helpers the highest average rate is \$4.84 a week in the city; in the country where there is less of the lower grades of unskilled work, the average with two helpers is \$13.30.

Because of the need of saving time in dealing with the local crops the country canneries showed in most cases better labor-saving equipment and often better sanitation. The abominable housing conditions in the country camps, however, more than made up for these better working conditions. Camp conditions are fully described in the report which has this comment to make: "No one has yet measured the train of influences of such living conditions upon the health of the workers—all moral and ethical questions aside. Had time permitted, it would have been entirely pertinent to follow up some of the cases of illness chargeable to cannery camp conditions in order to find out just how much such illness had cost the workers in medicine, doctor's bills, and unemployment. It would be pertinent and interesting because this 'free housing' is held out by canner and 'row boss' as a factor in compensation. While this supplemental search was not possible, the sinister influence of most of the living conditions as described admits of little doubt. It is the more to be regretted because the few camps properly drained and adequately equipped show the possibilities in the line of comfort and health, not only for the workers, but for the babies that might get a breath of country air and a respite from the oppressive heat of the city."

The California canneries differed from the Maryland in having longer average hours, not so large a proportion of child laborers, and somewhat better camp conditions. Bulletin ninety-six also contains Massachusetts Manufacturers and Employees' Health by William C. Hanson of the Massachusetts Board of Health and a translation of the full text of the new German Workman's Insurance Code which went into effect in the beginning of 1912.

JOTTINGS

HEALTH AND WOMEN'S UNIONS

A leaflet published by the Women's Trade Union League of Chicago describes the work and plans of its Health Committee, of which Mrs. Samuel Dauchy is chairman:

"Members of the unions which are affiliated with the Health Committee and which pay an annual tax per member into the Health Com-

mittee fund are entitled to the services of the staff of leading women physicians at their offices without further payment. Certificates must be secured for each visit from the secretary of their local union. The physicians have arranged convenient office hours in different parts of the city and visits are usually possible without interfering with the day's work.

"One of the most important results of making it easy for the girls to go to the physicians is the information thus secured. Data is taken as to the girl's trade, her hours, whether sitting or standing, her food, the circumstances that bear on her health, and then effort is made to do as promptly as possible the thing that needs to be done to bring her back to normal womanhood—not only that she may support herself and her family, as she often must, but that she may have a fighting chance for immortality in her children.

"One of our physicians suggested that the Health Committee support a bed at the Edward Sanitarium at Naperville, at an annual cost of five hundred dollars, where incipient cases of tuberculosis are taken. Since its establishment over a year ago the bed has been constantly occupied.

"Specialists are employed for eye, nose, and throat troubles. The eye-strain endured by the girls is enormous, and it is interesting to note that women are generally employed upon work requiring exceptionally keen vision."

Besides these specialists the committee has five general practitioners. The present membership of the committee is between six and seven hundred.

Figures are but feeble advocates in comparison with the stories of the individual cases told by the physicians themselves. One doctor tells of a girl who had lost the sight of one eye, but had come for treatment in time to save the other one; another, of inducing girls living on the first floor to sleep with their windows open by telling them of the simple plan of nailing an iron bar across the lower part of the sash, thus removing all fear of burglary. The bar could be had of a blacksmith for ten cents, and the rest was easy. The doctors say, too, that in a short time they have only to know the trade of the girl consulting them to predict almost certainly what her complaint will be. In one trade there is a certain sort of eye-strain, and from a certain machine in another trade has come every case of tuberculosis.

SWISS NATIONAL INSURANCE ACT

The Swiss National Insurance Act which has just gone into operation covers, unlike the British with which it forms an interesting contrast in many particulars, not only sick insurance, but insurance for industrial accidents. The industrial accident insurance section, which includes only dangerous trades and some occupational diseases, is, indeed, the only compulsory section of the act. This fund is contributed by employers. Payments

are ordinarily 70 or 80 per cent of wages, but in certain cases, where special treatment is needed, full wages are paid. In case of death the payments are medical and surgical expenses and 60 per cent of wages to dependents. There is no income limit, but fourteen francs is the maximum wage upon which payments are based.

The sickness benefit is voluntary as far as the authority of the federal government goes, each canton being left to decide whether its fund shall be compulsory or voluntary. State, canton, and the insured unite in making up the fund. The weekly sick benefit covers expenses of treatment and, in some cases, a money benefit of one franc a day. Maternity benefit runs for six weeks, but this section contains the excellent provision that a nursing mother's benefit can be extended. The sickness feature includes also accidents not industrial, toward which the individual contributes three-quarters, the state one-quarter. Employers do not, as in the British, contribute to the sick fund.

The insurance is effected through a Federal Insurance Institution, subsidized by the government and governed by a council representing the government, the workman and the employer. Provision is made for co-operation with existing sick funds, and a federal court is established to decide appeals from cantonal courts.

PERSONALS

David Blaustein—scholar, educator, philanthropist and social worker—passed away suddenly on August 26 while visiting the camp of the Educational Alliance at Cold Spring, N. Y.

An editorial appreciation of Dr. Blaustein's life appears on another page. Dr. Blaustein was born in Lida, Russia. He received his early education in Talmudic academies in his native land. At the age of seventeen he went to study in Germany in the cities of Koenigsberg and Memel. During 1886, while attending the teachers' seminary at Schwerin in Mecklenberg, Dr. Blaustein, though anxious to remain in Germany to complete his education, was ordered to leave.

Later in the year he came to Boston and there conducted a German and Hebrew school. Three years later he entered Harvard University, where he took highest honors in a special course in Semitics. While still a student at Harvard he founded philanthropic, educational and charitable institutions, which are still in existence.

Graduating from Harvard in 1892, Dr. Blaustein became the rabbi of the Congregation Sons of Israel and David, in Providence, R. I. While still a rabbi in Providence, he received an appointment as instructor in Semitics at Brown University.

Largely through the influence of the late Isidor Straus, of New York, Dr. Blaustein in 1898 was elected superintendent of the Educational Alliance, an institution for the education and Americanization of immigrants in New York city. He served the Educational Alliance as superintendent until 1907. During the nine years of his superintendency he widened its scope aiming to make it a help to the youth of the immigrant classes. In explanation of its aims Dr. Blaustein once said: "The alliance endeavors to give the immigrant what has been denied him in his native land. It speaks to the older generation of immigrants to consider the future, and addresses itself to the rising generation to have regard for the past. It reconciles the heart of the parent to the heart of the child. It stands as a mediator between the different classes of people of the neighborhood as well as the city at large. It brings about a better feeling between the different classes, and above all makes the foreigner understand American institutions and makes him realize that liberty and law go together; that the right of citizenship implies also duties, and that Americans are a nation governed by the people for the benefit of the people."

In October, 1907, Dr. Blaustein resigned from the Educational Alliance and became manager of the Houston street branch of the Jefferson Bank. About a year later Dr. Blaustein received a call as superintendent of the Chicago Hebrew Institute. He accepted the offer but finding that he met with opposition in matters of policy which he deemed fundamental, he resigned.

In 1910 Dr. Blaustein received the appointment as staff lecturer on Jewish, Slavic and Italian immigration at the New York School of Philanthropy. During the two years of his occupancy of this chair he devoted half the year to travel, studying conditions and opportunities for those living in the congested centers of the East, in the western states, on the Pacific coast and in the Gulf states. After his return from such a trip last February he lectured before various educational institutions, telling young men where opportunities awaited them away from the crowded cities on the eastern seaboard.

Dr. Blaustein intended in the fall of this year to establish information bureaus where individual inquirers could get reliable information as to where to settle outside of New York. He believed that people who have pioneer spirit, energy and small savings at their command should be educated where to go of their own accord without assistance from charity or philanthropy. Governors, state officials, chambers of commerce and boards of trade had promised to co-operate with him in this plan.

One year ago Dr. Blaustein married Miriam Umstadter, of Norfolk, Va., a student of the New York School of Philanthropy. Mrs. Blaustein before her marriage was engaged in settlement work.

Roy G. Harper, who for the past year and a half has been superintendent of the Associated Charities of Tampa, Fla., has been appointed to the same position in Erie, Pa. Mr. Harper is a graduate of the University of Missouri, of the St. Louis School of Philanthropy and of the Law College of Stetson University, Fla. In St. Louis he had experience in juvenile court work and this summer was enrolled as a worker in the Clinton district of the New York Charity Organization Society. He has been in newspaper work in Detroit, St. Louis, and other cities.

James L. Feiser, director of the truancy department of the Indianapolis Schools since 1906, has been appointed the general secretary of the Columbus Associated Charities. It is said that his has been one of the few truancy departments in the country which has viewed truancy as a family problem and not as a mere matter of police regulation. His principle has been case by case work all the way through. Therefore he naturally belonged to the charity organization field.

J. J. Weber, for over a year director of the Civic Association of Englewood, N. J., has just become secretary of the finance committee of the Charity Organization Society of New York. Mr. Weber succeeds J. Byron Deacon, now secretary of the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh.

Bessie Ray, who for the past four years has been connected with the Associated Charities of Atlanta, has been appointed secretary of the newly organized Associated Charities of Columbia, S. C.

COMMUNICATIONS

AN INSURANCE MONOPOLY

TO THE EDITOR:

My attention has been directed to an article which appeared in *THE SURVEY* for June 29, pages 476 and 477, entitled *Liability Fight Before Massachusetts Legislature*.

The writer of the article appears to favor giving a monopoly of the workmen's compensation insurance business to the Massachusetts Employes' Insurance Association. He states that the authors of the act "felt that much of the waste which now takes place could be eliminated by giving a practical monopoly to this association."

If the Massachusetts Employes' Insurance Association can do so well in eliminating waste and saving expense, why is not the present arrangement under which the association, the private mutual companies, and the private stock companies are put in competition with each other ideal? If the association can do all that is claimed for it, its competition will soon drive the private mutual companies and the private stock compa-

nies out of business. If it can eliminate waste and save expense, it can reduce its rates and underbid the private mutual companies and the private stock companies and get all the business. This being the case, why take the risk and go to the trouble of establishing a monopoly? Why not let the law of the survival of the fittest work untrammelled and take care of the matter?

If the argument is sound for establishing a monopoly in the workmen's compensation insurance business to eliminate waste and save expense, then it is equally sound as applied to other lines of business. Why not establish monopolies in the steel business, in the textile business, in the grocery business, in all lines of business, destroy competition, and eliminate the waste and save the expense? Why not establish socialism at once, do away with all competition, eliminate all waste, save all expense?

Why not? Because as human nature is constituted, the managers of any institution enjoying a monopoly will at once become slack and indifferent, having no longer the spur of competition, and waste and expense will grow beyond bounds. Besides, the spur of competition is needed to ensure the best possible service from every institution for the community. When managers have no competition, they will become lazy and indifferent, and the community will have to put up with poor service. Competition is the tool by which the community secures efficiency in its servants. All who sell to the community are servants of the community.

Agencies of government should be adapted to the imperfections of human nature. The imperfections of human nature necessitate the organization of society on a competitive basis instead of on a socialistic basis. Competition involves a lot of effort that in one sense is wasted, but the price that society has to pay to secure the best results as human nature is constituted. It is not possible to measure the relative advantage of a thing solely by the amount of expense it entails. Expense must often be incurred to secure efficiency and to induce men to put forth their best efforts. Neither a state monopoly in insurance nor state insurance itself will work because of the imperfections in human nature.

This is a phase of the matter which should be carefully considered by your readers.

FRANK E. LAW.

[Vice-President The Fidelity and Casualty Company of New York.]

THE CAUSES OF POVERTY

TO THE EDITOR:

In your issue of August 31, the cartoon which you printed on the first page was grossly incomplete, it seems to me, inasmuch as the one cause most overwhelmingly potent in breaking up human homes was not even mentioned. Should you have added a fourth

picture of the average bar-room with a crowd of men leaning up against the rail catching the schooners as they came over, you would then not have been guilty of publishing a partial truth or of trying to make the tail wag the dog.

S. S. KNIGHT.

St. Louis, Mo.

A NEW FRIEND FOR TONY

TO THE EDITOR:

Accept a word of appreciation for your issue of August 17. If this were the only number I received this year I should feel I had my money's worth. Tony and The Trend of Things will give any man food for thought for many weeks and months. Every article in it is worth careful reading. All your issues are good but this seems just a little better than usual.

LUTHER B. ADAMS.

Pittsburgh.

JOTTINGS

TAX REFORM IN MISSOURI

If adopted at the November election, two amendments proposed to the constitution of Missouri will revolutionize the taxation system in that state. The first makes a fundamental change in the basis of taxation; the second, a reform in the administration of the tax system by providing for a permanent tax commission similar to those already existing in almost a dozen other states.

Bonds issued by the state, by its municipalities, or other local units, are to be exempted from taxation at once. All other forms of personal property, tangible as well as intangible, are to be exempted in 1914, at which time poll taxes and merchants' and manufacturers' tax and business licenses of all kinds (except those imposed under the police rather than the taxing power) also are to be swept away. In the case of real property, a differentiation is made between land and improvements on land. So far as improvements are concerned, the tax is to be reduced gradually, being levied on three-fourths of the improvements assessed in 1914 and 1915, one-half in 1916 and 1917, one-fourth in 1918 and 1919, and thereafter improvements of all kinds are to be exempt. The real reduction would, however, be much less gradual because improvements to the extent of \$3,000 on each homestead are to be exempt, beginning in 1914. After the year 1919, accordingly, land would remain the sole object of taxation, except that public utility franchises are also to be taxed, and it is further provided that the amendment "shall not be construed as limiting or denying the power of the state to tax any form of franchise, privilege, or inheritance." The amendment provides that the assessment of property for taxation shall be at its actual value.

CIVIC SERVICE HOUSE

Hard by the famous little shop where once upon a time "Old Solomon Levy" displayed his bargains in "coats and everything else so neat," stands Boston's Civic Service House, a youngster among the historic landmarks of the North End, but a real part of the teeming life of the community.

Civic Service House has celebrated its tenth anniversary. Twenty-six of the house clubs held a reunion concert and dance, and some of Boston's leading social workers contributed to a speech-making program.

The settlement has been true to its name, for no class or club whose aim is not toward better civic conditions is given room in the house. All the activities are confined to adults, although every effort is made to find other locations for newly organized boys' and girls' clubs of recreational or social nature.

Prof. Frank Parsons early became interested in Civic Service House and, with the co-operation of Meyer Bloomfield, the director, Ralph Albertson, and Philip Davis, established the Civic Service House Vocation Office, the forerunner of the present Vocation Bureau at 6 Beacon street, of which Mr. Bloomfield is director.

The Music School Settlement is another offshoot of the work of Civic Service House. It was organized in November, 1910, when a remodelled tenement adjoining the settlement was obtained and a number of teachers and assistants volunteered their services. Prof. Walter F. Spaulding, head of the Department of Music at Harvard, was chosen director of the settlement, and Daniel Bloomfield became executive head. During the first week 111 children applied for instruction at the Music School Settlement, and the second year opened with a waiting list of over 200. Through the faculty the settlement has connections with practically every musical organization of importance about Boston. On hot summer evenings roof concerts are given by the pupils of the Music School Settlement. The roof of Civic Service House itself was early supplied with flower-boxes, a canvas top was erected, and benches, chairs, and lights provided. Every evening during the summer volunteer teachers give elementary instruction to the immigrants of the community.

The settlement has a summer camp, Camp Agassiz, near Gloucester, where there are three well equipped cottages.

IMMIGRATION COMMISSION FOR CALIFORNIA

Governor Hiram Johnson of California has recently appointed a State Immigration Commission for the purpose of working out a plan for the wide distribution of the immigrants who will, it is expected, flock to California after the opening of the Panama Canal. The commission is charged to report to the next legislature such laws dealing with the situation as may be thought best. It is composed of Robert Watchorn and Dana W. Bartlett of Los Angeles, Simon Lubin of

Sacramento and Robert Newton Lynch and Katherine Felton of San Francisco.

N. Y. TRAMP FARM SITE CHOSEN

Governor Dix of New York announced last week that 821 acres of land in Dutchess county, twenty miles south of Poughkeepsie, has been selected for the state farm colony for tramps. The purchase price is to be \$60,000. The legislature last year made a preliminary appropriation of \$100,000 to establish the new institution which will cost \$500,000. Practically all of the land selected is tillable, which Governor Dix says is a feature that prompted his approval of the site.

TUBERCULOSIS DAY

October 27 is announced by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis as the third national Tuberculosis Day. On this day the association asks 100,000 churches and religious societies—double last year's number—to give special attention to this disease, from which the census shows, the churches lost 52,000 communicants last year.

LENGTH OF PROBATION

Wherever states are discussing the probation system they are laying stress on the length of time that the person on probation should be under surveillance. In Belgium the period must be at least two years. In a paper read before the international congress *Des Patronages*, Dr. Rosenfeld, of Berlin, recommended that the period should not be less than two years nor more than five. The object of this long term is to enable the delinquent to repair, as far as possible, the injury he has inflicted by his crime. He says that the sense of moral obligation to make such reparation has so completely disappeared among criminals that they think imprisonment has wiped out all their wrong-doing, and they fiercely combat any suggestion to make good the injury they have done. He would have no one absolutely free from probation till he had seriously applied himself to making all the reparation in his power.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

RESULTS OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING OF THE NEGRO

Does industrial education of the Negro pay, in dollars and cents, in an enrichment of life, and in an increased capacity for social service? This question was at the bottom of a recent study made by Tuskegee Institute among its former students. In his collection of facts, Frank P. Chisholm, financial secretary and instructor in mathematics, had an eye to the benefit both to the individual and to society at large. The inquiry embraced the industrial careers of 746 individuals taken at random—417 graduates and 329 former students. Mr. Chisholm writes thus of the conclusions to be drawn:

The following questions, based on the facts in hand, lead to some striking and impressive deductions:

1. Of how much financial benefit is the industrial training at Tuskegee to the individuals trained?
2. How much return does the public get for the money which it has expended in the training of these persons?
3. Of what economic benefit has their training been to the South?

The great majority of graduates and former students were adults when they entered the institution. They had, as a rule, an earning capacity of from \$5 to \$10 per month and of from 50 to 75 cents per day. After three years' training, this was increased from \$1.50 to \$3.00 per day, with a rise as experience was gained, which means that there was an increased demand for their trained services. Further, it is seen that a very large percentage of the men and women earn money by doing more than one thing. For example, some are engaged in both teaching and farming. Others have accumulated profit-paying property, which is but another way of increasing their earning capacity through an increased income. The high efficiency of these combination workers is due to the fact that they go directly to the agricultural districts of the South, where the majority of the Negroes live. Here, by combining agriculture with teaching, they not only increase their own income, but are direct and potent factors in the industrial advancement of the community.

Since the founding of Tuskegee, an average of two years of training has been given to approximately 9,000 persons, whose average earnings have been \$700 per year. The study shows, says

Mr. Chisholm, that the average length of time these 9,000 students have been out is fourteen years, during which time their estimated earnings have been \$88,200,000. If these 9,000 individuals had not received an industrial training, they would have earned during the fourteen years only \$12,600,000. That is, by receiving an industrial training, they have been able to earn \$75,600,000 more than they would have earned had they not received this training.

It is declared that one rarely finds a Tuskegee man who does not have a bank account, own some property, and who is not buying a home. In many communities, Tuskegee men are listed among the largest tax payers. The investigator found it difficult to obtain data necessary for determining the exact amount of property holdings of the 746 persons under study, but reports from 242 showed an average holding of \$4,000 worth of property. Mr. Chisholm says:

It is likely, of course, that the real average for all the persons who have benefited by the teachings of Tuskegee is lower. The average property holding, however, will hardly fall below \$1,700. As property holdings go in the South, this is not bad. In fact it is considerably above the average among Negroes. It is seen, therefore, that the property holdings of the 9,000 persons who have attended Tuskegee aggregate \$15,000,000.

WHAT SOCIETY GETS FROM IT

The relationship between what the public has expended on the training of students at Tuskegee Institute and what the public has received in return for such expenditure is also considered. It is estimated that the total cost of the industrial training of 9,000 students has been approximately \$1,467,000. Here is the reasoning to show whether society has benefited:

Before this money was expended, the earning capacity of each of these students was about \$100 per year. Reckoning their ability as capital and the wages which they could command as interest upon this capital, this would make the ability of each student, on a

6 per cent basis, worth \$1,666.66, and the ability of the 9,000 about \$15,000,000. After these students had received their industrial training, they were able, on an average, to command as wages \$700 per year. Reckoning this as interest upon the value of their ability we have the ability of each of them on a 6 per cent basis in round numbers to be about \$11,700,000, and the value of their total ability to be \$105,300,000. That is, by means of the \$1,467,000 which the public expended in the training of these students, the value of their ability to the country has increased \$90,300,000. The country, therefore, has received a return of 600 per cent on the capital which has been invested in the training of these 9,000 students.

The argument to show what benefit the South has received from the industrial training of these 9,000 individuals is as follows:

If we reckon the working people as so much capital available for its development, then, on the basis of the estimate made above, these 9,000 students without industrial training would have been economically worth about \$15,000,000 to the South; but by means of industrial training their economic value has been increased \$90,300,000.

This statement becomes more significant when it is remembered that Tuskegee is located in the heart of the South's Black Belt; that the great majority of persons trained at this institution are at work in the South; that they are raising the standard of farm life by improving the Negro farmer; that, as leaders, they are lifting the struggling black masses to higher planes of usefulness and Christian citizenship; that by their examples of thrift, industry, sobriety, obedience to law, and improved personal and family life, they have become agents of improved economic conditions.

The great difficulty of the South is to get trained, reliable workers to develop its vast resources. Experiments in imported labor have been tried, and they have failed. The labor of the Negro is available. Untrained, this labor is crude and has but small earning power. Trained, as seen from this study, its value is many times enhanced and the wealth of the country correspondingly increased.

Stirring as this story is of the increase in efficiency among a group of ambitious colored youths, there are students of the southern situation who point out that the industrial schools of the South touch but a small part of the Negro population. In 1909, in Alabama, Tuskegee's own state, only 29.18 per cent of the Negro school population was in regular attendance at public schools; while the average length of

the year's term was 98 days. In 1910, the term for the Negro schools was reduced to 90 days.¹ It must be remembered that only an insignificant number of the colored children within the state can secure sufficient education to knock at Tuskegee's door. "The illusion of the near," of the wonderful philanthropy which the North supports, must not blind the nation to the fact that the great majority of the colored children of the South have no education worthy the name, and that without good primary schools they cannot but remain crude, unskilled, poorly paid laborers.

LICENSING DANCE HALLS IN DENVER

Apparently convinced that the attendance of unchaperoned minors at moving-picture shows, public dance halls and skating rinks is in some way related to juvenile crime, the council of the city and county of Denver, Col., last month passed an ordinance regulating these and other places of amusement and creating inspectors of public amusements to help carry the provisions of the law into effect. It is made unlawful to permit any person under eighteen, not accompanied by a parent or natural guardian, to attend public dances after ten o'clock in the evening; it is made unlawful for any such person, with or without a guardian, to attend any dance hall or ball where liquor may be had. Children under sixteen, unless accompanied by a guardian, cannot attend any moving-picture show or place of public amusement after 7 P. M.

Friends of the Juvenile Court in Denver are hopeful that the ordinance will be a material aid in protecting young people from the evils of unguided pleasure-hunting. Beginning October 1 a license must be secured from the Fire and Police Board before a public dance or ball can be held, or before a place can be hired in which to hold classes in dancing. The annual license fee ranges from \$6 to \$30, being graded according to the size of the hall. No license of course is to be issued until it is found that the hall complies with all the or-

¹The Negro Common School, Atlanta University Bulletin, 1912.

dinances, health and fire regulations of the city, is properly ventilated and supplied with sufficient toilet conveniences and "is a safe and proper place for the purpose for which it is to be used." The ordinance makes it a duty of the chief of police or inspector of dance halls to cause

the place, hall or room where any dance or ball is held or given to be vacated whenever any provision of any ordinance with regard to public dances and public balls is being violated, or whenever any indecent act shall be committed, or when any disorder of a gross, violent or vulgar character shall take place therein.

Active duties are laid upon keepers and proprietors. All public halls must be closed by 12:30 A. M., provided, however, that

upon the application of a bona fide and responsible organization or society and upon an investigation and favorable report by one of the inspectors of amusements, the Fire and Police Board or the mayor may grant such organization or society a permit to continue a dance until 2 A. M.; no ticket shall be sold or accepted for admission after the hour of 12 o'clock midnight.

Every keeper or proprietor must keep a written record of the names and addresses of all persons under twenty-one, or apparently under twenty-one, who attend dances given by them or in their halls; they must record also the date of such attendance and name and address of the male escorts accompanying all girls under twenty-one. The inspector of amusements may require that all such persons be made to write their own names and addresses, the penalty for refusal to sign being non-admittance to the hall. The register of names is to be open to the inspector of amusements and to probation and public officers.

All these provisions apply equally to public roller skating rinks.

For the better enforcement of the ordinance and "for the protection of the youth of the city and county of Denver," the position of inspector of public amusements is created. The Fire and Police Board is to appoint two such officers, one man and one woman; the former must be a member of the regular police force. The salary of neither is to exceed \$125 a month, that of the man

received as member of the police force to be credited to the account of his salary as inspector of public amusements.

Any person, persons, society, club or corporation violating any provision of the ordinance may be fined upon conviction not less than \$10 nor more than \$300, or be confined in jail thirty days or less, or both. Any boy or girl under eighteen violating the law is to be dealt with by the Juvenile Court.

EDITORIAL GRIST

UNTO THE THIRD GENERATION

ELIZABETH S. KITE

Field Staff New Jersey Training School for
Backward and Feeble-Minded Children

The investigation of the family history of each of the 400 defectives sheltered in the Vineland Training School, Vineland, N. J., has revealed the lamentable state of ignorance which exists in the minds of even our more enlightened citizens in regard to the symptoms which are characteristic of feeble-mindedness. Society seems unaware that such degenerates should not be allowed to marry, or that where illegitimate unions have been formed the simple performance of the marriage rite before legally authorized functionaries does not in the least protect society from the venom of the race.

A striking instance of this lack of public recognition of defectives came to the notice of the institution in connection with a little girl of seven who was brought to us some fifteen years back.

On investigation it was learned that the child had been born in an almshouse. Her mother, pretty, attractive, had formed an attachment for a man in the neighborhood and the rumor was that they were engaged. Nothing came of it, however, for she was poor and was put to service with a family in a distant city. No one thought of her as feeble-minded; no one thought much about her at all, for her family had sunk so far as scarcely to emerge above the social level. The

sad story of her, mother which I shall tell—the grandmother of the girl at Vine-land—had been forgotten, and the busy world went on its way intent upon cares and interests of its own. But it was only a few months before she came back bringing with her the burden of approaching motherhood. Her mother, crushed under her own load of misery, was dying or dead, and the daughter went to the almshouse. Let no one suppose that this was tragic for her. Suffering comes only with intelligence; a sense of shame only with the power to grasp an ideal, and to realize that we have fallen below it. In her case, both conditions were wanting. Like an irrational creature she had followed a blind impulse, and as blindly accepted her fate, understanding nothing, learning nothing from her fall, which in her case was no fall at all.

Previous to these happenings, the respectable community in which they took place had been roused to indignation on learning that her father¹ had been holding criminal intercourse with one of his own daughters. He was a degenerate, and when he had been put in jail the public wrath was satisfied. No one thought of his wife, who, though she belonged to a good family, had lost all social recognition through her unfortunate marriage with this man of unknown ancestry. Feeble in health, weak in will, overworked, and above all broken-hearted, she had not proved the dominant factor in the union. All she could do was to transmit enough of her own gentle, refined nature to her defective children to make them a more dangerous social element than they could otherwise have been. So she sickened and died, and it was in an almshouse that the little grandchild was born with whom we must reckon in the generation now approaching maturity.

At this point the respectable community began to take an interest in the daughter, now a young mother. A

humane though misguided feeling led one of its members to remove the mother and her baby from the almshouse, taking them into her own home. The step at first seemed admirable and was applauded on every side. The young woman was perfectly honest, strong, willing, and trainable in household affairs. There was something about her large, brown, appealing eyes that went to one's heart, while her gentle and unobtrusive ways won the approval of her mistress and the interest of her friends. But this was only for a time. It was not long before a strange look came into her eyes; her manners changed; she was not steady at her post; even her little child ceased to hold her, and she would be off and away no one knew where. The mistress, now deeply interested in the welfare of her charge, sought by every means in her power to bring the young woman back to her former self, but in vain. Failing here, she next sought out the cause of the change and found it in the person of a low, degraded fellow, recognized in the community as half-witted as well as alcoholic, besides being subject to strange drunken fits. Still hoping to save the girl, she attempted further to interfere but received only insults in return. Feeling, rightly enough, that something ought to be done, she decided upon what seemed to her the only alternative, that of forcing the young people to marry. Both were willing to do this, since some one cared to bother with the arrangements which meant nothing to them. Lawyer and minister were promptly summoned and the pair duly recognized as man and wife before the law.

In a little cabin down the road, the already deserted wife brought her second baby into the world. Except for the constant care of her former mistress, mother and child must have perished, for the winter was hard and the husband did nothing towards their support.

But our good woman was not at the end of her resources; she had seen the couple married and she intended to see that the husband took care of his family. After infinite trouble and annoyance, she succeeded in getting the pair

¹ Further investigation showed this degenerate father to be one of a family of twenty brothers and sisters, many of whom had records similar to his. The completed history of this family has recently been put into book form by Dr. H. H. Goddard under the title *The Kallikak Family*.

engaged to work on the land of an unmarried farmer living some distance back in the country and away from any settlement. There it was hoped they would learn to tend to their own affairs and grow into respectability. It was on this farm that a second child was born to the couple, so that the family now numbered three.

But with all our good woman's foresight, with all her honest intentions, she could not have hit upon a more ill-advised scheme. The farmer in question, though himself not of normal intelligence, was good-looking and far superior in every way to the drunken imbecile to whom the girl had been married. More than this, he proved to be the man to whom report had said she had earlier been engaged. So it was not long before another child was to come to the farm, which the husband and the farmer each referred to the other and which both consequently refused to claim.

The situation had become for the third time tragic, and our good woman felt she must again intervene. She more than suspected the farmer's guilt, and was indignant at his attitude. Reflecting on the husband's character and finding that it had always been unfit, she determined to see the pair divorced, and the woman then married to the farmer, who would thus be obliged to undertake her support. The determination was put into execution, though not until the two children born of the first marriage had been placed in a home, the farmer stoutly refusing to provide for them. The mother, however, sought to keep her oldest child with her, though in this she was not successful. Very soon she brought the little illegitimate girl to the woman who had interfered so much in her life, explaining that there would be no peace in the home while the child remained.

It was a really wise move, the one which our good woman next made, that of applying to have the child received into the Vineland institution. It had begun to dawn upon her that the family was not normal, and that special training was needed. In this way the little seven-year-old found entrance to the sphere in which she rightly belonged.

But the mother's story was not yet at an end. Her union this time proved successful. She was satisfied with her husband and he apparently with her. Her defects in housekeeping and personal tidiness did not wear on his dulled intelligence, while he possessed capacity enough to run his farm and provide for his constantly increasing family. Today five strangely interesting, yet strikingly defective, children grace his home. The oldest girl is on the point of being put out to service.

One is appalled at the thought! Will some clean youth be attracted to her (for she is attractive, and only a trained eye could readily detect her deficiency) and so bring disaster upon himself and his home? Or will she sink to the lowest level of her kind, and add to the horror of degradation and crime with which the land abounds? Heaven forbid. Yet one of these fates surely awaits her, while society stands passively by. No one can be brought face to face with a fact so apparent without feeling that something must be done and done at once, if this girl and thousands of similarly defective girls are to be saved from themselves, and society saved from the evils they unwittingly engender.

This is indeed but an isolated case, yet in this girl's family alone, seven other deficient boys and girls are growing on to manhood and womanhood, each having the same tendencies, bearing the same taint; while from the families of her mother's deficient brothers and sisters other children of like grade are advancing swiftly on the selfsame road.

HOME-GOING ITALIANS

VICTOR VON BOROSINI

The present Italian emigration is mostly transoceanic, and has lost to a large extent its former seasonal character. The average proportion of men to women emigrants is 78.5 per cent to 11.5 per cent, the proportion of emigrant families being smallest from south Italy. Seventy-four per cent of the emigrants from northern Italy return to their native villages, while the South sees again only 41 per cent of those who leave. The proportion of returning women is

smaller than of men. Of the native Italians who return to Sicily, Campagna, Abruzzi, Latium, and Apulia, from 75 to 90 per cent come from the United States. As three-fourths of the men are between sixteen and forty-five years of age, their most productive period, the total loss Italy suffers by emigration is not very large.

The death rate among Italian emigrants is not known, but is probably, on account of bad working and housing conditions, higher than at home. Most Italians remain in the United States from two to five years, the northern Italians not staying as long as their southern compatriots, in all probability because as skilled and better educated laborers they immediately command higher wages in the New World, and work steadily, while the illiterate southerner works at low wages and is often unemployed during the winter.

Returning emigrants are in much improved economic circumstances, their average savings being from \$250 to \$1,000. This money is placed in postal savings or co-operative banks until it is used to buy land, cattle, and machinery, or for building. The increasing demand of the returning emigrant has raised land values, especially in the South, where land jobbers and large proprietors make immense profits by dividing estates and selling plots to the land-hungry crowd.

Emigrants returning from small American communities show more markedly than those from large cities the influence of decent surroundings in their standard of living. One lesson they all take home is the knowledge of how great a handicap is illiteracy in the struggle for existence. Hence, they favor strongly obligatory instruction for their children, and co-operate willingly to extend the system. With their wider experience their political interest increases, and frequently they try to introduce into public life methods of American politics—not a wholly desirable importation.

North Italians tend to become more tolerant toward other churches and more indifferent toward their own, while even five years in the United States fails to eradicate the superstitions of the south-

erner. The latter do, however, become not infrequently adherents of radical ideas, such as Socialism and Syndicalism, already current among the North Italians before emigration.

Criminal statistics reveal a curious phenomenon. As a consequence of better economic conditions crimes against property decrease, while those against persons and propriety increase, the men having adopted the dangerous habit of carrying pistols and drinking heavily.

One reason for these crimes is immorality caused by the long-continued separation of husbands and wives who part at a period when sexual instincts are strong. Frequently the husband, emigrating soon after marriage, leaves a robust, young, and pregnant wife in the care of parents or relatives. He does not lead a chaste life, but demands absolute faithfulness from her. But women in Italy have the same inborn tendencies as men—they are not satisfied with the regularly arriving money order. As a consequence illegitimate children, child murder and abortion are increasing alarmingly as are acts of vengeance committed by wronged husbands. While abroad men often acquire venereal diseases, and after their home coming they infect the whole family. The mother country is much concerned in the physical condition of returning emigrants. Statistics are incomplete, as many return on lines which do not report to the government, and besides only a small percentage comes under medical care on board. Sometimes appalling illnesses are neglected, because the men do not know that the Italian law makes special provisions for free treatment on board. Though some leave the ships' hospital improved, in 1909 over 1,500 were landed in a serious condition. Chronic tuberculosis and venereal diseases are acquired in the United States, while from Latin America emigrants bring trachoma and hookworm.

Each year the consuls send back a number of invalids who are no longer of use to the country, which exploited their labor power to the utmost. The most desperate of these cases are treated in the marine hospitals of Palermo, Naples, and Genoa. Their capacity is

not, however, sufficient for all cases and many patients are sent to their homes in out-of-the-way places, where there is great lack of physicians, hospitals, and general hygienic provisions, and where, in their ignorance, they become a dangerous source of infection to the whole community. Italy proposes to increase her hospital sanatorium service, and to teach therein the elements of hygiene and sanitation. She plans also to inaugurate an information service by which the authorities at home can be warned of the impending arrival of a diseased citizen and told of the proper steps to be taken for the protection of others.

THE TREND OF THINGS

CUSTOMER—

Merchant, merchant, tell to me
Where these goods are made for thee,
I don't know, but I'll go see.

MERCHANT—

Jobber, jobber, tell to me
Where these goods are made for thee,
I don't know, but I'll go see.

JOBBER—

Factory, factory, tell to me
Where these goods are made for thee,
I don't know, but I'll go see.

FACTORY—

Contractor, contractor, tell to me
Where these goods are made for thee,
I don't know, but I'll go see.

CONTRACTOR—

Homeworkers, homeworkers, tell to me
How these goods are made by thee,
By the children,—can't you see?

ELIZABETH WATSON.

These verses show in a nut-shell the shifted responsibility that makes home work flourish in the tenements of New York and other congested cities—show, to the minds of most social workers and investigators, the need of legislation, not to regulate but to abolish it.

* * *

The *Saturday Critic*, a Pittsburgh weekly, makes use of its covers to quote from the writers of the world showing that the problems of other places and other people are equally the problems of America and of Pittsburgh. The French dramatist Brieux in *Damaged Goods* makes what can readily be turned, in terms of America, into a plea for a federal bureau of health. In this plan the doctor is demonstrating to Loches, the legislator, three of his neglected social responsibilities—alco-

holism, tuberculosis, and disease. "Take tuberculosis," he says. "Everyone knows that the real remedy is to pay sufficient wages and have insanitary workmen's dwellings knocked down. But no one will do it, although the working class is the most useful we have as well as the worst rewarded. Instead workmen are recommended not to spit. Admirable, isn't it? Finally, disease. Why do you not concern yourself with that? You create offices of state for all sorts of things, why do you not one day set about creating an office of public health?"

* * *

A couple of years ago when the Illinois Manufacturers' Association was attacking the ten-hour law for women, the company which brought suit with the backing of the association contended in its brief that a woman employe could not earn a living unless she worked more than ten hours a day. The contention proved a boomerang, shocking people everywhere into realizing how low the standards of pay were in that industry. The incident was recalled by *La Follette's* in reviewing the last debates on the Children's Bureau bill. Senator Overman of North Carolina expressed the fear that such a bureau would be the means of publishing disagreeable and scandalous information similar to that contained in the recent report of the federal bureau of labor on conditions of work of women and children. "I want to say," said Senator Overman, "that some of the reports were so obscene that it would be indictable to send them through the mails, but that part was suppressed by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor at my instigation." To quote *La Follette's*:

Upon whose authority he thus censored a government report, Overman did not say.

But it quickly appeared that he was not alone in this; there are other self-constituted suppressors of "scandalous" information in government reports.

Gallinger said: "I recall the fact, if the senator will permit me, that under a former administration there was what I regarded as an unauthorized commission appointed, called the Homes Commission. The manuscript from that commission *chanced to drift into my hand*—I have forgotten just why—and I blue-pencilled two chapters in that report, which certainly ought not to have been put in the hands of any child in this country, although it dealt with the diseases of children. The rest of it was published, I believe."

It is unfortunate that Gallinger has "forgotten just why" that manuscript "chanced to drift" into his hand. It would surely be an interesting and illuminating bit of information for the public. It would also be interesting to know, as in the case of Overman, upon whose authority Gallinger "blue-pencilled two chapters" in that report, without protest or without interference.

Borah had an answer to Overman and Gallinger. He said:

"There may be things in those reports that senators ought not to read, and I hope they will not, if they ought not to read them. *But the fact remains that a vast amount of the facts were based*

upon real investigations and brought forth a number of things which were startling to the country. I do not know whether there are things in them that are untrue or not, but I know from investigations of my own, which have resulted since I took charge of this measure (the Children's Bureau bill), a great many of those things reported to be true are true.

"And if they are true, Mr. President, there is certainly nothing that we need to know more concerning than the condition, environment, and circumstances under which the children are growing up to manhood and womanhood."

Like the Illinois manufacturer's attack upon the ten-hour law for women, the assault of Overman and Gallinger upon the child labor report and the report of the Homes Commission, serve only to throw into a clearer light the conditions that called forth the reports.

However shocking were those chapters that were stricken out of the reports by Overman and Gallinger, they surely were no more shocking than the fact that such conditions exist in this country. Would the senators say that the bare account of a terrible evil is more scandalous than the evil itself? No one, not even a grown man, ought to read revolting literature, but no one, and especially a grown man, ought to hide his head ostrich-like from conditions that are revolting. An evil must be seen to be attacked.

The senators might find an answer to the La Follette query in a little book written by one of the foremost publicists of his generation—Charles A. Dana of the *New York Sun*, who in *The Making of a Newspaper* set a clean-cut standard of responsibility for those at the sources of information to bring out all the facts.

* * *

Texas has a Bohemian population of more than 50,000, Leroy Hodges tells us in the *Texas Magazine*.

These people "are engaged principally in agricultural pursuits, scattered through eighty of her counties. More than 60 per cent of them own their property, and over 50 per cent of that number have their holdings free of debt. The majority of these people entered Texas without sufficient money to purchase land at first, and have won their present prosperity by thrift and hard work.

"Together with the Germans, the Bohemian farmers have given Texas her great agricultural industries and have been largely responsible for her rapid development. . . .

"Socially, the Bohemians in these colonies are perhaps on a lower level than the Germans, but as farmers they exemplify the qualities of industry, intelligence and perseverance that have been commonly and properly associated with the German land owners. They are quick to utilize improvements in machinery and methods of agriculture, and their progress to the economic and social level of the native farmers is much more rapid than the advancement of the other Slav races in the Southwest."

It is not only Young Men's Christian Associations and organizations of social workers who recognize the need of social life and recreation on the farm. In the *Rural New Yorker* two farmers tell how they made playgrounds on their farms.

Says one, after describing with what enthusiasm his boys worked with him in building up his farm:

"One of the main reasons why my boys loved the farm life and home so well that they never wanted any of the dissipation that are demoralizing, and which the young people on the farm engage in because there is nothing that satisfies their natural love for play and recreation, was that I spent \$30 to build a playground where they could play baseball, tennis or croquet, and I played with them. I have stopped work right in haying time to play with the boys and then we all worked better for the change."

The other describes the mingled work and play of making the playground. Says he: "The writer has tried to give much of his own experience in trying to make the farm the best place in the world for two children, and he wants to say that making a playground not only for the children but for the whole family is not expensive on the farm, for there are all the farm tools at hand with which to do the work, the plow, harrow, and roller. You have some fairly level piece of land not too far from the house, perhaps 100 or 200 feet long and half as wide, that you can spare. When the early crops are in, the boy would like to fit it up for a playground. Because interested yourself and telling them how first to plow it nicely, harrow it finely, then with a shovel or garden rake fill the deepest hollows, and remove the stones on the surface, the boys will enjoy doing the work."

COMMUNICATIONS

THE PLEDGE FOR DRUNKARDS

TO THE EDITOR:

I think it will be of interest to the readers of your magazine to know of the wonderful success which has attended the actual operation in the English courts of justice of what is known as the "Pollard plan."

This method of enforcing a total abstinence pledge upon drunkards as an alternative to fine or imprisonment has now been in operation five years. After two years' working, the British parliament appointed a government departmental committee to enquire as to whether or not this method had met with the success which had been claimed for it. The answers of the witnesses were most gratifying.

Judge Wallace, K. C. Chairman of the London Sessions, said: "The condition of abstinence makes the whole difference to the man," while Cecil Chapman, London police magistrate, said: "I think the condition of absti-

nence for probationers a most valuable one," and when asked by the committee if he inserted the abstinence condition in the probation order, he replied: "Wherever drink is the cause of the offense, I always do."

A probation officer attached to another court in speaking highly of the good results said: "The worst case I have had was a young man charged with stealing a bicycle. Drink had been at the bottom of his failure all along. He was an outcast from his father's home. He was bound over by the magistrate not to enter a public house or to drink. He has completed his term now. He has a nice little sum in the bank and has a good situation. When I last saw him he was full of gratitude to the magistrate who had given him the opportunity, but he also said one of the things that helped him most was that he dared not go into a public house because he was afraid a policeman would see him.

Judge Wallace recently said: "I am convinced that there is a gradual diminution of crime throughout London, a most gratifying diminution of crime, which I attribute very largely to the new method adopted in dealing with our prisoners."

It is important to note with reference to Judge Wallace that in every probation order issued by him in a drink-caused case the words are inserted "that the offender shall abstain from intoxicating drink and also from frequenting public houses."

Magistrates and judges have come to recognize the necessity not only of restraining a probationer from drink, but also of restraining him from going to places where drink is sold. Professor Green has said:

"Once a man has broken the law and been arrested, society has not only the right, but a duty, and that is to do anything that may be necessary, to prevent the individual from again breaking the law," whilst John Stewart Mill in his essay on Liberty said: "As soon as any person's conduct affects prejudicially the interests of others, society has jurisdiction over it."

The probation officer of the Manchester police court (where 250 pledges were taken in one year), wrote me that she had met with great success as the result of this method. She speaks of one case of a married woman with one little girl. The mother had given way to drink and was sent to a reformatory for three years. On her return, she found another woman installed there with two children and learned that her little girl had been burned to death. The poor creature took refuge in drink again, and was locked up. Next morning she confided in the probation officer, who told the magistrate, and he put her under probation for twelve months. She took the pledge, kept it absolutely, got work in a laundry, and was kept from thinking of the past by the influence of the probation officer. The woman says that had she been sent to prison again she would have drunk herself to death as soon as possible.

Edward Smith, J. P., gave a supper re-

cently at the Temperance Hall, Dudley, to a large number of men under probation on pledge. He told the story of one man's rescue by means of the court pledge as follows:

"The man appeared in the dock in a terrible plight, shivering with cold, clad in two garments, an old coat and a pair of trousers. The charge was 'drunk and disorderly.' 'Gentlemen,' said the prisoner, in a pleading tone, 'give me the benefit of this new law. I have never had the chance.' After consultation the magistrates agreed to put him on probation. The chief of the police then produced the great recording book showing the debit account of this man. He had no less than seventy-two convictions. The magistrates further consulted.

"This act was never made for a man like this," urged one magistrate, while another replied:

"This court has tried seventy-two times to cure this man without success. Why not grant him plea and give him the benefit of the new act?"

"They agreed to do so, and the sequel is a splendid justification for the 'Pollard plan,' for this man got work, furnished a home, took his wife out of the workhouse, and has become a sober, God-fearing citizen."

These cases could be multiplied.

It is a great tribute to the American people that the beneficent reform which is having such far-reaching effects should have been initiated by an American police judge.

Judge Pollard has compelled the attention of criminologists and sociologists throughout the world by a method which after all is really so simple and so obvious, that one wonders why no other judicial authority had ever previously thought it worthy of attention.

I have only today received a letter from Dr. Otto Bauer of Germany in which he says that three German governments have now adopted the "Pollard plan." This is remarkable when one remembers that it is only six years ago since Judge Pollard gave his first lecture in England, since which time his method has been embodied into the statute law of Great Britain, Victoria (Australia), three provinces of Germany, and New South Wales, and is under consideration by other governments.

Governments and judicial authorities are at last realizing that Judge Pollard was right when he said: "It is much better to reform than to punish the drunken offender." The drunkard needs sympathy, encouragement, and help rather than punishment on his first appearance in a police court. He is not an ordinary criminal. His offence is often accidental. A thief sets out to steal, but a drunkard seldom sets out to get drunk, but simply succumbs to a legalized system which makes it easy for him to get drunk. If any offender therefore is entitled to any special consideration, it is the drunken offender.

The precise moment to attempt his reform is when his habit has brought him within the power of the law, and the abstinence condi-

tion will do this more effectively than any other method. Once drink has brought a man into court, the court should make total abstinence for at least one year a condition of probation in lieu of the maximum punishment.

WALTER EAST.

Leicester, England.

JOTTINGS

NEW CHARTER FOR LOS ANGELES

The new city charter for Los Angeles, which is to be submitted to the voters this fall, embodies several unique features which the experts who attended the convention of the National Municipal League in that city declare to be in some respects the best yet devised.

Under the terms of this charter the city is given the broadest grant of powers for the taking over and running of municipal enterprises of any city in the world. It provides that Los Angeles may acquire and run any kind of business, precisely like an individual firm or corporation. The charter specifically mentions that the city may operate stadiums, theatres, public forums, fountains, dairies, creameries, milk stations, butter and cheese factories, banks, savings depositories, pawn shops, loan agencies, bureaus of funeral supplies, bake shops and department stores.

Perhaps influenced by the example of Kansas City, Los Angeles plans to have a separate Department of Public Welfare. Los Angeles will be the first municipality to have a public defender. This official will be paid by the city to defend poor persons charged with crime and to render legal aid to the needy in certain civil matters.

Special effort is being made to make the regulations governing the selection of civil service employes effective without being pedantic and narrow. The Civil Service Commission together with the comptroller will constitute an efficiency bureau charged with maintaining the records of efficiency of individual employes. Promotions will be largely governed by these records.

The charter, which will be brief, is to be supplemented by an administrative code which may be changed by the vote of the people while the provisions of the charter can not be altered without consent of the legislature.

TECHNICAL PAPERS ON MINE SAFETY

The Bureau of Mines, now in its second year, has already brought out a substantial number of practical and technical publications on the subject of safety in mines. Technical Papers 11, 13, 18, 19 and 21 relate respectively to means of detecting carbon monoxide, gas analysis as an aid in fighting mine fires, the care of explosives, and safety in electrical mine installations. Bulletin 10

is on permissible explosives, and six circulars for the use of miners instruct them in safety precautions and methods of resuscitation. The bureau has recently issued preliminary tables of mine accidents during the last eighteen months.

POINTERS ON SAFETY

W. F. Houk, commissioner of labor of Minnesota, has issued a series of short and effective safety bulletins. Those at present available are a general safety bulletin, Forty Pregnant Pointers on Safety—from the proceedings of the state conference on safety in, 1911—a bulletin showing what some industrial corporations are doing for accident prevention and outlining a general plan for workmen's committees on safety, and the proceedings of the last Minnesota Industrial Safety Conference (1912).

FIRE WATER AND SOCIAL PROGRESS

Prof. Irving Fisher's statement of the sale of intoxicating liquors, made at a recent congressional hearing, has been published as a pamphlet and may be obtained of the author at New Haven, Conn. Testifying as president of the Committee of One Hundred on National Health, Professor Fisher has assembled in a few pages the striking aspects of the relation of alcohol to health, crime and the social evil in a way that will make it useful to social workers.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

OCTOBER CONFERENCES

CHARITIES, Massachusetts State Conference of. Haverhill, Mass., Oct. 23-25. Sec'y., Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont St., Boston, Mass.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Canadian Conference of. Montreal, Quebec, Can., Oct. 9-12. Joint Secretaries, Rufus D. Smith, 70 Mance St., Montreal and F. M. Nicholson, Parliament Building, Toronto, Ontario, Can.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Illinois State Conference of. Springfield, Ill., Oct. 19-22. Sec'y., A. L. Bowen, Springfield, Ill.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Indiana State Conference of. Logansport, Ind., Oct. 12-15. President, Emma Lee Elam, 1320 Park Ave., Indianapolis.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Maine State Conference of. Saco, Me., Oct. 28-30. President, E. P. Wentworth, New Castle.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Pennsylvania State Conference of. Wilkes-Barre, Pa., Oct. 29-31. Sec'y., William B. Buck, Charities Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITION, First Canadian, Montreal, Oct. 8-22. Sec'y., Anna Louise Strong, Monument National, Montreal.

CONSERVATION CONGRESS, National. Indianapolis, Ind., Oct. 1-2. Sec'y., Thomas R. Shipp, Indianapolis, Ind.

FARM WOMEN, First International Congress of. Lethbridge, Alberta, Oct. 21-25. Sec'y.-Treas., Eleanor L. Burns, Lethbridge, Alberta.

FIRE EXPOSITION, and International Conference of Fire Prevention, Protection and Extinguishment. Madison Square Garden, New York City, Oct. 2-12.

INFANT MORTALITY, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Cleveland, O., Oct. 2-5. Exec.-Sec'y., Gertrude B. Knipp, Medical and Chirurgical Faculty Bldg., 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

NO-LICENSE LEAGUE, Massachusetts. Boston, Oct. 29. Sec'y., Robert H. Magwood, 310 Equitable Bldg., Boston.

PELLAGRA, National Association for the Study of. Columbia, S. C., Oct. 3-4. Information may be secured from Dr. J. W. Babcock, Columbia, S. C.

LATER MEETINGS

BLIND, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the. London, England, 1914; probably July 20. Sec'y., Henry Stainsby, 208, Great Portland St., London, W.

CHILDREN'S WELFARE, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstraat 106, Amsterdam.

PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial. London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y., F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

RELIEF, Committee on Public and Private. London, Eng., 1915. Sec'y., Charles S. Loch, Charity Organization Society, London, Eng.

UNEMPLOYMENT, International Association for Fight Against. Ghent, Belgium, 1913. American Corres. Officer, John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

NATIONAL

COSMOPOLITAN CLUBS, Association of. University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, December, 1912. Sec'y., Louis P. Lochner, 612 S. Brearly St., Madison, Wis.

LABOR LEGISLATION, American Association for. Sixth Annual Meeting of. Boston, December, 1912. Sec'y., John B. Andrews, 1 Madison Ave., New York.

MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENTS, American Society of. Dallas, Texas, Nov. 12-18. Sec'y., A. Prescott Folwell, 50 Union Square, New York.

PRISON ASSOCIATION, American. Baltimore, Md. Nov. 14-19. Sec'y., Joseph Byers, 13 Central Ave., Newark.

RED CROSS, The American. Washington, D. C., December. Sec'y., Charles L. Magee, Washington, D. C.

STATE AND LOCAL

BAPTIST CONVENTION, NORTHERN, Detroit, Mich., May, 1913. Cor.-Sec'y., Rev. W. C. Bitting, St. Louis, Mo.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Iowa State Conference of. Cedar Rapids, Nov. 17-19. Gen'l. Sec'y.-Treas., J. L. Gillin, Iowa City.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New York State Conference of. Syracuse, Nov. 19-21. Sec'y., Wm. J. Doherty, 105 E. 22d St., New York.

WANTED—By a Settlement Worker of wide experience and of some considerable knowledge of agricultural problems, a position in the country to do rural social work. Address 1057, care of THE SURVEY.

THE ANNUAL MEETING of the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York will be held in Room 306, United Charities Building, 105 East 22d Street, on Wednesday, October 9, 1912, at 3.15 P. M.

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1.
A STATEMENT

BY THE EDITORS OF THE SURVEY
FOR THE PUBLICATION YEAR 1910-1911

IN BEHALF OF

CHARITIES PUBLICATION COMMITTEE

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TION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

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THE SURVEY OFFICES

NEW YORK
105 East 22d Street

CHICAGO
31 West Lake Street

CHARITIES PUBLICATION COMMITTEE

DEPARTMENTS OF WORK

THE SURVEY (formerly "Charities and The Commons"): A weekly journal of constructive philanthropy.

PRESS SERVICE: Co-operating with 140 first-class newspapers throughout the country in the publication of weekly articles on some phase of living conditions and their improvement; press sheets, news letters, editorial information bureau.

BOOK PUBLISHING: Publishers; Publication agents, Russell Sage Foundation; Sales agents, all books of interest to social workers.

FIELD WORK: A flexible staff whose investigations range between prolonged scientific research, on the one hand, and newspaper and magazine journalism, on the other.

[CLOSED]

THE PITTSBURGH SURVEY (1907-08): A close range investigation of the ranks of the wage-earners in an American steel district.

FIELD DEPARTMENT (1905-09): For the extension of organized charity. Transferred, in 1909, to Russell Sage Foundation; precursor National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity.

THE STAFF

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GRAHAM TAYLOR, Associate

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FINANCIAL APPEAL

To carry out its educational work for the publication year 1910-11 Charities Publication Committee needs (above receipts from business and other sources) the sum of fifteen thousand dollars (\$15,000).

CO-OPERATING SUBSCRIBERS

Two hundred and ninety-three subscribers to the magazine became co-operators in the educational work of the committee by paying \$10 each in 1910-11. Their number was seventy-five per cent. larger than in the year preceding; we hope for a proportionate increase the current year. This body of subscribers is giving national and democratic backing to the non-commercial work of the committee. Five hundred co-operating subscribers in 1911-12 would meet one-third of the educational outlay needed.

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL FUND

To meet the balance (\$10,000) we appeal for contributions in sums of from \$25 to \$1000. It is through the sustained and generous support of contributors to this fund that the educational work of the committee has developed beyond the limitations of advertising and subscription receipts. This development has been demonstrably practical and effective.

ENDOWMENT FUND

Charities Publication Committee is in position to administer an endowment fund to place its educational work on a permanent basis. We believe that there are few opportunities for a large gift to show such imagination, provoke such co-operation and exert so practical an influence for the well-being of America.

CHECKS

Checks should be made payable to Frank Tucker, treasurer, Charities Publication Committee, 105 East 22d Street, New York.

PUBLICATION WORK

MAGAZINE CIRCULATION

The subscription list of THE SURVEY grew, the past year, by 2692 net, making a total of 14,595 paid yearly subscribers. The number of copies sold in quantities, held for future sale and for bound volumes, and sent out as samples to prospective subscribers, added at least 2000 to the number necessary to print each week. The smallest edition of the year was 16,500, the largest 25,000. Few of the magazine issues fell below 20,000.

Compared with magazines circulating among engineers and physicians and specialists in many professions, THE SURVEY'S mailing list is good. Compared with its possibilities, it is small, for we believe there are today twice as many men and women interested in the things we are interested in, doing the things we are reporting, as have been entered on our list. To reach them is our circulation problem—a problem, be it said, we shall work at the coming year with unusual vigor. Our chief source of gain is through present subscribers—the personal recommendation which bridges the difficulties of acquaintance with a journal unheard of before.

THE PRESS SERVICE

The proof of the pudding is in the eating, and the simplest measure of the success of the Press Service is the numerical count of clippings. These show how far the educational matter sent out actually gets into paper and ink on the way to public opinion. Last year our clipping books showed 3223 articles, news items, notes, and editorials; Sept. 30th—the close of the publication year—is too recent for complete returns for the past twelve months to be in, yet the count shows 5000—an increase of over 50 percent since 1910.

The service of weekly signed articles (see page 14) goes to 141 papers in as many cities. These newspapers are published in 41 states and have an aggregate circulation of over 3,250,000. In this work, departmental editors of ten religious papers co-operate as well as the officers and field agents of the national social service organizations. The News Enterprise Association and the American Press Association also actively co-operate with us. Material is worked up for groups of trade or special papers, sent out in response to suggestions sent in by editors and others as to local needs, and made up to take prompt advantage of current news conditions. An illustration:—Upon suggestions of a New Hampshire reader, the bureau prepared a series of articles on workmen's compensation laws for a legislative campaign in that state. These articles were widely circulated in New Hampshire, where a workmen's compensation law was passed, and were used also as a series in half a hundred papers.

BOOK DISTRIBUTION

Our work in publishing and selling books in THE SURVEY'S field has grown apace. The total sales for the year were: Charities Publication Committee's Imprint (4) 948; The Russell Sage Foundation Publications (25) 11,629; Books by other Publishers 3,943; Total 16,520.

Thirteen titles were added during the year to the Russell Sage Foundation Publications, published through the Committee. Two of these ran into second editions the first year, and four earlier volumes were reprinted. The sale of Sage Foundation books was more than twice that of the year before. Miss Addams's Twenty Years at Hull House, was easily first. An entire edition of one thousand copies was bought by SURVEY readers.

TO READERS AND SUBSCRIBERS:

Two hundred and ninety-three readers of THE SURVEY subscribed \$10 each for the fiscal year just closed, to the non-commercial work of magazine and Committee. Forty others of larger means subscribed \$8,985 toward the same ends. One hundred and forty newspapers joined in giving wider currency to material interpreting conditions and movements falling within our field. Twice—four times—that number of organizations—charitable, civic, economic—worked with us and we with them at one point or another in the year's activities. When we come to the voluntary work of contributing editors, the contributors of unpaid articles to magazines and press service, and the correspondents and collaborators whose data have been welded into staff articles and the unsigned columns of the journal, the totals mount up and we have made no effort at keeping tally.

These are all so many indications of the co-operative nature of the work of magazine and Committee. It is the educational values inherent in that work which have won such co-operation in the past and which supply convincing reasons for its continuance in the future. For Charities Publication Committee is not a commercial enterprise carried on for personal profit. We do not wish to be understood as claiming any superior merit for it on that ground; perhaps it would be better if it were commercial, but in that case much work which we are now doing would be left undone or would have to be taken up by some other agency of research, interpretation, or public education. Our commercial receipts, from subscriptions, book sales, and advertising, are nearly enough to meet the expenses of printing and distributing THE SURVEY; but field investigations and editorial revision, our very extensive press service and propaganda, must be otherwise supported.

To cut short our activities at that point where they would today pay expenses would be to lay to one side opportunity after opportunity for usefulness, to blunt the co-operation which has made the magazine what it is. To do more than that calls for a renewal of our appeal for contributions of the "time, money, facts, criticism, written words, and the social inspiration which is the solvent for all these" which were asked for in last year's report, and given in generous measure in 1910-11, and which we look for in larger measure still in the year ahead.

In the old-time square dances the hand-clasp of fellowship was woven into an all-embracing figure, the "grand right and left." Once the chirruped call of the country fiddler set the endless circle in motion, it was impossible to say where it began and where it left off. A similar perplexity would be faced should we attempt to voice the appreciation of the donors of the educational fund, to those who give an evening's labor at their desks or put the kernel of a lifetime's experience into a phrase or article. Or, contrariwise, to express the gratitude of isolated social workers to those whose gifts of money have made it possible to bring the practical experience of many cities and callings within the reach of men and women who are facing hard problems in all parts of the country. In some cases the two kinds of contributors are identical; in all cases the things they contribute are complementary. Both are essential.

In these reports, which the editors of THE SURVEY make for Charities Publication Committee, small space is given to expressions of gratitude either way; and the compact statement rendered to readers and subscribers is of work done and of plans for work ahead; coupled, in the final pages, with acknowledgments of editorial and financial income during the fiscal year. Last year the report recapitulated the activities of magazine and Committee under the three main lines of publication work carried on: the press service, the circulation of the weekly journal, and book distribution. The reports under these heads for 1911-12—showing gains in each case—are reduced to succinct paragraphs on page 4. The space this year will be given up to certain positive phases of our educational work. More extended information on any point of interest to contributors will of course be sent upon inquiry.

MAGAZINE ORGANIZATION

In a day of incessant printing, more and more of it bearing a philanthropic stamp, THE SURVEY would be showing haphazard stewardship of the funds subscribed to its work, were it "just another publication." It is incumbent upon editors and committee to think out the field where they will yield greatest returns and to till that vigorously. The magazine is a plow, a seeder, a harrow—not a jaunting car or a junk cart.

In a whimsical essay in the *Atlantic Monthly*, entitled In the Hands of a Receiver, Dr. Crothers points out that in all generations there have been persons who did their duty according to their lights. "But," he adds, "it happens that a new set of lights has been turned on suddenly and we all see more duties than we had bargained for. In the glare we see an army of creditors, each with an overdue bill in hand."

From that point of view, THE SURVEY might be cartooned as a collection agency armed with a sheaf of them! And indeed one of its serious editorial problems is to elicit compact, informing columns out of the great ruck of good causes which press for publicity. It would be easier to publish 100 pages every week than twenty-four pages. Yet the latter is the unit which we are running like a backbone through each of the fifty-two numbers of the weekly year.

WEEKLY UNIT

The make-up of this weekly unit is simple: Two pages given up to the editorial foreword, in which Mr. Devine outlines the Social Forces of the day; a dozen pages of quick interpretative reporting under the heading "Common Welfare"; half as many given over to a grist of comment by social workers who know conditions first hand and who make this voluntary contribution to the crystallization of thought and public opinion in the field of THE SURVEY; these departments, followed by short paragraphs which give the reader the gist of what is said in the other magazines, in the editorial columns of newspapers, in fugitive pamphlets, reports, and interviews; book reviews which will keep him abreast of the increasing bulk of book publications with a minimum of effort; and the page or two of communications in which he may himself sometimes have the last word.

Quick information and fresh comment in the field which THE SURVEY has made its own—these are the elements of this twenty-four-page unit; and through it THE SURVEY hopes to be a time-saver at every point. The service will be carried a peg further the present year. Hereafter the busy reader can get at a glance the "pith" of each issue in a single column, fashioned after the crisp first-page paragraphs familiar to the readers of the Chicago dailies.

Chronicle and comment, it should be noted, we are endeavoring to keep fairly distinct. In newspaper practice, the sheer facts of the ordinary dispatch or report are theoretically as colorless as a table of figures. The statistician "squeezes" his table of figures and shows their relations. We also attempt to "squeeze" facts and events in reviewing them in the Common Welfare. The advocate goes further still, takes facts and generalizations and makes his argument from them. This further stage of treatment is represented in THE SURVEY by signed articles, editorials, and departments. In the signed comment, grouped under the heading "Editorial Grist," THE SURVEY has a distinctive feature. These are individual expressions of opinion, but there is an element of team play in them which gives the plan collective strength.

MAGAZINE ISSUES

As a complement to the above plan, a larger and more fully illustrated magazine number (while embodying this twenty-four-page unit) is available

for setting forth longer graphic articles, series, and fundamental essays. In these magazine numbers, THE SURVEY brings to the surface the undercurrents of social thought and accomplishment, so that they will stand out boldly before the public.

DEPARTMENTAL ISSUES

Under this plan also the weekly unit is freed more than in the past from accumulations of technical matter of primary interest to the specialists in the different fields covered by THE SURVEY. This more technical matter is grouped in five main departments and published in our mid-monthly number, a plan not meant to relegate it to the rear but to accord it consistent and definite attention. Each department is in charge of a paid member of the staff, with the exception of that on Crime and Its Cure, which is handled by Mrs. Barrows as a contribution to the movements for reform in the field so long served by herself and her husband.

From its inception, THE SURVEY, and the magazines which merged into it, has served as a trade journal for social workers in the various fields. The multiplication of lines of social effort and the opening up of new fields of professional interest call for sustained service in this direction; but they call for it in a different form from that best suited to the needs of the situation ten years ago. Then a department on tuberculosis, another on children's institutions and the like, were needed. Today book publication on a scale unanticipated five years ago, and a new flood of pamphleteering, make the printing of monographic articles in THE SURVEY unnecessary. Nor is it necessary to duplicate the general articles on social topics which have revolutionized the contents pages of the popular monthly magazines; still less to duplicate the work of the specialized propagandist periodicals, such as the *Playground*, *Outdoor Life*, and the *Hospital Record*.

The service we are endeavoring to render is different from that of any and all of these. Broad and varied as the field of social concern is, it can be grouped under certain main headings. For an experimental year we have set five groups: Civics, Health, Industry, Crime and Its Cure, and Social Agencies.

Each heading is broad enough to include not one special line of social work, but several related lines. And the plan is to afford the worker a digested and consistent review of the main developments, the latest thought, invention, and discussion, which are to the fore in the broad field of interest in which he works. Again a time-saver—a combination of The-Review-of-Reviews, Literary-Digest principle—with a special service to a professional class of readers.

In this scheme for organizing our editorial material in a weekly unit of fact and comment, linked with two enlarged issues each month, the one for the general reader and the other for the specialist, we have a working combination which in the six months just closed has enabled us to handle a wider variety of subjects, dealing with a wider range of localities, to handle them more intensively and in fewer pages and with less strain on the attention of the general reader, than ever before.

WORK OF INTERPRETATION

But enough of method. It is the quickening spirit, the truth and human content of printed matter that counts. We are, after all, not men of letters but men of human needs—men who would put the advances of science, the craftsmanship of modern

industry, the practical experience of the old professions and the new, the ethical teachings of those men and women who see less darkly through the glass than their fellows to the practical service of this generation and of those who come after. Ours is a work of interpretation. For purposes of editorial auditing we have mapped that work out into nine categories.* With the issues of 1910-11 before us, let us run over some of the distinctive contributions which THE SURVEY and those who co-operated in it have made under the different heads:

a. As interpreter of inter-related social movements: charity organization, the prevention of tuberculosis, housing reform, and so on.

The distinctive feature of the year was of course the special number given up to the Quinquennial Prison Congress which met in Washington in October, 1910, in many respects a more prophetic "parliament of the world" even than the peace conferences at the Hague. Each of the four great sections of the congress were reviewed by a specialist; the general trend of discussion and resolutions in three languages was brought into terms understandable to the layman, and the leading papers of Americans and foreigners were set forth. The treatment of this international meeting was, however, but a type of the reportorial service rendered throughout the year with respect to national and state conferences of charities and correction, and to meetings on insanity, probation, infant mortality, vocational guidance, city planning, alcoholism, and the whole range of movements in our field.

b. As interpreter of civic and social advance in every part of the country to every other part.

Here our best illustration is a notable series of articles, edited by Mr. Veiller, on the Housing Awakening of American Cities: the Socialist program with respect to slums in Milwaukee; the awakening of a state (Indiana) to housing reform; housing reform in cold storage, as illustrated by Boston; the huddled Poles of Buffalo; the new tenants in old shacks in St. Louis; the problems of housing reform on the Pacific Coast as found in Los Angeles and San Francisco; the small houses of a million Philadelphians; the sheltering of the foreigners who have invaded New England; the movements in Columbus and Detroit; and the 70,000 earth closets which have threatened the health of Baltimore.

c. As interpreter of different groups in society to one another.

In December the Federal Immigration Commission presented its report to Congress—a summary of investigations which had cost the federal government \$300,000. Within the month, THE SURVEY had published a special number interpreting the main findings in each of the basic fields of investigation. The past summer, in a series of articles based on investigations made for the Carnegie Institution, Mrs. Houghton has interpreted Syrian immigration to the United States; and a new field has been broached by Mr. Cance in his discussion of the settlement of foreigners upon the soil.

* For more extended definition of their scope see A Year Under a New Name, a 100-page statement published by Charities Publication Committee in April, 1910. This will be sent on request.

d. As interpreter of the social work of the several professions.

It is perhaps in the churches that the most striking advances of the year have been made towards the socialization of a great professional group. Mark the very titles of the organizations which are coming into the field, some with paid secretaries and with more and more clear-cut programs. The Commission on Social Service of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America; the Methodist Federation for Social Service; the secretary for labor and social service of the Congregational Brotherhood of America; the Department of Church and Labor of the Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church; the Joint Commission on Social Service of the General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church; the Unitarian Commission on the Church and the Social Question. The scope and spirit of this general movement were brought forward in a special issue of THE SURVEY for March, "The Community and the Church." During the present year, the Men and Religion movement carries the trend forward by another important stage, with co-operating committees of 100 each in seventy cities and visiting field groups of trained men. In this movement THE SURVEY is co-operating.

e. As interpreter of social invention in industry.

THE SURVEY publishes a constructive department covering such subjects as the incisive investigations of the Illinois Commission on Occupational Diseases; the co-operative plan of Worcester manufacturers in fighting tuberculosis; the safety devices of the American Steel and Wire Company for preventing injuries to the eye; the meetings of insurance and factory inspectors in Wisconsin and Illinois; the issue between organized labor and scientific management; the investigations and standards adopted by the Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the Cloak and Suit Trade of New York (the first trade legislature in America in which employers and employes have co-operated); the social program of the National Electric Light Association.

f. As interpreter of movements for the betterment of industrial relations and conditions.

The feature of the year was of course the sudden national spreading of the movement for workmen's compensation and the prevention of accidents. In mid-winter, THE SURVEY published a review of reports brought in by seven state commissions, this review being the volunteer work of Mr. Sherman, former commissioner of labor of New York. The decision of the New York Court of Appeals, declaring the first American compensation law unconstitutional, became the text for a symposium by some of the leaders in industrial statesmanship in this country. During the summer Mr. Lescotier of the Minnesota Bureau of Labor has depicted the trade hazards of a new range of employments: the risks of the ore-diggers, the lumber men, the flour millers, and the farm laborers.

g. As interpreter of social research.

Digests of the remarkable report of the Chicago Vice Commission, of investigations of burial insurance, of the study of street planning carried out by the Pittsburgh Civic Commission are illustrations in point which could be multiplied indefinitely.

- h. As interpreter and advocate of reform and social advance, where none other exists.

Here, for another year, our best example is the "Shop Early" campaign which THE SURVEY has managed for the last years in co-operation with the National Consumers' League. More than two hundred newspapers in different cities and one hundred department stores used the stories, cartoons, and advertising appeals which we sent out urging early Christmas shopping—twice the number directly co-operating in the year before.

- i. As quick investigator and interpreter of the facts of living conditions while they are in process rather than after they have happened.

See Field Work, p. 12.

THE SURVEY AND THE COLLEGES

The interpreter must get, learn, see. He must, on the other hand, share what he gathers, must reach those who need information and will act upon it.

One audience reached by THE SURVEY in 1910-11 was 600 students in twenty-two colleges and training schools who used the magazine as a text-book in their courses. A special college offer made this possible. Incidentally, this fresh criticism of young eyes is not an easy test to which to put a weekly publication. Fundamentally, it is one of the most hopeful educational factors in our year's work—worth itself, we believe, the total outlay of magazine and Committee for educational purposes. Here are some of the things said of THE SURVEY by the men whose classes in sociology, economics, history, philosophy, and philanthropy use this current text:

"I said to my class, 'THE SURVEY is as necessary to a student of Sociology as the *London Times* is to an English statesman. It is what you must read to understand what is going on.'"—CHARLES H. COOLEY, Professor of Sociology, University of Michigan.

"THE SURVEY has won for itself an unique place. Its news is fresh, and from it can be obtained a clear view of current social endeavor. I read it with more regularity and with more profit than any other paper of its class. You have made it indispensable to the economist and the social reformer."—SIMON N. PATTEN, Professor of Political Economy, University of Pennsylvania.

"THE SURVEY is invaluable. Its special articles and editorial comments are always timely and practical. It is edited with the greatest intelligence and good sense. Both the expedient and scientific view are always presented, and no student of the social problems of need and relief can go astray who follows its admirable guidance."—FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS, Professor of Sociology, Columbia University.

"I have found THE SURVEY not only of growing interest to me, but an indispensable condition for my university work. To the

social students it has many applications outside the field of professional philanthropy."—FRANK A. FETTER, Professor of Economics and Distribution, Cornell University.

"I am planning to have my class in ethics use THE SURVEY as the basis of their work for the coming year. I am thoroughly dissatisfied with the abstract and ultra-academic treatments of ethics so largely in vogue. I am looking to your journal to give my students the wealth of concrete detail that will make their ethical thinking truly effective."—H. A. OVERSTREET, Professor of Philosophy, University of California.

"I have been greatly interested in THE SURVEY for a rather unusual reason. I have especially at heart the exploitation of history in the cause of social betterment, for it seems to be becoming clear that one of the most unmistakable uses of history lies in explaining the present, either by showing how it has come about or in illuminating it by indicating the contrasts which it offers to the past. In order to put history to this new use, two things are necessary. We must have a point of view, so as to interrogate the past with advantage; and we must substitute for the great mass of irrelevant and outworn matter that fills our history books a new selection of material to meet our present demands. Now, THE SURVEY seems to be providentially raised up to supply the point of view and to suggest to the student of social and intellectual history those fruitful lines of reminiscence which will most surely guide and cheer us on our way toward better things."—J. H. ROBINSON, Professor of History, Columbia University.

"In certain classes I have my students read and report upon THE SURVEY, and I have been astonished to find how it brings them over to the new enlightened social point of view. It is a great time-saver for me, and I should not think of teaching practical sociology without its aid. It grips the students and, I think, many of them continue reading it after leaving college."—EDWARD A. ROSS, Professor of Sociology, University of Wisconsin.

"THE SURVEY is a most helpful journal for students of sociological subjects. So far as my own investigations go, I often turn to it and would be at a loss without it to know where to get detailed information on many topics of current interest. It is particularly valuable, coming as it does once a week in a form which can be easily read. Some of its articles are of an authoritative character, deserving permanent record and preservation."—DAVIS R. DEWEY, Professor of Economics, Mass. Inst. of Technology.

FIELD WORK

The field which THE SURVEY fills, as distinct from that covered by the general periodicals or by the professional journals, has been set forth. There remains to distinguish its investigational work from that done by foundations, universities, and governmental agencies. Through its investigational catalog, THE SURVEY endeavors to keep in touch with the social research of all these agencies, to follow it up and interpret it. It deals itself with those things which are outside the field of existing organizations, and, more important, with things while they are in process.

For the first time, THE SURVEY has a staff flexible enough in size and equipment to have a member on the ground when we should be represented. The year opened with an investigation of the Westmoreland coal strike, our findings being published from one to six months in advance of reports published in *Collier's*, the *American Magazine*, *Grit*, the *Philadelphia North American*, and other publications. The co-operation of two experts in fire prevention, enlisted at the time of the Newark factory fire; a study of the Columbus penitentiary, one of the oldest and worst of the American Bastiles; a running narrative of the great garment strike in Chicago—are other illustrations. The year closes with a report on the railroad strikes in England by an associate editor who, through good fortune, was on the ground, and with another member of the staff studying at first hand the facts as to relief, sanitation, and social control involved in the breaking of a great dam and the inundation of a village at Austin, Pa.

In years when industrial unrest and depression are in prospect; when charitable problems are reaching deep into the social structure and are to the fore in active discussion; when cities and states and the nation are still laggard in meeting some of their most elementary responsibilities towards the dependent, the delinquent, and the defective; when the human waste of industry and misgovernment lies heavy upon the heart; when social invention has lagged behind mechanical advance and when social enactment has dragged still further to the rear; when the life and livelihood of great masses of the people suffer because of this slow adjustment; when, on the other hand, constructive forces are at work and the various movements for social advance are crystallizing into national forms; when individual physicians, lawyers, and ministers, employers and labor leaders, social workers and members of boards of directors, are carrying forward the heritage of experience and sound method bequeathed by the pioneers of social reform and are themselves blazing new ways—in such a decade a magazine such as THE SURVEY has a responsible function to perform. In setting forth the truth of conditions as it finds them, in telling what men think who have made up their minds and in whose judgment other men have confidence, and, no less, in putting unanswered questions, THE SURVEY is looked to by an increasing body of readers and contributors. At such a juncture such a magazine has greater need than ever for an independent trained staff which can succinctly, accurately, and graphically present the course of things as they occur; and can delve into situations which are in process and about which public opinion needs information. This, after all, is the chief educational work of THE SURVEY, the firm footing for its educational appeal.

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Secretary American Association for Labor Legislation, 1908-.

Author, several special reports for the United States Bureau of Labor; one of five editors, Documentary History of American Industrial Society, 1905-8.

ISABEL C. BARROWS.....1911-....Contributing Editor: Crime and Its Cure Adams Academy, 1862; University of Vienna, 1869-70, 1876; University of Leipzig 1875, 1892.

Reporter National Prison Association, twenty years.

Assistant editor, *Christian Register*, 1880-1896; editor, National Conference Charities and Correction, 1881-1905; editor, Bulletin International Prison Congress 1910.

LILIAN BRANDT.....1902-....Contributing Editor: Book Reviews Wellesley, A.B. 1895; M.A. 1901; New York School of Philanthropy, 1902.

Statistician Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis, 1902-4; secretary Committee on Social Research, 1905-7; assistant to general secretary Charity Organization Society of the City of New York, 1907-; assistant in social economy Columbia University, 1905-.

DAVID C. DAVIS.....1910-....Advertising Manager Formerly advertising manager, Fred Kauffman, Wholesale Tailors, Chicago; New England advertising representative, Butterick Publishing Company.

- EDWARD T. DEVINE**.....1897-.....Editor
Cornell, A.B. 1887; M.A. 1890; LL.D. 1904; University of Halle, 1890-1; Pennsylvania, Ph.D. 1895.
Principal high school, Mt. Vernon, Ia., 1888-90; staff lecturer on economics for American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, 1891-6; general secretary Charity Organization Society of the City of New York, 1896-; director New York School of Philanthropy, 1904-7; professor of social economy, Columbia University, 1905-.
Member council American Academy of Political and Social Science; council American Economic Association; president Section V, International Congress on Tuberculosis, 1908; member board of directors National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis; National Child Labor Committee.
Author, *Economics; The Practice of Charity; The Principles of Relief; Efficiency and Relief; Misery and Its Causes; Social Forces.*
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Amherst, 1894; Johns Hopkins, M.D. 1899; Universities of Strassburg, 1900; Basel, 1901; Paris, 1903.
Formerly associate in medicine Johns Hopkins, and resident physician Johns Hopkins Hospital, 1899-1908; superintendent Clifton Springs, N. Y., Sanitarium, 1908-1911; assistant professor of medicine, Cornell University, 1909-1910; professor of medicine and dean Indiana University School of Medicine, 1911-.
Member American Medical Association.
Author, *Pneumothorax; Clinical Diagnosis; Hospitals for Children; Essentials of Medicine.*
- JOHN A. FITCH**.....1910-.....Editorial Staff: Investigations
Yankton, A.B. 1904; graduate student political economy, University of Wisconsin, 1906-7; fellow, 1908-9.
Instructor, Weeping Water, Neb., Academy, 1904-6; member staff, The Pittsburgh Survey, 1907-8; expert New York State Department of Labor, 1909-10.
Author: *The Steel Workers.*
- BERNARD FLEXNER**.....1909-.....Contributing Editor: Juvenile Courts
Louisville, LL.B.; further study in law, University of Virginia.
- HOMER FOLKS**.....1897-.....Contributing Editor: Children and Probation
Albion, A.B. 1889; Harvard, A.B. 1890; Ohio Wesleyan, LL.D. 1911.
Superintendent Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, 1890-3; secretary State Charities Aid Association of New York, 1893-1901, 1904-; assisted United States military authorities in reorganizing public charities of Cuba, April-May, 1900; commissioner Public Charities, City of New York, 1902-3; president New York State Probation Commission, 1907-.
Alderman from 29th district, New York, 1897, 1898; chairman Municipal Charities Section, National Conference Charities and Correction, 1898; president National Conference Charities and Correction, 1911.
Author, *History of the Care of Destitute, Neglected, and Delinquent Children in the United States during the Nineteenth Century.*
- SHELBY M. HARRISON**.....1910-.....Editorial Staff: Investigations
Northwestern, A.B. 1906; graduate student, Boston University, 1906-7; university scholar in economics, Harvard graduate school, 1907-8; 1908-9.
Graduate secretary, Boston University Y. M. C. A., 1906-7; member staff, The Pittsburgh Survey, 1908; executive secretary Federated Boys' Clubs, Boston, 1909.
- JAMES P. HEATON**.....1910-.....Editorial Staff: Press Service
Columbia, A.B. 1905; M.A. 1906; LL.B. 1907; university scholar in economics, Columbia University, 1905-1906. Admitted to New York bar, 1907.
In office of Edward M. Grout and Paul Grout, Attorneys, 1907; member staff Bureau of Municipal Research in New York and Philadelphia, 1907-10.
Settlement Classes, Speyer School, Teachers' College, New York, 1902-4; resident University Settlement, New York, 1905-7.
- LEWIS W. HINE**.....1908-.....Staff Photographer
Oshkosh, Wis., State Normal School, 1900; University of Chicago, 1900-1; New York, Ph.D., 1905.
Teacher nature study and photography, Ethical Culture School, New York city 1901-8; professional Social Photographer, 1908-.
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- PHILIP P. JACOBS**.....1909-.....Contributing Editor: Tuberculosis
Syracuse, A.B. 1903; Drew Theological Seminary, B.D. 1908; Columbia, Ph.D. 1910.
Editorial staff Binghamton, N. Y., *Republican*, 1903-5; hospital committee State Charities Aid Association, 1906-8; assistant secretary National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 1908-.
Author, *New Hospitals Needed in Greater New York; Ambulance Service of Greater New York; The Campaign Against Tuberculosis in the United States; German Sociology; A Tuberculosis Directory, 1911.*

- ALEXANDER JOHNSON**.....1905-....Contributing Editor: Public Care of Dependents
 Attended private schools and Owens College, Manchester, England.
 General secretary Associated Charities of Cincinnati, 1884-1886; general secretary Charity Organization Society, Chicago, 1886-1889; secretary State Board of Charities of Indiana, 1889-1893; superintendent Indiana School for Feeble-Minded, 1893-1903; lecturer Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, 1903-; associate director New York School of Philanthropy, 1904-1906; lecturer New York School of Philanthropy, 1906-; general secretary National Conference Charities and Correction, 1904-.
 Chairman National Conference Committee on Charity Organization, 1885, 1886; chairman National Conference Committee on Feeble-Minded, 1896, 1903; secretary National Conference, 1891, 1892, 1893; general secretary International Congress of Philanthropy, Chicago, 1893; president National Conference Charities and Correction, 1897.
 Compiler, *Guide to the Study of Charities and Correction*; editor, *Conference Proceedings*, 1904-; author, *The Almshouse*.
- FLORENCE KELLEY**.....1903-....Contributing Editor: Child Labor
 Cornell, B. Lit. 1882; Northwestern University Law School, LL.B., 1895.
 Special agent Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois, 1892; state inspector of Factories of Illinois, 1893-7; secretary National Consumers' League, 1899-.
 Member New York State Commission on Distribution of Population; colleague The Pittsburgh Survey, 1907-8; trustee National and New York State Child Labor Committee.
 Author, *Some Ethical Gains Through Legislation*; translator, *Friedrich Engels's Condition of the Working Class in England*; editor *Edmond Kelly's Twentieth Century Socialism*.
- ARTHUR P. KELLOGG**.....1903-.....Managing Editor
 New York School of Philanthropy, 1903.
 Five years' newspaper experience Michigan and Chicago; press representative Michigan Legislature, 1900-1; assistant editor *Charities and The Commons*, 1903-06; business manager, 1906-9; managing editor, 1910-.
 Assistant secretary National Conference Charities and Correction, 1906, 1907; New York State Conference, 1904, 1905; member Press Committee, National Conference Charities and Correction, 1908; member Committee of One Hundred on National Health.
- PAUL U. KELLOGG**.....1902-.....Associate Editor
 Special student School of Political Science, Columbia University, 1901-5; New York School of Philanthropy, 1902; Amherst, honorary A.M. 1911.
 Reporter and city editor Kalamazoo, Mich., *Daily Telegraph*, 1898-1902; director The Pittsburgh Survey, 1907-8.
 Assistant secretary National Conference of Charities and Correction, 1904, 1905; member Committee for Improving the Industrial Condition of the Negro in New York; Commission on Social Service, Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America; chairman Committee on Occupational Standards, National Conference Charities and Correction, 1910; member Committee on Congestion of Population in New York.
 Editor, six volumes *The Pittsburgh Survey*.
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 Two years' newspaper experience in Ft. Wayne, Ind.
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 Pennsylvania, Ph.B. 1889; post-graduate study, Universities of Pennsylvania, Halle, Berlin, Vienna, Rome, and Paris, 1889-94; Ph.D. Halle, 1892; LL.D., Pennsylvania, 1909.
 Instructor, assistant professor, and professor of sociology, University of Pennsylvania, 1894-1907; expert agent, United States Industrial Commission to report on railroad labor, 1899-1900; commissioner of education, Porto Rico, 1902-4; secretary National Child Labor Committee, 1904-07; professor social legislation, Columbia University; director, New York School of Philanthropy, 1907-.
 Member Royal Economic Society; president American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1900-2; president New York Academy of Political Science, 1911-; president New York Labor Legislation Association, 1910-.
 Author, *Die Preisbewegung der Edelmetalle*, Jena; *Social Aspects of Philadelphia Relief Work*, Civic Club Digest, Philadelphia; articles in *Palgrave's Dictionary of Political Economy*; *Railway Labor in the United States*; *Reports on Education in Porto Rico*.

*Resigned April

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 Assistant secretary Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, 1898-1900; special agent Committee of Fifty; general secretary Montreal Charity Organization Society, 1900-2; general district secretary Chicago Bureau of Charities, 1902-05; superintendent Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, 1905-7; superintendent Rehabilitation Committee, San Francisco, 1906; field secretary Charity Organization Department, Russell Sage Foundation, 1907-1911; general secretary National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, 1911.
 Chairman New York State Conference Committee on the Care of the Poor in their Homes, 1907; chairman Committee on International Relations, National Consumers' League; member Executive Committee National Conference of Charities and Correction, 1911-12.
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 Editorial staff, Rochester *Post-Express*, 1891-1902; secretary American Park and Outdoor Art Association, 1902-4; first secretary American Civic Association; specialist in town planning, Denver, Columbus, Honolulu, Los Angeles, etc.; colleague The Pittsburgh Survey, 1907-8.
 Member National Committee on Municipal Improvement, Architectural League of America, etc.
 Author, *The Improvement of Towns and Cities*; *Modern Civic Art*; *The Call of the City*; *The Width and Arrangement of Streets*.
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 Instructor St. Timothy's School, Catonsville, Md., 1900-6; assistant agent Riverside District, New York Charity Organization Society, 1906-7; acting agent Riverside District, 1907-8.
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 Rutgers, A.B. 1870; Reformed Theological Seminary, 1873.
 Pastor Hopewell Junction, N. Y., and Hartford, Conn., 1873-1892; professor practical theology, Hartford Theological Seminary, 1888-1892; professor social economics, Chicago Theological Seminary, 1892-; founder and resident warden Chicago Commons Social Settlement, 1894-; founder and president Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, 1903-; editor, *The Commons*, 1896-1904.
 Member Chicago Special Park Commission, 1903-6; board of directors Chicago Public Library, 1906-; Committee on Plan for Chicago, 1909-; Illinois Industrial Commission to Protect the Health, Safety and Comfort of Employees, 1908-9; advisory committee Cook County Board of Commissioners, 1909-; Illinois Mining Investigating Commission, 1909-; Municipal Voters' League of Chicago; advisory board Pittsburgh Civic Commission; Chicago Vice Commission, 1910; chairman Committee on Industry, National Council of Congregational Churches, 1907-; Editorial Contributor *Chicago Daily News*.
 Author, *Industry and Religion, Their Common Ground and Interdependence*; *The Merrick Lectures, 1907-8*; *Social Tendencies of the Industrial Revolution*; *The Congress of Arts and Sciences, Universal Exposition, St. Louis, 1904*; *The Social Function of the Church*.
- GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR** 1904-... Western Representative
 Harvard, A.B. 1903.
 Associated Press reporter Assembly New York Legislature, 1904; associate editor *The Commons*, 1904-5; special agent United States Census Bureau, 1910.
 Resident Chicago Commons; secretary Playground Association of Chicago; member Chicago City Club Committee Parks, Playgrounds, and Bathing Beaches; director Playground Association of America; member executive board American Civic Association; member Committee on Public Health, National Municipal League; member Committee on Housing and Recreation, National Conference of Charities and Correction.
- LAWRENCE VELLER** 1910-... Contributing Editor: Housing Reform
 College of the City of New York, A.B. 1890.
 Secretary New York State Tenement House Commission, 1900-1; deputy-commissioner New York City Tenement House Department, 1902-3; director Department for the Improvement of Social Conditions, New York Charity Organization Society, 1907-; director National Housing Association, 1910-.
 Author, *Housing Reform*; *Model Tenement House Law*; joint author, *The Tenement Problem*.
- MAY LANGDON WHITE** 1909-... Book Publishing
 Special study, Radcliffe, 1897-8, 1900-1; Wisconsin, A.B. 1904; Columbia, A.M. 1909; New York School of Philanthropy, 1909.
 Formerly member editorial staff Ginn and Company, Boston; Rand, McNally and Company, Chicago; D. Appleton and Company, New York.

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